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THE RECRUITMENT OF EXPERIENCE IN A UNIVERSITY ADULT EDUCATION DIPLOMA

A curriculum analysis

by

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Declaration

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

Judith Haupt

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Abstract

This is a study of the recruitment of experience in an Adult Education Diploma. Through an analysis of the written curriculum, three aspects of recruiting experience are addressed: the different kinds of experience that are recruited on the course, the ways in which these kinds of experience are recruited, and the purpose of recruiting experience as evident in the assessment of the course.

A language is developed to depict different kinds of experience that are recruited and the frequency of each kind of experience is identified. The process of recruiting experience is investigated, particularly regarding the sequencing of recruitment of experience and theoretical input by the lecturer. Two modes of recruiting experience are identified and the frequency of use of each mode is established. The assessment on the course is analysed, with the aim of identifying the purpose of recruiting experience on the course, and written comments by the course convenor on actual assignments are used to identify the characteristics of an 'ideal assignment'.

The results of the analysis are discussed in relationship to Bernstein's theory of pedagogy and curriculum. The findings indicate that the course bears characteristics of different models of pedagogy. On the one hand, there is a strong commitment to drawing on learner experience as a basis for learning, and the personal experience of learners is used extensively in the pedagogic process. The assignment tasks require an application of theory to experience, with an ultimate goal of illuminating mainly practitioner experience. This represents an example of a competence model of pedagogy, which is the dominant discourse of experiential learning within adult education. On the other hand however, the processes of recruiting experience revealed a strong control of the transmitter over the *selection and sequencing* of the experience to be recruited, and therefore the ways in which experience is drawn upon. This suggests a performance model of pedagogy, and points to the influence of the formal setting of the higher education institution at which the course is offered, where results have to be formally measured and certain kinds of knowledge need to be transmitted.

The thesis gives an empirical account of the recruitment of experience in a higher education context, and questions whether the model of experiential learning as described by experiential learning theorists is realisable and legitimate in a course offered at a higher education institution.

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1 Introduction

1.1 *Rationale*

This is a study of the recruitment of experience in an Adult Education Diploma. Drawing on an analysis of written text, I give an empirical account of three different aspects of experience recruitment as set out in the curriculum of the course: the kinds of experiences that are recruited within the curriculum, the ways in which they are recruited, and the purpose of recruiting experience in assignment tasks.

Three interconnected developments provoked my interest in the issue of recruiting experience, and provided the background to my research: firstly, the increasing significance of adult education and particularly experiential learning methods, secondly, international changes in higher education towards a greater collaboration with workplaces, and thirdly, recent policy developments within South Africa. In this chapter, I elaborate on these developments, and stipulate the questions that guided me during the research process.

Throughout the past few decades, understandings of learning, knowledge and work have continually taken on new forms. The concept of 'lifelong learning', and ideas such as the 'learning organisation' and 'learning society' have become prevalent and are central elements of recent policy rhetoric (Holford, 1997). Workplace learning and knowledge created in the workplace have received growing attention (Garrick, 1999; Mulcahy, 2000; Marsick & Watkins, 1999; Jackson & Jordan, 2000), and more and more ways of exploring learning in different contexts have emerged. Therefore, adult and continuing education have become increasingly important in education policy, practice and research. Experiential learning as an approach to adult and continuing education is seen as one of the most significant areas for current research and practice in adult education (Michelsen, 1996) and has been gaining recognition over the last two decades. Seen as a contrasting movement to traditional education approaches that are based on rational epistemology (Kolb, 1993), experiential learning provides "very different prescriptions for the conduct of education, the proper relationships among learning, work, and other life activities, and the creation of knowledge itself" (ibid: 138).

Experiential learning methods became popular in adult education as an approach which stresses people's experience as an important basis for their knowledge development

and learning, and recognising knowledge that has been "traditionally uncredentialed" (Fenwick, 2001). Adult educators thus "challenged well-established ways of thinking about education as program, the educator as expert knower, and knowledge as theory" (ibid: 2). Due to this stance regarding education and knowledge, experiential learning methods and other adult education approaches had historically very *little* to do with higher education.

Recently however, the relationship between higher education and workplaces has changed. In higher education, traditionally legitimate knowledge is challenged; knowledge is increasingly seen as market commodity (Usher and Solomon, 1997). Collaboration between previously separated institutions, such as higher education institutions and worksites as places of learning, is frequently requested within public policy[1], and universities are required to respond to market needs by restructuring their curricula and becoming more performance-orientated (Moore, 2003; Usher and Solomon, 1997). Regarding research and knowledge production, the shift from Mode 1, the 'traditional' way of researching with a strong disciplinary base, is expected to give way to Mode 2, a new mode of knowledge production that is described as trans-disciplinary, trans-institutional, and more collaborative (Gibbons et al in Muller, 2001).

Experiential learning is regarded by its advocates as the means to link learning and working. Knowledge gained through work or life experience is recognised by some as equal to knowledge gained in formal education – the implementation of the recognition of prior learning (RPL) at higher education institutions is an indication that in higher education, attitudes towards experience gained outside the academy are changing (Breier, 2003). There are strong tendencies to formalise informal learning by recognising prior experience, and 'shaping' it in ways to fit into formalised learning for access to further education. Traditionally formal education is required to recognise and integrate informal learning and 'knowledges' acquired outside a formal education system. Recognition of informal learning is seen as crucial in improving social inclusion and increasing economic productivity (Hodkinson et al, 2003).

The changes in higher education, the move towards collaboration with other institutions and the recognition of experiential learning are reflected in recent South African policy developments. The National Qualifications System (NQF) has been introduced to integrate education and training, and to implement outcomes-based education in all areas of

[1] The Departments of Education and Labour in South Africa request the creation of 'communities of trust' between the world of workplace and institutional learning in their 'Consultative Document' published in 2003.

learning. It provides the possibility to achieve national qualifications through both formal and informal learning, and generally has two aims: rectifying inequalities of the past, as well as keeping up with economical and social demands of a globalised world (Muller, 2001). In a South African policy document on the National Qualifications Framework, the Departments of Education and Labour state that both context-bound and discipline-based modes of learning should be respected, and various structures should collaborate and recognise the value both approaches bring to learning situations. They also claim it is essential not to see the two forms of learning as mutually exclusive, but to understand the interface between the two worlds (Departments of Education and Labour, 2003).

This 'interface between the two worlds' is what I investigate in this thesis. The developments described above provoked my research question in different ways. Being a student at a higher education institution, and studying experiential learning approaches, I have always been curious to know how experiential learning methods could or would be implemented in a formal higher education curriculum. Knowing that higher education institutions are increasingly requested to collaborate with other sites of learning, respond to market needs and grant learners with little or no formal higher education access to university courses, I was interested to see what the interface between the two worlds 'workplace' and 'formal higher education institution' would look like. I expected that experiential learning methods would play a significant role when integrating learners – who had previously mainly learned at their workplace – into a formal higher education institution. However, also having studied theorists of the new sociology of education, such as Basil Bernstein (1975, 1996, 2000), I recognised that the erosion of boundaries between formal and informal learning and between different kinds of knowledge would not be unproblematic. I was interested in the way informal learning, thus knowledge gained through experience, would be drawn upon in a formal higher education curriculum.

Much has been written about the Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) in a higher education context and difficulties encountered in RPL processes regarding the transformation of informal knowledge into academically 'valid' knowledge (Shalem, 2001; Harris, 2004). These authors concentrate on the recognition of knowledge gained *outside of* and *before* entering a formal education institution. When reading about experiential learning as the dominant approach within adult education today, I also found many pieces of literature on

how experiential learning methods could play out *in* formal higher education[2]. However, this literature deals more with broader methods of experiential learning, and not with different forms of knowledge or the actual process of recruiting experiential knowledge within a higher education curriculum. This evoked my curiosity as to how experiential knowledge would be recruited within a specific curriculum, *after* entering a formal education institution.

Breier's (2003) study on the recruitment and recognition of prior informal experience in two labour law courses deals with the processes with which learners' experiential knowledge is recruited. In her study, she concentrates on the recruitment of experience in a specific discipline, and taking place *after* the process of being admitted to university, rather than before (which is the case with RPL processes) (Breier, 2003). Her study will be described in greater detail in the review of relevant literature. My research is very similar to Breier's, although her analysis is much more fine-ground and complex than my own and looks at a different discipline. My exact research question will be described in the next section.

1.2 The research question

This thesis involves a case study, a 'Diploma of Education (Adult Education)' course that is offered by a major South African university. It captures the intersection of some of the developments mentioned above. It represents the collaboration between workplaces and a higher education institution (the course is offered to trainers from a specific industrial sector). It grants access to learners who have had relatively little formal education, and who have mainly learned through work experience, thus informal learning and practice. They are therefore the 'ideal' learners in terms of experiential learning theory, having experience and knowledge that can be 'tapped into' and drawn upon in order to create new knowledge. The language describing the course resonated with experiential and adult learning discourses: it is a course designed to empower the learners/trainers, have them develop professionally, and increase their capacity for reflection and innovation in their sites of practice (Adult Learning Group, n.d.).

With this thesis, I aimed to illuminate the process of recruiting experience on the course, and specifically looked at the different kinds of experience that were recruited, the

[2] Some authors are Brookfield (1998), Cooper et al (2000) and Gwele (1998), Hodkinson et al (2003) and Luckett and Luckett (1998), and are listed in the literature review.

relationship of theoretical and experiential knowledge during the process, and the purpose of recruiting experience on the course. My research question was therefore:

> *What kinds of experiential knowledge are recruited in a university Adult Education Diploma course for workplace trainers, how does this recruitment take place, and for what purpose?*

Regarding the process of recruiting experience, and the purpose of recruiting experience, I specifically questioned the relationship between experiential knowledge and formal knowledge. The following sub-questions arose regarding the *process* of recruiting experience: What is the relationship between the recruitment of experiential knowledge and theoretical lecturer input? Looking at the *purpose* of recruiting experience, I specifically asked: Does the *recruitment of experience* in this course constitute a method *to give access to theory*, or is *theory* on this course used to ultimately *give learners a better understanding of their practice*? In order to answer these questions, I analysed the written curriculum of the Diploma and drew on the views of the course convenor.

By investigating the recruitment of learner experience within a formal curriculum for adult learners, I aimed to throw light on issues of curriculum development and contribute to empirical research conducted within a formal education context. I aimed to add to empirical accounts of the connection of experiential and formal learning that is frequently requested within recent public policy. In the following section, I will give a definition of the key terms in this thesis.

1.3 Definition of terms

In this thesis, the term '*experience*' is used to depict life or work situations that can be used as resources for learning. They can be situations that learners have gone through or are currently going through personally, or situations that are referred to by secondary sources. In the former case, experience is expressed in personal narratives. In the latter case, the 'experience' is more remote and impersonal, depicted by case studies, videos, or site visits that are independent from one person's experience, yet are still accounts of real-life situations. These real-life situations involve knowledge *of* these specific situations. Whether this knowledge ultimately proves useful for learning or not, going through an experience creates this '*experiential knowledge*', which is another term frequently used in this thesis.

The term '*experiential learning*' has different meanings and realisations in practice. Breier (2003) refers to it as a movement within adult education, and lists three sub-meanings of the term, partly drawing on other authors: firstly, the "practice of learning from work or life experience, thus 'informal learning' ". Secondly, the "practice of using personal experience as a starting point and vehicle for learning in a pedagogic action", and thirdly the "practice of incorporating practical learning experiences into formal and non-formal learning programmes" (ibid: 16). I refer to '*experiential learning*' as this broad movement within adult education, and not one specific sub-category. Unless specified as one particular form of experiential learning, I refer to it as the main pedagogic discourse within adult education, encompassing all forms that are listed above, and further categories that will be listed in section 2.1.

In this thesis, the term '*recruitment*' is used in the same way Breier (2003), Dowling (1998) and Ensor (1995 in Breier 2003) use it, namely the ways in which experience is 'drawn upon' in the pedagogic process (Breier, 2003: 2). However, different from Breier's research, my use of the term is limited to the activity of using and drawing upon experience as a resource for learning as *planned* by the course convenor and obvious in the written texts of the course. Due to the limited scope of my thesis, I do not analyse pedagogy in practice, and spontaneous recruitment of experience by lecturers or learners is not included.

1.4 *Outline of the study*

For this thesis, I used the written documentation of a curriculum of a University Adult Education Diploma course in order to analyse the recruitment of experience in a higher education curriculum. As summarised in this chapter, the interest in the research question was sparked by the dominant discourse of experiential learning within adult education, and its increasing relevance in higher education. With this research, I investigated how context-bound, experiential knowledge was recruited in a course that was offered at a traditionally discipline-based higher education institution.

This chapter provides the rationale of this research, defines the research question, specifies key terms, and gives an overview of the thesis as a whole.

In *Chapter Two*, the literature review, I give an overview of the literature on experiential learning, critiques of experiential learning, curriculum theory in adult education

and recent changes in higher education. I also present empirical studies that have looked at similar issues to my own.

In *Chapter Three*, I describe the theory that provided the basis for my analytical framework and discussion of data: Kolb's model of experiential learning, Dowling's distributing strategies, and Bernstein's theory of knowledge and pedagogy.

In *Chapter Four*, I outline the design of my research. I describe the overall research approach, the case study, as well as the phases of data collection and analysis in detail.

Chapter Five comprises the findings of my analysis. I elaborate on the different kinds of knowledge recruited within the curriculum, how they are recruited in relationship to theoretical input, and the purpose of recruiting this experience.

In *Chapter Six*, I discuss the findings of my analysis in relationship to Basil Bernstein's concepts, conclude my study and indicate some if its limitations.

2 Review of literature

In this chapter, I give an overview of different perspectives and examples of experiential learning and their critiques, particularly regarding the recognition of prior learning (RPL). The description of approaches to experiential learning gives an overview of the views and theories that evoked my research question. In order to illuminate the background against which my research is positioned, I present perspectives regarding curricula in adult education and recent changes in higher education. Finally, I present empirical studies which have either looked at the same or similar sites, or researched a similar topic to my own, and elaborate on their relevance for my own research.

My research question deals with three different aspects of the recruitment of experience: what kinds of experiences are recruited, how they are recruited, and for what purpose. When reviewing the literature on experiential learning[3], I did not find an author or study looking at different *kinds of experience* recruited in learning processes. Most of the literature deals with the aspect of '*how*' and '*why*' experience is or should be recruited. In the next two sections, I will describe different forms and approaches to experiential learning, and will indicate their relevance for my research.

2.1 *Experiential learning theory*

Within theories and views of experiential learning, different approaches have been identified (Fenwick, 2001); however no one categorisation has become its dominant 'framework'. In the introductory chapter, I elaborated on Breier's (2003) description of the term 'experiential learning', and my own use of the term. In order to give an overview of experiential learning, its different interpretations and multiple uses, I will describe a framework developed by Weil and McGill – the four 'villages of experiential learning practice' (Fenwick, 2001). This framework mostly addresses the '*why*' of recruiting experience; the different 'villages' demonstrate different purposes of recruiting experience within the experiential learning discourse.

[3] In my search of relevant literature regarding the use of experience for learning, I searched in the following databases: EBSO Host and ERIC. I also searched the following magazines: Studies in the Education of Adults 1990-2004, Adult Education Quarterly 1996-2004, Journal of Experiential Education 2001-2004.

2.1.1 The four villages of experiential learning practice

Weil and McGill differentiate between four villages of educational practice depicting different purposes of using experience for learning (Fenwick, 2001; Jansen and Wildemeersch, 1992). Village One is concerned with the accreditation and assessment of experiential learning as an alternative to traditional procedures of assessment. Knowledge gained in the workplace respectively is assessed and accredited in order to grant people access to higher education, or to formally accredit the knowledge gained through experience. Village Two focuses on the organisation of institutional changes, on using experiential learning to challenge higher and continuing education curricula. Going back to Dewey's progressive tradition, educators assist learners to create new knowledge through reflection on their experience (Fenwick, 2001). Village Three represents a radical stance towards the use of experience – through consciousness-raising and community action, learners become aware of sociocultural dynamics impacting on their life experience and their ways of reflecting on it. The ultimate aim of using experience in this 'village' is social change and empowerment. In Village Four, empowerment also plays a role, but in this case the reflection on experience is aimed more at individual development and personal growth (Fenwick, 2001; Jansen and Wildemeersch, 1992).

According to Jansen and Wildemeersch (1992), Village One and Four have become the dominant approaches to experiential learning. Village Two and Three have somehow changed or lost significance: "even the perspective of institutional change [village two] is currently being subsumed to the logic of an individualised competition for excellence" (ibid: 7). The radical underlying voice of Village Three has in some cases become obsolete or been replaced by postmodern scepticism, relativising possibilities to move towards a just and free society (ibid). Irrespective of these changes within the four villages, the concepts developed by Weil and McGill provide a useful overview of different purposes of using experiential learning. In the following sections, I will describe some approaches in more detail. These specific approaches once again address the purpose of 'their kind of' experiential learning, and some indicate the details, the *'how'* of the experiential learning process.

2.1.2 Constructivist approaches to experiential learning

The dominant understanding of experiential learning in adult education is based on a constructivist orientation, where individuals are seen as creators of their own knowledge through interaction with the environment. The corresponding educational approach is

humanistic, learner-centred and aimed at assisting learners to reflect on their experience in order to create new knowledge (Fenwick, 2001). In terms of Weil and McGill's villages, the constructivist orientation to experiential learning demonstrates the purpose of using experience as in Village Two: the challenge of traditional curricula by using reflection on experience as basis for new learning.

David A. Kolb's model of experiential learning is based on constructivist assumptions and is described as the most popular and frequently quoted model of experiential learning (Henry, 1993). He describes the process of reflection on concrete experiences as the central aspect of learning. Based on models of experiential learning and cognitive development by Lewin, Dewey and Piaget, Kolb created his model of the 'experiential learning cycle' (1975), which captures the different stages of an experiential learning process. Kolb's model provided the basis for parts of my analytical framework, thus will be explained further in chapter 3.

Another theorist who employs a constructivist approach to experiential learning theory is Donald Schön (1987, 1996), who has been a significant promoter of constructivism to understand workplace learning, and developed the concept of reflection-in-action (Fenwick, 2001). Schön concentrates on the process of learning as well as the kinds of knowledge produced in a learning situation. He distinguishes between 'Technical Rationality' and 'Reflection-in-action', and promotes a move from the former to the latter (1996). Technical Rationality is represented in 'major professions' like law or medicine that are grounded in systematic and fundamental knowledge, is a heritage of positivism and was created by Industrialism in the late 19th century, when empirical knowledge was seen as the solution to all problems (Schön, 1996). However, Schön stresses that Technical Rationality and positivist methods do not give answers to problems representing conflicting paradigms of professional practice and the context of confusing everyday life problems. Schön gives attention to the practitioner's creation of new knowledge during their action, knowledge-in-action, thus their learning within and through experience. Schön's main concern about learning is the fact that the theory and techniques transmitted in institutions, and the 'real world' of professional concrete action are separated by a huge gap. His concepts are

> aimed at healing the splits between teaching and doing, school and life, research and practice, which have been so insidiously effective at deadening the experience of school at all levels (1987).

For Schön, learning from experience is to undergo a holistic process, in which formal and informal knowledge are interconnected.

In the following section, I will describe approaches to experiential learning that, according to Jansen and Wildemeersch (1992) have become less popular and can be allocated to Village Three: more 'radical' stances towards empowerment and social change.

2.1.3 Other approaches to experiential learning

Apart from the most dominant understanding of experiential learning, the constructivist orientation that was described above, Fenwick (2001) lists four other conceptions of experiential learning: a critical cultural perspective, a situative perspective, a psychoanalytic perspective and an enactivist perspective. For reasons of space and prevalence in the literature, I will only present the first two perspectives.

Within the *critical cultural perspective*, Paulo Freire is the most well-known theorist. Through his concept of 'conscientization', learners become empowered to overcome oppression through developing a critical awareness of the social structures and power relations within society (Walters, 1989). Critical cultural perspectives concentrate mainly on 'power' as the main issue in experience, and claim that when mechanisms of cultural power are discovered and named, ways of resistance appear (Fenwick, 2001). Critical approaches to experiential learning have, as opposed to constructivist approaches, a definite goal in mind – that of social justice and freedom from oppression. The purpose of experiential learning is clear. People become empowered by validating their own experience, identifying power relations that shape experience, and freeing themselves from restricting conditions. Educators' tasks are to assist people toward liberation and new visions for action (Fenwick, 2001).

The *situated perspective* stresses that individuals learn as they are participating and interacting in a certain community. Situated learning theorists concentrate more on the '*how*', the process of experiential learning, and less on its purpose. Learning happens through legitimate peripheral participation (Lave, 1996), thus *acting* in a community of practice, and *not* through cognitive reflection on experience, as in the constructivist orientation. The situated learning theories see learning fundamentally as a social process and as a change of identity (Wenger, 1998). Theorists like Wenger (1998), Lave (1996), Engeström (in Guile and Young, 1998) or Guile and Young (1998) emphasize the *context* of learning and the value of ideas as resource for or addition to learning. Learning is a sociocultural, 'practical'

phenomenon rather than an intellectual one and happens informally. Learning happens and knowledge develops in communities of practice,

> wherever people engage for substantial periods of time, day by day, in doing things in which their ongoing activities are interdependent, learning is part of their changing participation in changing practices (Lave 1996: 150).

Experience is not the *basis* of learning as in constructivist approaches to experiential learning – it is the *learning itself*. The educator's role is to help individuals to participate meaningfully in the practices they choose to enter (Fenwick 2001: 36).

In the last sections, I have described different approaches to experiential learning, which can be located within Village Two and Three of Weil and McGill's framework. What these approaches have in common is that they challenge existing modes of pedagogy. In the next section, I will describe a view of experiential learning that is located within Village One, and seeks to give access to higher education and traditional modes of pedagogy, rather than challenging it.

2.1.4 The recognition of prior learning

The recognition of prior learning (RPL), also called Prior Learning Assessment (PLA), or Assessment of Prior Experience and Learning (APEL) are processes through which learners seek academic credit for their learning through life experiences (Fenwick, 2001) and have been adopted by many institutions and adult education programs. In order to avoid courses presenting knowledge that learners have already gained through their life experiences, the recognition of prior learning process aims to recognise this life experience formally. It started as a widespread practice in the United States in the 1970s and was practiced in the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand and France from the 1980s (Breier, 2003).

As mentioned above, the aim of RPL processes was originally not to challenge existing modes of pedagogy, but to give access to higher education[4]. Their main purpose is to widen access to higher and continuing education and create new opportunities for 'disadvantaged groups', "people who, by virtue of their age, gender, race, socio-economic background and/or prior educational qualifications, have traditionally been underrepresented" (Weil and McGill, 1993:5). The 'why' of experiential learning is therefore very explicit within RPL discourses. In South Africa, RPL became part of the education

[4] RPL theorists have, however, stated after the introduction of recognition of prior learning (RPL) processes that RPL cannot happen successfully without challenging traditional curricula.

system in the 1990s, concurrently with the development of a National Qualifications Framework (NQF), and is seen as bringing about social justice (Shalem, 2001), as an instrument of social redress and a way of rectifying the educational and occupational legacy of apartheid (Michelsen in Shalem, 2001). It was introduced as a means of redress for workers who had no access to further education in the past, but who had gained extensive work experience, and is meant to grant access to further learning as well as the recognition of their experience as a formal qualification. In 1998, RPL was formally introduced, as the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) stipulated that qualifications could be partly or wholly achieved through RPL (Breier, 2003).

The main concern of RPL theorists is how to match the informal learning gained through experience with the formal learning usually received at higher education institutions, thus to formulate learning outcomes on the basis of people's experience. It is here where formal assessment of experiential learning first surfaced. Before the implementation of RPL as a form of assessing prior learning through experience, adult education and experiential learning employed the main principle that learning is for its own sake and has no direct connection with award-bearing courses leading to qualifications (Evans 1994: 31).

The fact that RPL processes acknowledge and look at the distinction between formal and informal learning is relevant for my thesis. Even though I am not looking at an explicit RPL process, the site I am looking at displays similarities with RPL. It does not 'recognise' prior experiential learning formally[5], however claims to validate it and use it to build new knowledge. My case study represents a context in which previously gained informal knowledge and formal knowledge interact. The literature on RPL confirms that this interaction is relevant and crucial in order to gain access to the higher education discourse, and that the recruitment of experiential knowledge within a higher education context was an issue worth looking at.

The different views described above show that there is no 'one' kind or perspective of experiential learning, and that different purposes and processes can be identified within what is termed 'experiential learning'. For my analysis, the constructivist perspective of experiential learning, and issues relating to the recognition of prior learning were the most significant. The former is aligned with the main pedagogic principle of the Diploma, namely the 'building on experience' as basis and start for learning. The latter deal with experiential

[5] The course does not represent a formal process of RPL, but the programme does have an alternative access mechanism that allows it to admit students without the 'normal' university entrance requirements, but who have the appropriate workplace and practitioner experience.

knowledge as access to a higher education institution and the process of linking theoretical knowledge with experiential knowledge. The two forms of experiential learning contributed to conceptualising my analysis of the ways in which experience is recruited in a particular written curriculum, particularly in relation to theoretical and abstract knowledge.

In this section, I have summarised different realisations and conceptions of experiential learning. Recruiting experience in learning processes may be realised in different ways, yet overall, it is seen as beneficial to the learner. In order to present a different perspective on experiential learning, I will describe three of its most prevalent critiques in the next section.

2.2 *Critiques of experiential learning theory*

The different perspectives within experiential learning theory have not gone unchallenged. In this section, I will describe the critiques I consider the 'main' and most prevalent critiques of approaches to experiential learning: critiques regarding the cognitive and critical reflection on experience, regarding the 'management of experience', and regarding the assessment and recognition of prior learning.

2.2.1 Critiques regarding cognitive reflection on experience

Brookfield (1998) raises his voice against 'naïve romanticism' and recommends a move from celebrating experience to critically analysing it, namely illuminating the power dynamics and hegemonic assumptions about practice. He warns that limiting adult educators' identity to the claim that adults bring important experiences to learning situations is "at best naïve, and at worst risks sabotaging the intellectual credibility we hope this strategy [using adults' experience for learning] achieves" (1998: 127). He names many reasons for his argument, mainly pointing to the issue that experience in itself does not necessarily lead to understanding, reflection or critical analysis of it, that sometimes values and assumptions learned in childhood are only reinforced over the years, that there is no evidence for an inherent 'capacity' to learn from experience just because one has reached adult age. Brookfield claims that

> the idea that adults across cultures and history inevitably get better at learning from experience – and that such a capacity is so empirically provable that it constitutes a legitimate foundation for a theory of distinctively adult learning – is a modernist illusion (1998: 128).

If experience is viewed naively, Brookfield warns, educators will end up regarding the celebration of learners' experience as the legitimate start and finish of adult education, and will prevent an awareness of how power dynamics permeate all experiential activities. Brookfield suggests that critical reflection on interpretations of experience can happen through investigating one's own autobiography as an adult learner, seeing things from student's perspectives, engaging with colleagues' experiences, and engaging with theoretical literature. Critical reflection on one's own use of experience

> should move us beyond the dichotomous, *Animal Farm* type sloganising of 'large lectures bad, small group discussion good' that bedevils much conversation on experiential learning (1998: 140).

With his critique, Brookfield warns that the process of using experience for learning should not be viewed narrowly or in isolation. In this thesis, by analysing aspects of recruiting experience, and relating the findings to broader issues raised by curriculum theorists, I aimed to present a similar kind of 'critical reflection' on the use of experience to the one Brookfield suggests.

2.2.2 Critiques regarding the management of experience

The critique of experiential learning which Fenwick calls "perhaps the most troubling of all criticism of the discourse of experiential learning in adult education" (2001: 24) is the shaping of the learners' subjectivity through experiential learning. Usher (1992) gives a post-modern account of learning and experience, and critiques the discourse of experiential learning. He elaborates on

> the powerful discourse of the autonomous subject based on humanistic psychology which [...] has shaped adult education in a misleading, inappropriate and unhelpful way (1992: 201).

He critically interrogates the use of experience for learning, mainly the 'purpose' of using experience, and points to potential ways in which an experiential learning discourse might be abused to reach economic goals. Usher claims that there is silence about the discursive constitution of experience within experiential learning theory, and that theorists neglect the fact that an interpretation or 'reflection' on an experience can be shaped by outside factors. Usher and Solomon (1997) voice their criticism of experiential learning theory, referring to the changing organisation of work, and argue that experiential learning is not 'objective' in its implementation in a post-fordist workplace. Their concern is expressed in their statement that

the "educational discourse of experiential learning intersects happily with the managerial discourse of workplace reform and the workplace" (1997: 7). Experiential learning in the workplace might seem to be relevant, authentic and directly respondent to learners' needs. It might be seen as a source of learning, as necessary for self-fulfilment and betterment, Usher and Solomon claim, but what can be covered up is the fact that subjectivities in the workplace are created as a way of maximising capacities (Usher and Solomon, 1997). The authors warn that adult educators are increasingly influenced by criteria of efficiency and outcomes measured by the workplace, and claim that workplace learning which is regulated by goals of efficiency and self-regulation has led to the opposite of what experiential learning discourses were initially aiming to achieve. Experiential learning discourses are 'abused' to empower learners with regards to higher productivity in the workplace, however not for their personal gain, which is what adult education and experiential learning methods essentially strive for.

Usher and Solomon present a critique regarding the purpose of using experiential learning, and warn that using experience for learning does not necessarily have to be in the interest of the learner. With their critique, they point to power relations underlying experiential learning, and question how different interpretations and uses of experience can shape learners in different ways. Usher and Solomon's argument shaped the third part of my research question, where I asked about the purpose of recruiting experience. Even though I was unable to look at the shaping of learners' identities by using experience in certain ways, I could specify the goal of recruiting experience as set out within the assignment tasks of the course.

In the next section, I will present problems that have been voiced regarding the recognition of prior learning, and mainly pointing to the relationship between knowledge gained through experience and formal knowledge traditionally transmitted at higher education institutions.

2.2.3 Critiques regarding the recognition of prior learning

> The invitation to an adult to reflect on experience with a view to identifying what has been learned for some formal assessment is one thing; it is quite another for an individual to run the risk of being told that their learning is not acceptable for that formal purpose (Evans 1994:32).

The quote above points to the main problems regarding RPL processes: the difficulty of connecting informally gained experiential knowledge and formal knowledge that is transmitted at higher education institutions, and the attempt to establish equivalency

between these epistemologically distinct forms of learning (Cretchley and Castle, 2001). Higher education institutions are required to open themselves to experiential knowledge gained outside the academy, however it has become apparent that this is not proving to be an easy process (Harris, 2003).

Michelsen (in Fenwick, 2001) points to the fact that RPL processes often depend on the writing ability of learners, however not all learners have the means to express or demonstrate their understandings in writing. They are unable to express their knowledge academically, thus will not 'pass' the RPL process. Assessment forms such as portfolio-development and reflective essays, which are common in RPL processes, rely on high-level language and literacy skills and are thus inappropriate for many adults and can entrench existing forms of discrimination (Cretchley and Castle, 2001). Within RPL, learners need to transcribe their personal, experiential knowledge into the more abstract forms of knowledge that is recognised and valued in higher education institutions, and the power of assessment and definition of what is relevant and acceptable lies with the institution, not the learner (ibid). This has been confirmed by Harris (2004), who describes her own position as having moved from a 'confirmatory' practitioner orientation to a more 'disconfirmatory' critical stance of RPL processes. She points out that within RPL processes, very specific ways of thinking and acting are valued, indeed ways that are closest to the usual academic discourse. Her research will be described further in section 3.6.3. Harris particularly concentrates on the issue of 'knowledge' within RPL, and her review of RPL literature leads her to conclude that the knowledge issue in RPL seems "riddled with silences, paradoxes and contradiction" (ibid: 12). Advocates of RPL, she claims, state that there is *no* difference between academic knowledge and experiential knowledge. However, the literature is also filled with references to similarity and continuity between *different* forms of knowledge, based on a notion of soft boundaries. She claims that there seems to be no coherent view of different forms of knowledge, or of the relationship between theory and practice within the RPL literature.

Shalem (2001) addresses the issue of assumptions regarding epistemology within RPL. She refers to the claim that as long as academics do not challenge the conservative epistemological assumptions underpinning assessment of prior learning, they will continue to exclude the candidates who deserve it most. She examines two theorists' claims that rationality-based assessments, where the use of a *correct position* and a *proper methodological* stance are a requirement for transcending particular experiences and gaining formal recognition, is a form of epistemological oppression (Shalem, 2001). She argues that many of

the arguments brought forward *rely* on the exact rational and academic ways that are critiqued in order to make their claims, and objects to the "concealment of this epistemological labour" (ibid: 69). She points to the social logic that regulates the field of academic practice and the necessity to recognise its value. She states that within claims regarding the assessment of prior learning, "academic recognition is reduced to an instrumental exchange conducted without criteria of real value" (ibid: 60).

The above-mentioned arguments point to a difficulty of recognising and assessing experiential knowledge in a formal education context and to problems with the process of recruiting experience in higher education. In my research, I looked at the recruitment of experience within a higher education curriculum. With critiques of RPL processes in mind, it was particularly interesting to analyse the interaction between theoretical knowledge and experiential knowledge as set out in the written curriculum of my case study.

In order to gain a broader perspective, as well as a language with which to speak about different kinds of knowledge within curricula, I turned to curriculum theorists, whose arguments will be described in the next section.

2.3 *Curriculum theory and higher education*

Basil Bernstein (1996) defines 'curriculum' as determining what counts as valid knowledge in a learning situation. Before analysing the interaction of experiential knowledge and formal knowledge within a curriculum, it was important for me to review what had been written about curricula in higher education. In the next two sections, I summarise authors' arguments regarding curricula in adult education, changing curricula in higher education, and the interaction of different forms of knowledge.

2.3.1 Curricula and adult education

Griffin (1983) claims that within adult education, conceptualisation of adult education theory has tended to be at the level of technique and strategy rather than that of educational theory. He also states that curriculum studies and curriculum theory are pursued almost exclusively in the context of schools, and that education has come to be mainly associated with schooling and childhood learning. The latter claim seems to have changed by the year 2004, where lifelong learning has become a key component of educational systems and adult education is

gaining more and more relevance, particularly regarding workplace learning and continuous development. However, not much seems to have changed regarding the first two claims since 1983. Curriculum studies still mainly concentrate on school contexts, and even though curriculum theory is applicable to adult education, few studies have looked at adult education curricula[6]. A possible explanation for the absence of curriculum theorising in adult education, as Griffin states, could be that conceptualising within adult education has focussed on a view of adult education as social policy rather than as education as such (1983: 38). In his view, there is a significant neglect of the content of learning within the adult education literature, thus there is no indication or sense of the social significance of knowledge or political dimensions of adult learning. He points to issues of ideological controversy regarding the issue of curriculum, which often takes the form of 'progressivism' versus 'traditionalism' in educational debates (1983: 23). Experiential learning approaches have often reacted to traditional educational approaches, espoused the importance of learners' informal knowledge and neglected the meaning of formal theories. However, this could cause learners not being able to move beyond the anecdotal (Usher in Jansen and Wildemeersch, 1992), as described in section 2.2.1.

The humanist and liberal education underlying this resistance to theory and concentration on people's subjective interpretation of life experiences has been criticised by Wildemeersch (1992), who claims that the practice of education is too often developed either along this informal line, or along a formal line in traditional educational contexts. He suggests a balanced combination of informal theories and formal theories in order to "transcend the mere exchange of everyday experiences" (1992: 6). As mentioned before, one of my lines of enquiry in this research was to explore how one particular curriculum dealt with the issue of 'connecting' formal and informal knowledge and thus represented different approaches to adult education.

In the next section, I will summarise arguments regarding recent changes in higher education, as well as issues of new knowledge production in higher education – interpretations and theorisations regarding higher education curricula and adult education that represent the context out of which my study arose, and may address, in parts, the 'void' of curriculum theory that Griffin was describing in 1983.

[6] In my search of literature, I came across many studies regarding school curricula, and fewer studies regarding those in adult education context.

2.3.2 Changes in higher education

Griffin pointed to a need for a theoretical view of adult and lifelong education in a curriculum context of knowledge, culture and power (1983: 38), in order to verify claims that were made for adult education and its capacity to remedy social problems. Over the years, there have been theorists who have written extensively about socio-political and epistemological structures influencing curricula in general, one of them being the educational sociologist Basil Bernstein. His work (1975, 1996, 2000) and the work of other critical curriculum theorists look at curricula as a social and political construction (Sadovnik, 1995), and try to uncover social processes of knowledge construction and their effects on learners. Although research has mainly been carried out in school contexts, the theories can be used to illuminate any kind of pedagogic encounter from a micro- or macro-level perspective.

The traditionally dominant form of knowledge in higher education is characterised by specialised discourses with their own field of texts, practices, examinations, rules of entry and examinations, such as physics, chemistry, and history (Bernstein, 1996), which Bernstein terms 'singulars'. Bernstein characterises recent changes in higher education as an increasing 'regionalisation', with the merging of clusters of singulars, and of growing interdisciplinarity. Examples of regions are management, business studies, communications and media studies. Due to this increasing regionalisation, the discursive and political base of singulars is weakened, and institutions face changes regarding greater central administrative control (ibid). Bernstein claims that regions are responsive to market needs,

> increasing regionalisation of knowledge is then a good indicator of its technologizing, of centralizing of administrative control and of pedagogic contents recontextualised according to external regulation (1996: 66).

In schools, Bernstein (1996) claims, there is a move towards generic skills, to extra-school experiences, to what he calls a 'trainability' which equips learners to be flexible and open to continuous new knowledge creation and requirements of rapidly changing work and life situations. By moving towards regionalisation and the formation of generic skills, boundaries of disciplines are eroded or softened, as well as boundaries between knowledge generated through life experience and formal knowledge taught in school or higher education institutions. Curricula with soft or eroded boundaries are hybrid, whereas curricula with strong boundaries are insular (Muller, 2001).

Muller (2001) refers to similar changes within higher education, and deals with issues of insularity and hybridity by using Gibbons et al's concepts of Mode 1 and Mode 2. The

pressure for a shift from Mode 1 to Mode 2, which was mentioned in the introduction of this research, the move from 'traditional' ways of researching with a strong disciplinary base to a more collaborative, trans-disciplinary and trans-institutional way of knowledge production (Gibbons et al in Muller, 2001), leads Muller (2001) to the following critique: The emancipatory and innovative characteristics of Mode 2 might look like the new appropriate way of creating knowledge. However, according to Muller (2001), Mode 2 can only be accessed if a basis of disciplinary knowledge has been acquired, and exactly this knowledge can only be provided by Mode 1. His argument is the same as Bernstein's (1996), who states that 'trainability' is a capacity that is an outcome of a specialised identity, and cannot "be constructed by lifting oneself up by one's shoe laces" (1996: 73).

This section has shown that an erosion of boundaries between different kinds of knowledge is not always seen as beneficial as experiential learning theorists claim. Giving way to boundary-transcending methods, Muller and Bernstein argue, means giving away forms of knowledge crucial for creating new knowledge. Although this is not something that was directly addressed in my thesis, it was relevant as it represented an argument contrary to that of experiential learning theorists, who either do not address the distinction between different kinds of knowledge, or see it as artificial and hindering the learning process.

In the next section, I will summarise empirical studies that have either researched in a similar context to my own, or researched a similar topic. Many of the studies eventually lead back to the same issue – the recruitment and recognition of informal knowledge within a formalised education context.

2.4 *Related empirical studies*

Many authors have undertaken studies that are similar to mine, with respect to the theories used or the context researched. Their research questions mainly deal with the '*how*', the process of experience recruitment. As mentioned before, I have not found studies that looked at different *kinds* of experiences recruited in a learning situation. In this section, I will first describe studies that have looked at the same or similar case studies. Subsequently, I will summarise studies that have researched the use of experiential learning methods within higher education institutions. I will then describe studies that have looked at the recognition of experiential knowledge, and the relationship between informal and formal knowledge

within a higher education context. Finally, I will briefly summarise studies looking at different kinds of knowledge within a school context.

2.4.1 Studies of Adult Education Diploma courses

February (2003) used the same Diploma course as the one in the present study as the site for her research and asked the question "what counts as useful knowledge?". She elaborated on perceptions of adult learners in higher education regarding the knowledge that was most useful for them. Through questionnaires and in-depth interviews with past participants, she found out more about the participants' thoughts regarding the course. Her findings explained the general effect of the Diploma course on the learners: the course was valuable for building confidence, self-esteem and developing individuality in the learners. It was also seen as an opportunity to access continued study within higher education. In the workplace, the employment status of most participants remained the same after participation on the Diploma programme. February reported on what Bernstein might call the effects of a competence model of pedagogy. Little information was given about actual *knowledge* the learners have gained throughout the course, and she did not look at the issue of experiential knowledge and its relationship to formal knowledge on the Diploma.

McMillan's (1997) research site was also the Diploma course. She investigated the factors that influenced success in adult learning and concentrated mainly on the contexts of learners that gave way to successful learning. McMillan argued for an understanding of learning that takes both micro processes in the classroom and the macro life world contexts of the learners into account. She concentrated on the issue of 'epistemological access' to formal adult education and looked at factors which enable learners not only to access the university formally, but granted access to the modes of knowledge production and the academic discourse of the Diploma. By concentrating on epistemological access, McMillan distinguished between an informal discourse and an academic discourse. However, compared to my research, McMillan's thesis concentrated on the context of learners and less on the written curriculum.

Thaver (2000) researched three case studies of certificate courses for adult educators in South Africa. She analysed the socio-political conditions that shaped the evolution of the 'certificates' from 1986 to 1996 and investigated the relationship between external social and political conditions and internal curriculum practices of the certificate courses. Her aim was to "understand the construction of three certificate-level programmes as a historical socio-

political phenomenon and as a social practice" (2000: 137). By analysing documents regarding the three courses and interviews, she showed how each of the courses was shaped by three historical phases within South Africa, how the agendas of each of the courses were influenced by donor funding agencies, and how the curriculum of the courses controlled ideas and practices that were permissible in each historical period (Thaver, 2000). She found that the nature of the discourses in the certificates shifted over time, reflecting the changes in the political context. Thaver provided a micro- and macro- perspective of different aspects of the Diploma courses. Compared to my research, she gives a broader overview regarding the history and shaping of the three case studies, whereas I concentrate on one particular issue within one case study, namely the recognition of experience.

The literature summarised in this section captures research projects that have been conducted in the same or similar sites as my own. However, the questions posed were quite distinct from my own. In the next section, I review research projects which were undertaken in different sites, yet looked at experiential learning methods within higher education curricula, thus a similar issue to my own. The studies I will present in the next section concentrated mainly on the process, the *'how'* of using experience for learning.

2.4.2 Studies of experiential learning within higher education

Gwele (1998) wrote about an undergraduate and postgraduate program for health professionals based on experiential learning and problem-based learning, which was implemented at the University of Natal in 1995. The theoretical framework for the course was the experiential learning cycle by David Kolb: students first went into community-based settings to solve problems related to health issues, which was a phase of concrete experience. They observed and reflected on their experience, and took their new knowledge back into the classroom. Relating to Kolb's cycle, Gwele stated that the process of learning did not follow a neat pattern of the cycle, but two or more of Kolb's stages were occurring either in class or field practice at the same time, and the cycle was never completed. In her experience, the reflection on experience was not an individual function, but happened within groups and therefore provided a richer learning experience (ibid). She concluded that through applying experiential learning in the training of health professionals, the "threat of quizzes and endless tests and memory examinations" (1998: 185) was taken away, and learning took place through the process of transforming knowledge. She claimed that community- and problem-

based learning in the health professions was seen as the answer to the problems associated with the theory/ practice gap in their education.

Cooper and von Kotze (2000) and Cooper et al (2000) explored the potential of project-based-learning (Pbl) in university adult education in South Africa. Looking at a 'pilot' of project-based learning that was offered to participants of the Certificate of Adult Education, Training and Development in 2000, they investigated the applicability of Pbl to a South African context. The 'pilot' was based on a model of a Belgian university, which had offered post-graduate Degrees using Pbl for a number of years. Through participant observation and interviews with participants, the research team identified 'critical incidents' for making sense of the Pbl process. On a practical level, the results pointed to several difficulties that arose during the Pbl process: a lack of clarity regarding learner and teacher roles, keeping the balance between the learning from the process and completing the task, the inclusion of different discourses, as well as the lack of criticality during the process of Pbl. However, the authors concluded that Pbl still offers a useful learning method which was well-received by participants. In a more critical stance, Cooper and von Kotze (2000) pointed out that even though Pbl has the potential of allowing learners to construct new knowledge which was socially relevant and promoted an inclusive approach to knowledge production and dissemination, it could easily be used and 'abused' to support an ideology of 'new vocationalism' and focus on the market, which contradicted its originally more people-oriented roots. With regards to my own research and the relationship between experiential and formal knowledge, I found it interesting that the Belgian university which provided the model for the South African pilot, introduced Pbl during postgraduate study, *after* students had completed two years of 'Junior College', which comprised a "broad introduction to philosophy, psychology, sociology and theories of education" (2000: 5). Pbl provided an opportunity for students to draw on prior knowledge, and build on their experience gained through the Pbl process. However, in the original model this *followed* a solid theoretical foundation, whereas in South Africa the process stood on its own.

Luckett and Luckett (1998) investigated how three core modules of a Rural Resource Management Course at the University of Natal – with a strong focus on experiential learning, and developed on the basis of Kolb's experiential learning cycle, SSM (soft systems methodology, a form of systems thinking) and an epistemology of praxis – played out with regards to the assessment and results of learning. In line with experiential learning theory and SSM, students were required to complete community projects and subsequently reported

on their own process of learning. When describing the results of their approach, the authors reported that shortcomings of their curriculum design became apparent in the area of assessment. While students had been equipped with the 'tools' of experiential learning and processes of action-learning in the first module, they were unable to engage at a meta-level when describing their practical tasks and learning in modules two and three. Oral interviews revealed that some students did possess some meta-level knowledge, however had not been able to express this in the written assignment. The authors concluded that a better model of curriculum would let students express their experience and interpretations of it, before 'front-loading' them with theory, and that the start of the course could be the placement in authentic activities. In assessment practices, a reworked curriculum could ask students more informal kinds of questions which could be answered in everyday language. When dealing with more theoretical work, they claimed, there needs to be more opportunity to learn the discourse that the academy requires. It is here where their claims seemed contradictory. No indication was given how to combine the 'authentic learning' and 'informal questions for assessment' with acquiring an academic discourse. The authors concluded their report by stating that in the future, they should ensure that theory and abstract knowledge are not privileged over experiential knowledge and practice, and realise that there is neither a rational interpretation of experience, nor an ideal curriculum.

The literature summarised in this section has given as indication of how experiential learning methods and processes can be implemented in higher education. However, the studies did not address the relationship between experiential knowledge and formal knowledge in particular. In the next section, I summarise two doctoral dissertations which have addressed this relationship in different ways. One looked at a recognition of prior learning process, thus a practice preceding admission to university. The other investigated the recognition of prior learning within a higher education course. Both referred to the recognition and recruitment of experiential knowledge in relationship to formal knowledge.

2.4.3 Studies of the recognition of experiential knowledge

Harris (2004) used a case study of a recognition of prior learning practice, developed as access for adult educators to a university post-graduate level diploma course in a South African university. She discovered that the RPL case she was investigating had a hidden curriculum and privileged certain ways of thinking and acting above others. Her research pointed to similar issues that are relevant in my research – the valuing of experience, how it is brought

into relationship with formal knowledge, and how it is assessed. She investigated the pedagogy used in the case study and found out that although the course was held in a competence-style pedagogy, issues of power and control still existed, yet in a more disguised way. Harris named factors that influenced and caused success in RPL in this particular context: proximity to vertical discourse, being 'schooled' in reflective practice, a clear pedagogic identity as an educator as well as a well-developed learner identity (Harris, 2004). She claimed that although the RPL process was aimed at valuing prior experience, it could only value it if the RPL participants already possess an ability similar to that acquired in academic institutions. She proposed an approach that 'knows the borders and crosses the lines', and a new theorising of RPL curricula, pedagogy, experiential knowledge and their relationships. She claimed that this would be useful to increase participation to higher education, which is what RPL processes strive for. Harris' study is more comprehensive than my own, as she looks at the written curriculum as well as the pedagogy in practice.

Breier (2003) also analysed an adult learning situation regarding its recognition of prior learning. Her research is most similar to mine, as she looked at the exact processes of recruiting experiential knowledge. In the light of new policies regarding the recognition of prior learning as access to formal education, she asked how prior experience was recruited and recognised *during* two courses in Labour Law at separate universities. This is where Breier's and my own research differ from that of Harris, who looked at a 'traditional' RPL process *before* students formally enter university. Breier claimed that what is neglected in research and literature is the recruitment and recognition processes post- rather than pre-entry, and with reference to a specific discipline. Her thesis explored the epistemological complexities associated with the implementation of the principle of recruiting experience in a specific disciplinary context (Breier, 2003), where one can find a commitment to the recognition of adult experience, but also pre-defined curricula (ibid). Drawing on the work of Bernstein, Dowling and Bourdieu, Breier developed a language of description to characterise different forms of informal and formal knowledge and their interplay. She elaborated on strategies and different pedagogic styles regarding the recruitment and recognition of prior informal experience. She identified three different styles of pedagogy, with the recruitment and recognition of prior informal experience as the main factor of variation: a 'formal generalising style', a 'formal localising style', and an 'informal localising style' (ibid: 168). She found that in the first style, which was only found in one of the courses (course A), an emphasis on the content of rules, principles, concepts and propositions was dominant, as well

as the recruitment of experiences referred to by secondary sources. The second style, which was found in both courses, emphasised the application of rules, yet using hypothetical examples or personal examples of the transmitter. The third style, which was only found in course B, also emphasised the application of rules, yet examples were mainly drawn from learners' personal experience (ibid: 168). Breier found that in cases where prior experience was recruited, lecturers and students who "ha[d] mastered or submitted themselves to the recognition or realisation rules of the course" (2003: iii) were using the experience in relation to general rules, principles or concepts or case law. Other orientations to recruiting experience were used to challenge the general rule, and were often associated with limited formal education. Breier stated that the promise of recognising prior informal experience in a formal education context that could be found in RPL and adult education discourses concealed the transmission and acquisition purposes of a formal education programme (2003: iii). Breier's analysis was deeper and more complex than mine, and drew on non-participant observation and interviews as well as written documentation as data sources. However, the issue she looked at is similar to my own research focus: how experience was recruited *during* a course offered in a higher education context.

Concerns regarding the relationship between formal and informal knowledge in learning situations are not exclusive to the recognition of prior learning or other situations of adult learning. There are also long-standing debates regarding this issue in schooling, particularly in mathematics education (Breier, 2003). In the following chapter, I will briefly describe authors' arguments regarding different kinds of knowledge in school contexts.

2.4.4 Studies of forms of knowledge in school curricula

Many authors have investigated the relationship between formal and informal knowledge when analysing school curricula and their effect on learners. The common claim is the following: by connecting everyday and experiential knowledge with school knowledge, and ignoring the distinctiveness between them, already disadvantaged learners lose out on their academic potential, thus lack capacity to develop abstract thinking and are further disadvantaged. Gee (2001) and Painter (1999) claim that in order to take part in a formal learning process, a learner has to know the "design grammar of a semiotic domain in order to understand or produce messages in the domain appropriately" (Gee 2001: 2). Learners have to be introduced to the design grammar of learning and knowledge production that is expected and recognised at school. Painter (1999) claims that in families of higher economic

status, the patterns of parent-child linguistic interaction will sensitise the child to the kinds of meanings relevant for dealing with educational knowledge.

Veel and Coffin (1996) investigate how school curricula construct particular forms of consciousness in learners through language. Using the example of a history curriculum, the authors inquire why and how some students succeed in learning the language of school history, and why others fail to do so. Rose (1999) relates Basil Bernstein's theory to his work with indigenous learners in Australia. He claims that competence models in indigenous Australian education have been legitimated on the basis of being therapeutic for communities, but that their results have been disappointing. Instead of being equipped with elaborated orientations to discourse that are crucial for school, the learners were still left with a lack of academic ability. Rose suggests a visible pedagogy for learners from disadvantaged backgrounds, as invisible models of competence have failed to empower them.

Dowling (1993) analyses two different textbook schemes for mathematics in the UK, and shows how connecting the curriculum to 'everyday' content holds working class children back in their acquisition of formal, abstract mathematical concepts. The language of description he developed in order to analyse written texts provided a basis for the theoretical framework of this thesis and will be described further in section 3.3.

The research conducted by curriculum theorists in schools concentrates on the relationship between everyday and academic knowledge, and its effect on learners. The discourse of experiential learning is not as prevalent in schools as in adult education, yet the relationship between everyday knowledge and academic knowledge is essentially the same as the relationship between experiential knowledge and formal knowledge. The research on school curricula informed my analysis and led me to question whether the situation would be similar in a university context. My analysis, however, was limited to the recruitment of experience as set out in the written curriculum and did not look at the effect this recruitment has on learners.

2.5 *Summary*

The research question of this thesis has three aspects: *What kinds of experiential knowledge* are recruited in a University Adult Education Diploma, *how* are they recruited, and *for what purpose*. As stated in this chapter, I have not found literature that deals with the recruitment of different *kinds* of experience in a learning situation. The reviewed literature shows that different purposes and ways of experiential learning have been subject to research and

discussion. The four villages of experiential learning refer to different *purposes* of recruiting experience for learning. The constructivist perspective and the situated learning theorists refer to the *process* of learning from experience, as well as the *purpose* of experiential learning: to heal the splits between 'school and life' (Schön, 1987), and to challenge traditional teaching methods. Recognition of prior learning practices demonstrate different purposes of using experience: to give access to higher education and to accredit learners for informal learning.

In contrast to my research, however, perspectives such as the constructivist perspective address the purpose and process of recruiting experience for learning more broadly than I do, as they do not specifically address the relationship of experiential knowledge to theoretical knowledge. The critiques of experiential learning reviewed in section 2.2 pointed to a need for critically investigating experiential learning. The review of literature on curriculum theorising in adult education and of recent changes in higher education in section 2.3 confirmed the need to take a closer look at adult education curricula, and the relevance of the relationship between different kinds of knowledge. The empirical studies presented in section 2.5 indicated similar tendencies to the above mentioned – when addressing experiential learning, and ways in which it is implemented in higher education, they do so from a different or broader perspective, and not with reference to the interaction of experiential and formal knowledge in particular. I identified a gap in the literature regarding this interaction within a higher education context. The only research that seemed to fill this gap was Breier's (2003), which is why my research is most similar to hers. By looking at the different kinds of experiential knowledge that are recruited in a specific adult education curriculum, the way they are recruited in relationship to theoretical input, as well as the purpose of their recruitment, I aimed to contribute further to addressing this gap.

In the following chapter, I will describe the theories that provided the basis of my analytical framework, and the way in which I put them to use in my research.

3 Developing a framework for the analysis

My research question addressed three aspects of the recruitment of experience in an Adult Education Diploma course: what kinds of experiences were recruited within the curriculum, how these were recruited, and why. Addressing these aspects of the curriculum required a language with which to speak about different kinds of experience, the process of recruiting this experience, and the ultimate aim of recruiting experience in the learning process. Three theorists provided the basis for developing this language and the framework of my data analysis, and aided me to answer the three aspects of my research question: Kolb (1984), who developed a well-known model of experiential learning, Dowling (1998), who developed a language of description to analyse pedagogic text, and Bernstein (1975, 1996, 2000), whose theories of knowledge and pedagogy allow an interpretation of pedagogic discourse from a macro-perspective. Each of these theorists provided a crucial aspect to my analytical framework, and together they enabled me to look at the recruitment of experience from different angles. In this chapter, I will show the contribution each makes, and the ways in which their theories relate to my research question.

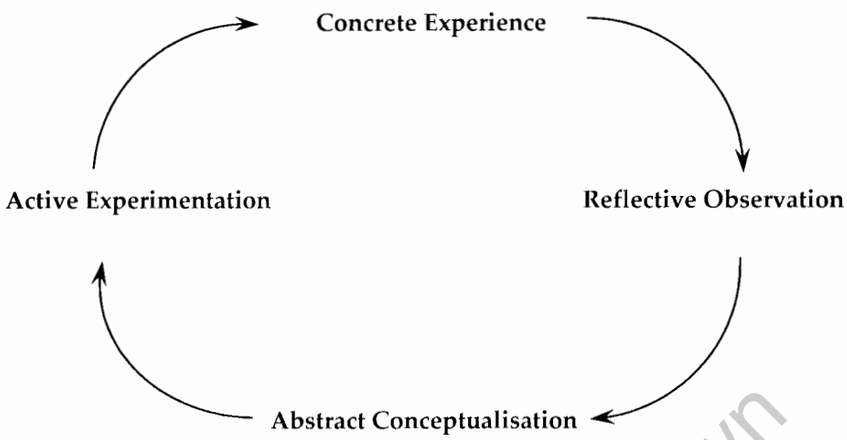
3.1 David Kolb on experiential learning

David A. Kolb's experiential learning cycle is by far the most popular and frequently quoted theory of experiential learning (Henry in Weil and McGill, 1993), and most studies regarding experiential learning refer to him or use his model in one way or another. Reviewing his theory, it became clear that despite its prevalence in the literature, I would not be able to use it as a direct means to analyse my data, and to answer my research question. Yet, his model of experiential learning indirectly assisted me in developing an analytical framework to look at the first two aspects of the question: the 'kinds of experiences' recruited in the curriculum, and the process with which this recruitment took place. In the following sections, I will describe Kolb's theory, as well as the ways in which it became useful for my analysis.

3.1.1 The experiential learning cycle

In his well-known model of experiential learning, David Kolb (1984) describes experiential learning as an integrated process comprising four stages. Figure 1 represents this model, and an explanation of it follows below.

Figure 1: Kolb's experiential learning cycle (1984)



The first stage of his learning cycle is living through *concrete experience*. This can either be a life or workplace experience, or an experience developed specially for a learning situation. The second stage is *reflective observation*. The learner asks himself, "What did I observe? What was I aware of? What does this experience mean to me? How might it have been different?" (Fenwick 2001: 11). Kolb also calls it the phase of "collection of data and observations about that experience" (1975: 33). The third stage is characterised through *abstract conceptualisation*. The learner analyses the situation (Kolb, 1975) and aims to create a generalisation and better understanding of the situation through reflective observation. The fourth stage of Kolb's cycle is the phase of *active experimentation*. The principle developed through the third stage is tested out in similar situations, and its results influence the learning (Fenwick, 2001) and equip learners for new situations. For Kolb, the process of learning, the acquisition of new knowledge and skills happen through the continuous move through the different stages of the cycle.

As stated above, Kolb's model of experiential learning contributed indirectly to the analysis of the first two aspects of the research question. How his theory influenced the development of my analytical framework will be described in the following two sections.

3.1.2 Categorising different kinds of experience

With the development of his experiential learning cycle, Kolb stresses the process of learning by moving through the different stages of his cycle. For him, it is clear that experience is the basis for learning, and that through the transformation of this experience, new knowledge is created (Kolb, 1984). However, he does not specify different *kinds* of experiences that could be the basis for learning. Indirectly, through this 'missing aspect' in his experiential learning cycle, his theory instigated the first aspect of my analysis, and response to the first part of my research question: what kinds of experience are recruited in an Adult Education Diploma?

In order to gain a further understanding of what kinds of experiences, and thus what kinds of experiential knowledge are recruited on the course, I developed a language with which to speak about these, particularly to depict different experiences in terms of distance to the learners regarding time and space. Inductively, I developed a grid depicting the two broad categories 'personal' and 'impersonal' experience recruited on the course, as well as further differentiations of these categories.

'Personal experience' that was recruited on the course was a specific moment the learner had experienced or was experiencing through direct involvement. It was either a past experience or something the learner was presently experiencing as part of an immediate context. On this basis I further differentiated 'personal experience' into 'personal experience in the past' and 'personal experience in the present'. Four more distinctions of personal experiences were possible: the experience recruited or referred to in class could be a pedagogic experience, thus relating to a pedagogic encounter, or any other experience. If the experience was a 'present' experience, it could either be a 'near' or 'far' experience. The category 'personal experience' therefore had six distinct categories: 'personal past pedagogic experience', 'personal past other experience', 'personal present pedagogic near experience', 'personal present pedagogic far experience', 'personal present other near experience', and 'personal present other far experience'.

An example for recruitment of 'personal past pedagogic' experience was depicted in the following extract from a session outline. The actual instances of the recruitment of experience are marked with italics.

11am Barriers to learning

- Refer back to TM [name] article – how does he explain learning barriers?
- Read p.36 individually. How do the writers suggest learning barriers can be overcome?
- *In pairs, students think about and share examples of barriers to their learning in the past*
- *Ref. to p.37 and identify what kind of barrier this was.*
- *Report back to plenary re these barriers + how they were overcome.*

Extract from handwritten session outline, 23rd May, Introduction to Adult Learning

Learners were asked to think of an experience that happened to them in the past. It was an experience relating to a pedagogic situation, namely an experience of barriers to their past learning.

I did not identify an instance of the recruitment of 'personal past other' experience during sessions. An instance would be, for example, if learners were asked to reflect on or refer to their experience of Apartheid as children.

A 'personal present pedagogic near' could be an exercise, or a reflection on the course as experience, such as

9am Reading strategies

- Show O/H (overhead) re surveying textbooks
- *Students report to group what strategies they used and whether these were successful*
- Importance of summarising (questions given were designed to guide this) for academic success and writing assignments
- Point out strategy of linking words/ phrases/ sections

Extract from handwritten session outline, 23rd May, Introduction to Adult learning

Here, students were asked to use their own learning methods on the course as an experience to reflect on and learn from. I named it 'near' experience as the students recruited an experience of an instance that was happening during class, and did not refer to an experience that was taking place outside of it. In the session outline quoted above, students were asked to recruit their experience of reading strategies *straight after* the activity of employing the strategies when reading a text on the course.

A recruitment of 'personal present pedagogic far' experience was depicted by the following session outline:

11.30am RPL (part of EL – 4 villages – reminder – OHP [overhead])

- What is RPL? B/storm in class
  + different names (OHP) + definitions (OHP)
- RPL reader p.2 section 1 – read and comment on use of words
- Purposes of RPL (OHP) – in 3's discuss and *pick ones relevant to CTFL [Clothing, Textile, Footwear and Leather] sector*
- Benefits of RPL (various OHPs) – *do they apply in your context?*
- Assessment methods (OHP) – *which are used in your sector? Add any others?*

Extract from handwritten session outline, 2nd April, Fields and Sites of Adult Education and Training

Here, learners were asked to draw on an experience happening outside the classroom, thus it was a 'far' experience. They were required to relate issues regarding the recognition of prior learning to their workplace and their experience of the Clothing, Textile, Footwear and Leather (CTFL) industry. As they were required to draw on aspects of their experience regarding the recognition of prior leaning, as well as assessment methods, the experience recruited was pedagogic.

An instance of 'personal present other near' experience could be, for example, an exercise in class, such as in the example below:

1.30pm Observation exercise:
Smoking on the Campus. Research questions: who are the smokers on […] Lower Campus?
Where do they smoke? When do they smoke?
(Purpose of the research: to set up an anti-smoking campaign on campus)
Pairs/ Groups design an observation schedule to use.

2.15pm Report backs on observation exercise:

- *What data were you able to gather? How?*
- *What data were you not able to gather? Why not?*
- *What are the advantages/ disadvantages of the instruments used?*
- *What other observation methods would have been better/ possible? What could you do with this data? (recording/ reporting/ relating to research questions)*

Extract from typed session outline, 14th May, Field Study

Here, learners practiced skills relevant to doing research, and did this during class, therefore it was a 'near' experience. After doing the exercise, learners were immediately required to report back what they learned from the experience. The experience might have been

interpreted as a 'personal present *pedagogic*' experience. However, I used the term 'pedagogic' to depict whether the experience itself was *about* something pedagogic, not whether it was *used* pedagogically – otherwise almost every use of experience would have been pedagogic. In the case of practising skills relevant to doing research, the actual content of the exercise was 'doing research', which was in itself not a pedagogic activity, and the topic of the research did not refer to a learning situation.

A 'personal present other far' experience was a non-pedagogic experience recruited that took place outside of the classroom. An example from the course was the following:

(no time)	[name:] OHP [overhead] or handout of extracts from different spoken discourses: a) secondary discourses in traditional societies eg. praise poetry b) everyday primary discourses with code switching c) religious discourses d) lecture at university e) legal discourse working in groups, discuss: where would texts be found? Who would be using them? How do you know this? […]
(no time)	[name:] Identity wheel (overhead) *Students draw their own identity wheel and think about the conflicting roles they play in terms of the different languages and discourses they may use.* Make links to Orientation and also to the reading 'concept of role' (30 min.) discussion.

Extract from typed session outline, 30th May, Introduction to Adult Learning

By drawing an 'identity wheel' as an exercise where they think about different roles they play in their life, students were asked to recruit experiences from their life that are happening in the present, yet in areas of their lives other than the course and experiences that are not relating to a pedagogic encounter.

The second broad cluster of experiences I identified as being recruited on the Diploma course were 'impersonal experiences'. The distinction between 'personal' and 'impersonal' is similar to the distinction of 'pedagogic' and 'other' – in every task or activity in class, the recruitment of any kind of experience could be seen as 'personal', as learners experienced it personally during class. However, this category does not define the *way* the experience is used in class, but rather *what kind* of experience is recruited, thus the degree of intimacy of the learner with this experience that is recruited. An 'impersonal' experience was something that was not directly experienced by the learner, so the learner was more detached

from the experience. It could be depicted by a case study, a movie, or an account of an experience given by a person other than the learner himself.

The 'impersonal experience' could also be specified into 'impersonal past experience' and 'impersonal present experience'. The 'impersonal past experience' could be further sub-specified into 'impersonal past pedagogic' experience and 'impersonal past other' experience. 'Impersonal present experience' could be sub-specified into 'impersonal present pedagogic experience' and 'impersonal present other experience'. Since 'impersonal experience' was not directly experienced by the learner, it was always 'far', thus could not be further specified in 'near' and 'far'. I will now give examples of each kind of 'impersonal experience'.

An 'impersonal past pedagogic' experience was a video used in class:

9.15am	Briefly discuss 'consensus' and 'conflict' perspectives, relating to debate [previous exercise] and traditions (and referring to Christie text read for homework)
9.20am	Introduce video and questions to focus on/ discuss *Watch video [TV panel discussion, SABC, 1994]* *Groups discuss questions, write points onto N/P, feedback responses to plenary* *[questions that needed to be answered: what was the perspective of the panel member you focussed on, with regard to education transformation? What solutions do they propose? Why do you think they hold this particular perspective?]*

Extract from handwritten session outlines, 13th February, Foundations of Adult Learning Theory

The video introduced here was a television panel discussion where different viewpoints on education were presented. The video depicted something that happened in the past, students experienced it through the video as secondary source, thus the experience was 'impersonal'. Students were requested to discuss the situation/ experience contained in the video recording. The video and discussion relate to something pedagogic: different viewpoints on education.

An example for an 'impersonal past other' experience were case studies:

1.30 – 3.30pm	Tasks: 1 or 2 or both *Case study: KODAK or* *Case study: LEVI STRAUSS* Consolidation: what have we learnt today?

Extract from handwritten session outlines, 27th June, Organisation Development

The page following this session outline gave an indication that the case studies were used as examples to demonstrate different organisational cultures. Students were required to read the case studies and answer questions their organisational culture. The case studies were recruited as experiences to be reflected on. They depicted something from the past (even though Kodak's or Levi Strauss' situations might still be the same), were experienced through texts as secondary sources and thus 'impersonal', and did not depict anything specifically pedagogic.

The recruitment of an 'impersonal present pedagogic' experience was depicted in the following extract of a session outline:

8.30am – 9.30am	*AIM/ GSB*	*[name of presenter]*
9.30am – 10.30am	*Abalini*	*[name of presenter]*
11am	*Zanokhango*	*[name of presenter]*

Extract of handwritten session outlines, 30th April, Fields and Sites of Adult Education

In the example above, three outside presenters came into class and presented their field and practice of Education and Training. It was a 'pedagogic' experience as the information received related to pedagogic issues, in this case education and training in the specific sites of practice. Students received actual, 'present' information about a pedagogic situation. However, it was 'impersonal', as the experience was presented by a secondary source, in this case outside presenters.

I did not identify an instance of the recruitment of 'impersonal present other' experience in the session outlines of the course. An example for this kind of experience would have been an account of an outsider presenting non-pedagogic information on his or her current situation, such as the impact of being HIV positive on one's work, and using this information as basis for discussion and learning in class.

The grid developed to depict different kinds of experiences recruited during sessions was also used to analyse the experience recruited in the assignment tasks of the course. Below, I give an example of one personal experience that was drawn on in an assignment, and one impersonal experience.

An assignment task drawing on personal past pedagogic experience was the following extract from the first assignment:

Introduction to Adult Learning, Assignment 1:
[…]
Section B:
Provide some examples from your own life to show how past experiences you have had have acted as both a resource and barrier to your learning. In order to answer this question you need to draw or represent in some creative way, your own personal learning history in which you outline or highlight some of the most significant learning experiences you have had in your life.
[…]

Extract from assignment task, Introduction to Adult Learning

Learners were required to draw on a personal experience from their past. The experience drawn on clearly related to a pedagogic issue, namely learning barriers.

Impersonal present experience was drawn on by the following extract of an assignment task:

Foundations of Adult Learning, Assignment 1
[…]
This assignment is based on your site visit to another organisation. […]

Part 1: Description of the site of practice you visited

a. *Describe the nature of the organisation's work, particularly in relation to the education, training and development work it does.*
b. *Describe the main target group to whom the work is directed.*
c. *Describe the various stakeholders in the organisation, and their particular interests in the organisation's work.*

Part 2: Analysis of the organisation's work

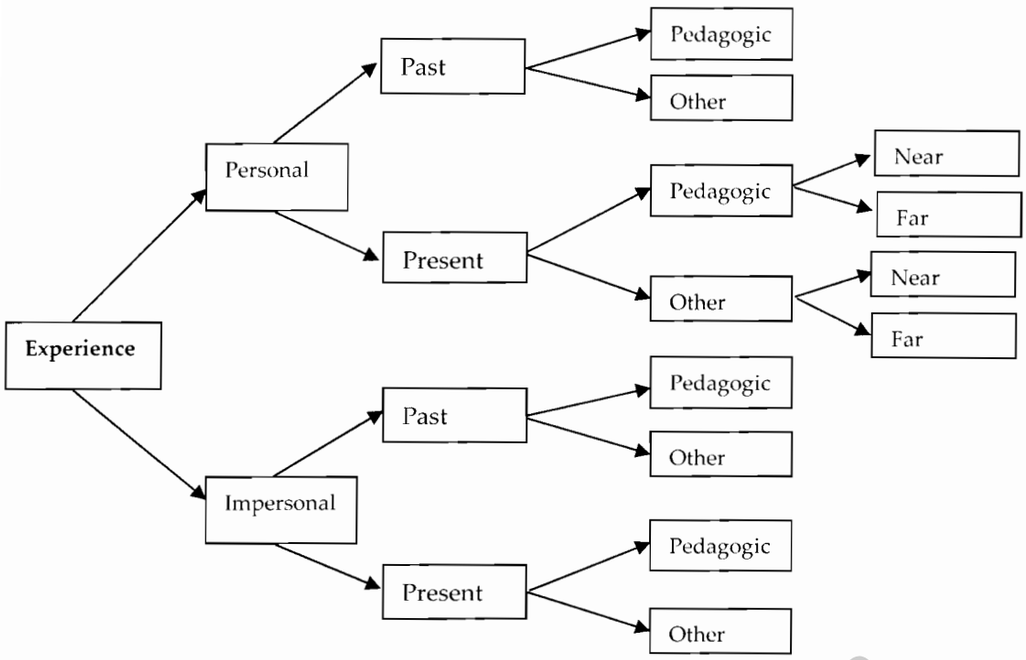
a. *What are the education, training and development goals of the organisation, and how are they reflected in the way in which the work is carried out?*
b. *How do these goals relate to the theories or views of education and development, or adult learning theories that we have discussed in class? Please give concrete evidence to support your points.*

Extract from assignment tasks, Foundations of Adult Learning Theory

Learners were required to draw on an experience of another organisation they visited as part of the course, thus a present impersonal experience. The experience was both pedagogic and 'other', as they needed to speak about issues that do not exclusively relate to a learning situation, such as the stakeholders, and main target group of the work of the organisation. Yet aspects of this 'experience' that was drawn on was pedagogic, particularly, when learners needed to describe the education, training and development goals of the organisation and the way they are carried out. If an assignment task displayed a similar combination of 'pedagogic' and 'other' experience, I listed both experiences drawn on separately.

To conclude my description of different kinds of experience drawn on in sessions and assignments of the course, I present a grid depicting the different kinds of experience in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: Different kinds of experiences recruited on the course



In this section, I described the language I developed to depict different kinds of experience that were recruited in the curriculum, and the assignment tasks of the course. As mentioned above, the motivation for developing this grid indirectly emanated from Kolb's theory, as he did *not* distinguish between different kinds of experience. Yet in order to answer the first part of my question, 'what kinds of experience are recruited in an Adult Education curriculum', I had to find a way to distinguish between different kinds of experience.

In the following section, I will describe a second and more direct way in which I used Kolb' theory to answer the second part of my research question, which addresses the processes with which experiences are recruited within the curriculum.

3.1.3 Ways of recruiting experience

The second part of my research question refers to *the way* experience is recruited on the course. As described in the last section, Kolb's model indirectly influenced the development of the grid depicting different kinds of experiences, therefore answering the *'what'* of my research question. His model also provided me with a lense to look at *'how'* these kinds of experience were recruited. Kolb's model is representative of how the use of learner experience dominates in thinking about pedagogy in adult education and signals the most

dominant form of pedagogy in the adult education discourse. In his cycle, learners move from the concrete experience to an abstract conceptualisation of this experience. It is therefore an inductive model. When working with the data, a move opposite to this inductive model became apparent: moving from theory, thus abstract conceptualisation to the practical, concrete experience. Kolb's cycle *did* capture this move, however not as the start of the learning process[7]. This indication of an opposite directionality between theory and practice assisted me in developing the part of my analytic framework that names processes of recruiting experience, and therefore answers the second part of my research question.

Based on Kolb's cycle, I developed two analytical categories depicting ways of recruiting experience on the course: An inductive mode, where the recruitment of experience was the start of the learning process, and a deductive mode, where theoretical input preceded the recruitment of experience. Within the inductive mode, two ways of recruiting experience could be identified: the recruitment of experience which preceded theoretical input, and a variation of the inductive mode, where the recruitment of experience happened without leading to the use of formally established theory, and learners formulated their own ideas regarding the recruited experience.

An example for an inductive way of recruiting experience, where experience preceded theoretical input, was depicted by the following extract of a session outline. The left column is a direct quote from lecturer notes. The right column contains my own comments.

10.30	How do adults learn? What I value exercise: - do individually (15") - Share in pairs (10") - Plenary collect top 3/ bottom 3 (20")	Drawing on personal past pedagogic experience by thinking about own learning styles and what one values regarding learning
11.15	Personal learning story questionnaire – Individually - complete learning list (10") - complete grid, look for patterns (15") - now in 3/4s share what you have discovered (15")	Draws on personal past pedagogic experience by filling in a questionnaire regarding one's past learning
12.00	Plenary – what answers do we get to the question: "How do adults learn" (write up on N/P)	Drawing conclusions from experience
12.20	Knowles assumptions input	Theoretical input by lecturer

Extract from handwritten session outlines, 9th May, Introduction to Adult learning

[7] It could be argued that his model states the move from 'abstract conceptualisation' back to 'concrete experience'. However, it is secondary to the move from 'concrete experience' to 'abstract conceptualisation', his cycle always *starts* with the experience.

The recruitment of experience happened before any conceptual or theoretical input, learners were first asked to reflect on their experience (assisted by an exercise) and formulate general rules from it before they hear about Knowles' theory of andragogy. As the recruitment of experience was followed by lecturer input that provides closure to the learning unit in the form of a clear, pre-determined answer, I called it a 'closed' inductive mode.

A variation of the inductive way of recruiting experience happened without theoretical input by the lecturer, learners formulated their own ideas and reflections on the experience, and answers were not pre-determined. I therefore named it the 'open inductive mode'. The following example was an illustration of this.

11.00	Steps in design and facilitation of learning events - in groups, brainstorm elements – write up in order on OHP (15") - present OHP's (15") - common elements - collect and sort (10") - discuss each element and compare to course (15") - comments and questions (10")	-> topic for this part of class and content of learning Groups elicit from their own experience and knowledge what the steps of designing and facilitation of learning events are, summarise it and present it to others for discussion. There is no further input by the lecturer (at least not planned in the session outline), all that is discussed has been recruited from the learners' experience

Extract from handwritten session outlines, 1st August, Design and Facilitation of Learning Events

In the situation above, the process of recruiting experience was not followed by a 'closure' in terms of theoretical input by the lecturer.

The second broad way of recruiting experience on the course was what I named a 'deductive mode'. Here, the recruitment of experience *followed* theoretical and conceptual input by the lecturer. Below is an example from the session outlines.

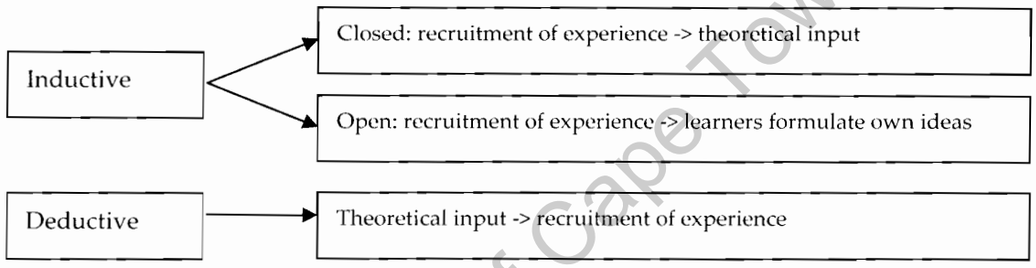
1.30	Input: Introduce idea of workplace learning – the 'T' in ETDP + theory behind it, Focus on Wenger/ Lave Social theory of learning Situated Learning Communities of Practice Aim to understand the key concepts Wenger – outline of Social Theory of Learning on OHP	Input by lecturer
2.00	Introduce case studies of situated learning in communities of practice in workplace: Vai/Goia Tailors and meatcutters. Groups read one of the case studies and answer: 1. How does this apprenticeship relate to your workplace training? What are the similarities and differences? 2. what are the lessons to be learned from this case study about effective training/ ed. Practice?	Use of 'impersonal' past pedagogic experience (=case studies) Relate input as well as case study to personal present pedagogic experience Formulate general principles from impersonal past pedagogic experience

Extract from handwritten session outlines, 5th March, Foundations of Adult Learning Theory

Here the input clearly preceded the use of experience. The case studies, in this case the 'impersonal past pedagogic' experience, were a demonstration of the input that preceded it. They illuminated the theory that was explained before. This was followed by a second kind of experience: the case studies got further related to the personal present experience of the learners' work. The use of experience in this case was twofold.

In the preceding section, I have distinguished two broad ways of recruiting experience, an inductive and a deductive way. Within the inductive way of recruiting experience, I have identified a variation of an inductive mode, and thus named the two inductive modes 'open' and 'closed'. Both processes start with the recruitment of experience, yet the 'open' inductive mode is not followed by theoretical input and 'closure' by the lecturer. By analysing instances that recruit learner experience, and allocating them into one of the three categories, I was able to establish a mechanism for answering the question of 'how' learner experience is recruited within the curriculum of the Diploma course. Figure 3 below is a figure depicting the different ways of experience recruitment on the course.

Figure 3: Inductive and deductive ways of recruiting experience



By using the terms 'open inductive', 'closed inductive' and 'deductive' modes of recruiting experience, I was able to identify different processes of recruiting experience, as well as which process was most frequently used on the course.

Kolb's model assisted me in developing the terms to describe processes of recruiting experience on the course. However, having completed my analysis of these different processes, I realised that my definitions of 'inductive' and 'deductive' modes of recruiting experience did not go beyond describing the sequencing of theory and experiential knowledge in the learning situation. In order to be able to discuss their meaning with regards to pedagogy, and throw light on the learning situation from a broader perspective, I turned to Basil Bernstein, whose language allowed for a more extensive interpretation of my findings. Bernstein's theories, as well as my use of them will be described in the next section.

3.2 *Basil Bernstein on knowledge and pedagogy*

As mentioned above, Kolb's model of experiential learning is the dominant model of pedagogy in adult education and experiential learning. In the case of my research, it proved to be useful for developing different terms to depict how learner experiences are recruited. However, his model does not go beyond the experiential learning situation. It is self-referential, he does not distinguish between learning situations where experience is intentionally used and where not (the use of experience in a learning situation was a 'given' for him), where the process of learning leads to different learning results, or the relationship between experiential knowledge and transmitted theory. He does not look at broader social processes and power dynamics shaping the discourse and practice of experiential learning. My description of inductive and deductive modes, which was derived from his model, contributed to an analysis of the process of recruiting experience on the course, yet was limited to the description of the relationship between theory and experiential knowledge. In order to analyse the process of recruiting experience and answer the second part of my research question, I needed other concepts for my analytical framework. I needed a language with which to say more about the inductive and deductive modes of recruiting experience.

The educational sociologist Basil Bernstein's description of knowledge and pedagogy (1975, 1996, 2000) offers a powerful conceptual language with which to get to grips with different modes of pedagogy and different kinds of knowledge, as well as their impact on learner identity. His theory and language not only provide a clear means to analyse curricula, but as described in the literature review, are highly topical and define global shifts we are experiencing in learning situations today. His concepts enabled me to deepen my analysis of the process of recruiting experience. In the following sections, I first will describe Bernstein's theory, and then the ways in which his language assisted me in my analysis.

3.2.1 Modes of pedagogy

Bernstein defines two "contrasting models of pedagogic practice and context" (1996: 57), a competence model and a performance model. Within these two modes, roles are differently distributed and discourses differently specialised (Muller, 2001). A performance model of pedagogy

> places the emphasis upon a specific output of the acquirer, upon a particular text the acquirer is expected to construct, and upon the specialised skills necessary to the production of this specific output, text or product (Bernstein 1996: 58).

Within a performance model, recognition and realisation rules for what counts as 'legitimate texts' by the acquirer are explicit. The model can be referred to as the 'standardising model' or the 'skill developer'. A performance model is either market-responsive or determined by specialised discourses, and in both cases dependent on external determinants of educational outcomes (Bernstein, 1996). In processes of evaluation, the emphasis within a performance model is on what is missing in the product of the learner, and the "acquirer will be made aware of how to recognize and realize legitimate text" (ibid: 60). Bernstein differentiates between three performance modes of pedagogy: regions, singulars and generic modes. The modes differ regarding their knowledge base and social organisation (Bernstein 1996: 65).

In contrast to the performance model, a competence model of pedagogy concentrates on the process of learning rather than the outcome. The emphasis is "upon the realization of competences that acquirers already possess, or are thought to possess" (ibid: 58). Recognition and realisation rules for legitimate texts are implicit, and the focus in evaluation processes is on what is present in the learner's product. According to Muller (2001), competence models of pedagogy are part of an egalitarian project, with 'emancipatory flavour'. A competence model can also be referred to as 'individualising model' or 'inner developer'. The social logic of competence is one of a self-regulating subject who does not need formal instruction, acquisition of skills is tacit and the rules for acquisition implicit (Bernstein, 1996). Within a competence mode, hierarchical relations are viewed sceptically, and the pedagogy is considered therapeutic and empowering. Bernstein describes three different types of competence modes: the liberal/progressive mode, the populist mode and the radical mode, depending on the type of learner empowerment (ibid).

Bernstein differentiates between two different kinds of knowledge and discourse, 'vertical' and 'horizontal' discourse. Vertical discourse "takes the form of a coherent, explicit, systematically principled structure, hierarchically organised, *or* it takes the form of a series of specialised languages" (Bernstein 1996: 171). Horizontal discourse is characterised by everyday, common sense knowledge, which is "local, segmental, context dependent, tacit, multi-layered, often contradictory across contexts but not within contexts" (ibid: 170). Different models of pedagogy can place different emphasis on the one discourse or the other.

A major feature of variation within competence and performance modes of pedagogy is characterised by different degrees of 'classification' and 'framing', two further concepts Bernstein developed, and which provided useful for my analysis. These will be described in the next section.

3.2.2 Classification and Framing

Bernstein defines 'curriculum' as defining what counts as valid knowledge in a learning situation, 'pedagogy' as the valid transmission of this knowledge, and 'evaluation' as the valid realisation of this knowledge on the part of the taught (1975: 85). In order to "provide the means of understanding the process of symbolic control regulated by the different modalities of pedagogic discourse" (1996: 19), he introduces the concepts 'classification' and 'framing'.

'Classification' refers to the relations between categories, such as subjects within a school curriculum. The structure of a curriculum is defined by variations in the strength of classification (Bernstein, 1975).

> Where classification is strong, contents are well-insulated from each other by strong boundaries. Where classification is weak, there is reduced insulation between contents, for the boundaries between contents are weak or blurred. (1975: 88)

It also refers to the strength of the boundary between everyday knowledge and scientific, academic knowledge, thus horizontal and vertical discourse. When specialising the 'academic voice' of a learner, classification is usually strong, thus the boundaries between academic and everyday knowledge clearly marked

> If there is a very strong classification between the inside of the institution and the outside, then the knowledge here is given a special quality of otherness. If there is a strong classification between the inside and outside, then there is a hierarchy of knowledge between the so-called common sense and the so-called uncommon sense. (ibid: 25).

Competence models of pedagogy are characterised by weak classification: learners bring their own experiences into the classroom, externalise feelings, fears, fantasies and aspirations (Muller, 2001), and the difference and boundaries between vertical and horizontal knowledge structures (Bernstein, 1996) are not acknowledged or are aimed at being eroded. The identity of the learner is likely to be created by the everyday world. Bernstein claims that an anti-positivist position is what probably united all competence theorists, and that the concept of 'competence' has "divorced, even opposed epistemological roots" (ibid: 57). Performance modes, on the other hand, are characterised by a strong classification between general and local kinds of knowledge. Each subject within a curriculum has its own specialised rules and produces a specialised identity, whereas weak classification produces less specialised discourses and identities (ibid). Therefore classifications, as Bernstein claims, always influence and carry power relations.

The structure of pedagogy can be defined by variations in the strength of what Bernstein calls 'framing'.

> Frame refers to the range of options available to the teacher and taught in the control of what is transmitted and received in the context of the pedagogical relationship. Strong framing entails reduced options; weak framing entails a range of options. Thus frame refers to the degree of control teacher and pupil possess over the selection, organization, pacing and timing of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relationship (ibid: 89).

It refers to the relationship between the teacher and taught (Bernstein, 1975) and influences "the nature of the talk and the kinds of spaces constructed" (Bernstein 1996: 26). It therefore regulates what texts can be realised within the classroom and the specific discourse. Framing specifically refers to the nature of the control over

- the selection of the communication;
- its sequencing (what comes first, what comes second);
- its pacing (the rate of expected acquisition);
- the criteria; and
- the control over the social base which makes this transmission possible (ibid: 27)

Therefore, if framing is strong, the *transmitter* has control over the content, the selection of knowledge that is to be transmitted, as well as the sequence and pace with which it is transmitted. The power of the *learner* over the content, timing and pace of learning is reduced. The boundary between what may be transmitted and what may not be transmitted in the learning situation is strong, there are reduced options regarding the content that can be brought into the learning situation. The criteria of evaluation, thus of what counts as legitimate communication within learner text, as well as the hierarchy between the transmitter and the acquirer are visible. The teacher has greater power in the pedagogical relationship than the learner. Where framing is strong, there is a visible pedagogic practice (Bernstein, 1996).

If framing is weak, there is a range of options regarding the content of knowledge transmission. The learner has more apparent control over this content, as well as its sequencing and pacing. Bernstein uses the word 'apparent', as hierarchical power relations are still present, only less explicit and therefore harder to pinpoint. Evaluation criteria are implicit and diffuse. Where framing is weak, the pedagogic practice is likely to be invisible (ibid).

The two models of pedagogy described above can be characterised by different strengths of classification and framing: in a competence model of pedagogy, classification and framing are generally weaker, and in a performance mode they are generally stronger.

However, as Bernstein stresses, framing rules over selection, sequencing, pacing, and the evaluative criteria can vary with respect to different elements of practice, and independently of each other (ibid)

In the next sections, I will describe how I used Bernstein's two models of pedagogy and his concepts 'classification' and 'framing' to further analyse the process of recruiting experience, and to discuss my findings in general.

3.2.3 The use of Bernstein's concepts in this research

So far I have described Bernstein's concepts neutrally. However, he introduces the concepts to make a strong argument. Bernstein argues that through the move from performance to competence modes of pedagogy, from stronger to weaker framing, and the move to incorporate more and more horizontal, everyday knowledge into a curriculum, learners are constructed in a way that could leave them unable to transcend their local context. This could render learners unable to access the academic and specialised knowledge that gives rise to abstract, specialised and context-independent knowledge structures that are the prerequisite for self-directed learning (Bernstein, 1996). This self-directed learning, or 'trainability', the "ability to profit from continuous pedagogical re-formations and so cope with new requirements of 'work' and 'life'" (Bernstein 1996: 72), as he calls it, is exactly what is needed in today's world and what competence models are aiming for, but are unable to achieve for above-mentioned reasons. Bernstein believes that 'trainability' is grounded in a capacity that is an outcome of a specialised identity, and that this identity "cannot be constructed by lifting oneself up by one's shoelaces" (1996: 73) – thus his stress on the acquisition of specialised and generalised knowledge structures in order to empower learners. According to Bernstein (1996), the contrast between competence and performance models, put in a broad and simplistic way, is the empowerment of learners in a therapeutic way through affirmation of what they already know, or the empowerment of learners through equipping them with knowledge and specialised skills to enable them to see their situation from a meta-perspective and create a capacity to learn and develop further. This argument reminds us of some of the critiques of experiential learning described in the literature: Brookfield's warning of a 'naïve celebration of experience' (1998) and Usher's pointing to the danger of not being able to move beyond the anecdotal (1992).

Experiential learning methods can be located within Bernstein's framework as a clear example of a competence mode of pedagogy. Experiential knowledge is the epitome of

horizontal knowledge – it arises out of the everyday, and learners develop from 'inside', by accessing the knowledge they already possess. Experiential learning clearly has the 'emancipatory flavour' associated with competence modes of pedagogy that Muller (2001) suggests, and concentrates on the process of learning instead of the outcomes, as stipulated by Kolb and other experiential learning theorists. It is characterised by an invisible pedagogy, educators are simply there to 'guide' the learners to reflect on their experience and gain new knowledge. Experiential learning theorists rarely address the issue of evaluation. However, in recognition of prior learning practices, the evaluation of experiential knowledge plays a pivotal role. As became obvious through critiques regarding recognition of prior learning practices, certain forms of 'experiential knowledge' are valued above others. If the evaluation criteria are implicit, learners are less likely to provide proof of this more 'legitimate' experiential knowledge.

Realising that the recruitment of experiential knowledge as a pedagogic approach could be located within Bernstein's theoretical framework, and could be further characterised by his concepts of classification and framing, I decided to use his language as part of my analytical framework. By using Bernstein's concepts, I was able to substantiate my analysis of inductive and deductive modes, and present a deeper analysis of the process of recruiting experience by identifying the strength of framing rules within this activity. Bernstein's frequently quoted statement

> How a society selects, classifies, distributes, transmits and evaluates the educational knowledge it considers to be public, reflects both the distribution of power and the principles of social control (Bernstein 1975: 85).

reflects how every part of a written (and enacted) curriculum indicates broader issues that are shaping it. Analysing the process of recruiting experience in order to answer the second part of my research question, I used his concept of framing to characterise the process of recruiting experience further. I also used Bernstein's concepts to identify whether the curriculum represented the typical competence-mode pedagogy that experiential learning theorists suggest, and related my findings to his argument described above. By interpreting my findings in the light of Bernstein's theory, I was able to gain a meta-perspective of the curriculum I was looking at.

In the next section, I will describe the third theorist whose concepts and theories contributed to my analytical framework, and who provided me with tools to analyse the purpose of recruiting experience on the course.

3.3 *Dowling's language of description*

In order to analyse the purpose of recruiting experience on the course, I turned to Paul Dowling, whose concepts provided the basis for a language with which to answer this third part of my question. In this section, I describe some of the concepts Dowling developed in order to analyse the written curriculum. Breier (2003), whose research mine is closest to, partly used and further developed these concepts. I broadly describe her analytic framework, and elaborate how both analytic frameworks provided the basis for my own. I illuminate this by using empirical examples.

3.3.1 Dowling's distributing strategies

Paul Dowling (1998) developed, based on a structural view, a language of description to analyse the written curriculum. It was "construed as a technology, the purpose of which is the analysis of texts as expressions of social relations and the cultural practices which (re)produce them" (Dowling 1998: 130). He analysed pedagogic texts from within what he terms social activity theory. He substituted the term 'ideology' with the term 'activity', as for him "activity is always ideologized in the empirical" (ibid: 131) and the term 'ideology' carried too much of its own ideological baggage. Activities regulate what can be said or done or meant in any specific situation, and establish different positions that can be occupied by individuals, as well as practices that are specialised.

Dowling defined the concept of 'discursive saturation' and distinguished between high discursive saturation and low discursive saturation. The distinction between practices exhibiting these two forms of discursivity is the extent to which their regulating principles are realisable within discourse (Dowling, 1998). Practices with high discursive saturation are 'highly complex and exhibit comparatively complete articulation' (ibid: 138), whereas utterances within practices of low discursive saturation are 'highly particularized or context-dependent' (ibid: 139), context-specific and must be interpreted within the context of a particular activity. Traditional experiential learning methods, for example, would usually draw on practices with low discursive saturation, as the knowledge drawn on is particularized and context-dependent. Utterances within practices of high discursive saturation are relatively context independent and generalized (Dowling in Breier, 2003). The distinction between practices of high discursive saturation and low discursive saturation lead

Dowling to elaborate on his 'distributing strategies', which proved to be most relevant for Breier's study (2003) and for my own.

According to Dowling, distributing strategies may expand or limit the *range* of the message (emphasis by Dowling), thus the practice learners get access to. Expanding strategies broaden the message being distributed, whereas limiting strategies narrow the message in terms of topics and settings (Dowling, 1998) and exclude practices relating to the esoteric domain (Breier, 2003). Apart from defining the range of the message as being expanding or limiting, Dowling distinguishes between the discourse as either being abstract or particularised. Abstracting strategies facilitate the regulating principles of a practice with strong discursive saturation, and reduce the context dependency of the message (Dowling, 1998). Particularising strategies present the practice of an activity with high discursive saturation as though it was a practice of low discursive saturation (ibid), and the message is therefore context-dependent. Abstracting strategies give learners access to general and specialised knowledge that is applicable to a range of situations, and particularising strategies render learners more dependent on situational context.

Before describing my own use of Dowling's concepts, I will describe Breier's adaptation and use of his theory.

3.3.2 Breier's localising and generalising strategies

Breier (2003), who researched the recruitment and recognition of prior informal experience in two university courses in labour law, used Dowling's concepts of distributing strategies as the basis for her detailed theoretical analysis, depicting different kinds of recruitment of prior informal experience. She simplified Dowling's concepts in some respects for her purpose, and complicated them in others (Breier, 2003). She analysed pedagogic utterances, strategies and moves in lectures of two courses in labour law.

Dowling specified abstracting and particularising discourses further than I have described above. Within an abstracting discourse, he differentiated between 'generalising' and 'specialising' strategies. Within a particularising discourse, he distinguished between 'fragmenting' strategies and 'localising' strategies. Breier used his theory and distinguished between localising and generalising strategies of transmitter/acquirer verbal transmission/ acquisition strategies, and described "finer and finer distinctions within the category of localising strategies" (ibid: 106). She defined generalising strategies as consisting of "statement/s that recruit the abstract and the general", and transcending particular instances

while still having relevance for them. They include statements of general rules, principles, procedures, concepts or propositions, as well as their explanations or interpretations (ibid: 96). Localising strategies for her "background the general and the abstract and foreground the particular and the concrete" (ibid: 97). Because of her focus on prior informal experience, she developed a more complex and detailed network for localising strategies than for generalising strategies. With her language, she was able to identify "various forms of informal and formal knowledge and to describe their interplay" (ibid: ii).

In order to be answer the third part of my research question, and be able to elaborate on the purpose of recruiting experience, I drew on Dowling's and Breier's concepts to develop two categories of tasks, which display opposite 'purposes'. In the next section, I will outline these two categories and give empirical examples of each.

3.3.3 Abstracting and particularising tasks

Dowling's theory provides a means to analyse characteristics of pedagogic texts regarding their focus on the abstract and general, therefore inducing learners into the regulative principles of a domain with high discursive saturation, or their focus on the particularised and context-bound, thus reducing the abstract potential of a practice. His theory provides a language with which to speak about the purpose of a pedagogic activity, in the case of my research, the recruitment of experience.

As described above, Breier (2003) developed her own version of localising and generalising strategies, which differ from Dowling's in several respects (ibid.). She further specified the strategies, particularly the localising strategies, and developed empirical indicators for the different strategies. Her application of strategies to empirical data was a model for my analytic framework.

In order to identify the purpose of recruiting experience in the curriculum I analysed, I developed two categories based on Dowling's and Breier's concepts and application. Dowling did not use his concepts of 'abstracting' and 'particularising' strategies empirically, but as abstract concepts to indicate the first move in his explanation of distributing strategies. Yet I found the two concepts useful in characterising the movement of an activity: 'abstracting' moving from the particular to the general, thus from experience to theory, and 'particularising' moving from the general to the particular, thus from theory to experience. I therefore developed two categories to answer the third part of my research question, in which I question the purpose of recruiting experience. I differentiated between

abstracting tasks and particularising tasks. By using these two categories to analyse the assignment tasks, I was able to establish where the task ultimately aimed at a greater understanding of theory and focussed on rules and principles (and was therefore abstracting), or whether it aimed at a greater understanding of experience and foregrounded the particular and concrete (and was therefore particularising). In the following section, I give examples of how I put the two categories to use.

An example for an abstracting task was the following:

Introduction to Adult Learning, Assignment 1:

This assignment asks you to show your understanding of some of the topics we have discussed and read about in class, as well as to reflect on your own experiences of learning.
[…]

Section A:
Explain, in your own words, what you understand to be the meaning of the following three statements:

1. "Experience is not the same as learning"
2. "With adult learners, you can use their experience as a resource for learning"
3. "The experiences of adult learners can also act as a barrier to learning"

You might find some of the readings on "experiential learning" or Tony Morphet's article helpful in answering these questions. However we would like to hear <u>your opinion</u> on these issues.
[…]

Extract from assignment task, Introduction to Adult Learning

In this task, learners need to show an understanding of the general principle of experiential learning. Their explanation should transcend the concrete, and include general statements and their explanation. Learners can voice their own opinion, yet the ultimate aim is to move from the particular, the experience to the more abstract, which in this case is experiential learning theory. The direction of the task is abstracting, thus moves from the particular to the general. The following is an example for a particularising task:

Introduction to Adult Learning, Assignment 2:

This assignment requires you to describe and analyse your experiences of language and literacy practices. While it relates to the readings you have been doing on language and literacy, it is hoped that you will be able to reflect on your own experiences in a wide range of contexts.
[…]

Section A:
Over a period of four days, write up a language diary for yourself. You need to write it over two weekend days and two work days, to give a fuller reflection of your language interactions.
The purpose of the diary is to provide a description of the languages and texts you come into contact with over this period (remember 'text' is a broad term and can refer to any written information or documentation; to films, television and radio; and to conversations, amongst others). Try to provide as much detail as possible about what the texts were, what language was used, who was involved in the interaction, and the context. It is more important that you focus on the kind of text and language used as well as anything interesting that emerged, rather than on the detail of the content (unless the content shows up something interesting and relevant).
[…]

Extract from assignment task, Introduction to Adult Learning

Learner experience formed the basis for the task quoted above. The focus was on the particular, the concrete, and not on general or abstract concepts. The introductory sentence is indicative of the directionality of the assignment: "while it relates to the readings […], it is hoped that you will be able to reflect on your own experiences […]. Theory is present, yet is used as tool to describe the experience. Learners are required to move from the general to the particular. Even though it said "[…] in a wide range of contexts", it still referred to learners' own experiences, thus the more particular.

In the analysis of my data, I used the concepts 'particularising' and 'abstracting' tasks to characterise the purpose of each assignment as a whole. By defining whether a better understanding of theory or a better understanding of experience was the ultimate goal of an assignment, I was able to get closer to defining the purpose of the recruitment of experience in the curriculum of a University Adult Education Diploma.

3.4 Summary

In this chapter, I have presented three theorists whose concepts and models influenced my analytical framework: David Kolb, Basil Bernstein and Paul Dowling. I described how David Kolb's model of experiential learning led me to develop a language in order to depict different kinds of experience, as it lacked a specification of different kinds of experience that could be recruited in a learning situation. I distinguished between experiences that were

personal, and those that were impersonal. I further distinguished between past and present experiences, and whether the experiences depicted a pedagogic encounter or not. Within 'personal present' experiences, I distinguished between 'far' and 'near' experiences. My definition of different kinds of experiences provided the means with which to answer to the first part of my research question, 'what kinds of experiences are recruited within a University Adult Education Diploma'.

After describing the distinction between different *kinds* of experience, I elaborated on the influence of Kolb's model on my language to describe different *ways* of recruiting experience. I summarised Kolb's definition of different stages of experiential learning. In his model, the stage of 'abstract conceptualisation' follows the stage of concrete experience and reflection on this experience. I named this an inductive mode. Implicitly (by its absence), his model pointed to a different mode of recruiting experience: a deductive mode, where abstract concepts and theories precede the recruitment of experience. I described two ways of recruiting experience, which would assist me in illuminating the process with which experience was recruited on the course.

In order to define the processes of recruiting experience further, I turned to Basil Bernstein' description of performance and competence models of pedagogy, and his concepts of classification and framing. I stated that his concept of framing assisted me in further illuminating the deductive and inductive modes of recruiting experience, and that his definition of different models of pedagogy assisted me in the final discussion of my data. How exactly I used his theories to further illuminate my findings will become obvious in chapters five and six.

The last part of this chapter summarised Paul Dowling's theory, particularly his concept of 'distributing strategies'. I elaborated on Breier's use of his theory, and the ways in which I derived my definition of 'abstracting' and 'particularising' tasks from both authors. I gave examples for each kind of task, and elaborated in what way the language described would assist me in answering the third part of my research question, which addressed the purpose of recruiting experience on the course.

In the next chapter, I will describe the methodology of my research, elaborate on the history of my case study, summarise the processes of data collection and analysis, and comment on the limitations of the research.

4 Research Design

In the previous chapter, I elaborated on the theories and concepts that provided the basis for my analytical framework. I have already demonstrated many moves that I undertook during my analysis, in order to exemplify how the theories were put to use, and to illuminate my 'own' concepts. In this chapter, I give an overview of my research design. I describe my broad methodological approach, and elaborate on the history and structure of my case study. Subsequently, I systematically describe the processes of data collection and analysis of my research, and comment on its limitations.

4.1 An overview

My broad methodological approach is qualitative. I aim to understand a particular setting, and am aligned with an interpretive approach to social science (Maxwell, 1996). The case study is based on empirical, mainly textual data. My research is a descriptive type of qualitative research, as I focus on one specific issue within a curriculum, the recruitment of experience, and aim to describe it as accurately as possible. I partly use a deductive and partly an inductive approach, which will be further described in the data analysis section. My research is exploratory, in that I am investigating a relatively unknown area of research: the recruitment of learner experience within an adult education curriculum. It is mainly qualitative, as stated above, however I do use quantitative methods of analysis when stipulating the frequency of certain phenomena in relation to others.

My research question remained sensitive and adaptable to the implications of other parts of the research design, as proposed by Maxwell (1996). Maxwell claims that often a major part of research needs to be completed before it is clear what specific research questions the researcher is aiming to answer. Yin (1993) refers to the same issue – "during data collection, you may realize that the original definitions and objectives are not as relevant as newly discovered items" (1993: 41). I originally aimed to describe the kinds of pedagogy and knowledge contained in the curriculum of the Diploma, and the way they positioned learners. In order to achieve this, I had planned to use Basil Bernstein's models of competence and performance pedagogy. However, I came to realise that the framework and my data did

not 'interact' as well as I had planned. The original question proved to be too broad as a research question and led me to investigate the relationship between theory and practice within the curriculum. The relationship between theory and practice pointed towards the issue of experiential knowledge and to the question 'how is learner experience recruited' as visible in the curriculum of the Diploma. This led me to questioning three aspects regarding the recruitment of experience: *what kinds* of experience were recruited in the curriculum, *how* they were recruited, and for what *purpose*. In order to find the answer to these sub-questions, I turned to alternative theories, Kolb's cycle of experiential learning and Dowling's distributing strategies, which have been described in the last chapter, and used Bernstein's concepts to illuminate and discuss my findings.

In the next sections, I give an overview of the case study approach, and the history and structure of the particular case study I researched.

4.2 The case study

4.2.1 A case study approach

My research is based on a descriptive single-case study (Yin, 1993), aiming to capture a phenomenon within its context. Next to ethnography and grounded theory, a case study approach it is one of the three most common types of qualitative research (Merriam and Simpson, 1995). My aims for the research are aligned with the strengths of a case study approach – high construct validity and in-depth insights into a particular situation (Mouton, 2001). A case study approach provides an opportunity for one aspect of a situation or problem to be studied in depth (Bell, 1999). A descriptive case study "presents a complete description of a phenomenon within its context" (Yin 1993: 5). In my research, the 'phenomenon' described is the recruitment of experience within a curriculum of a specific course. The selection of a case is usually done purposefully; the researcher chooses it because of a specific interest in the context or characteristic of what is being studied. In the following section, I will describe my case study, as well as my reasons for choosing the particular site.

4.2.2 The case study

The site for my data collection and analysis is a 'Diploma in Education (Adult Education)' offered by a South African university. This particular course is a customised version that the education and training authority (SETA) of a particular industry sector requested from the department of the university to offer to 20-25 of their trainers. The course is run part-time over two years, and learners are required to complete six modules to graduate with the 'Diploma in Education (Adult Education)', which is marked at NQF level 5. The participants are already working as trainers or have been identified as potential trainers for their industry. The aims of the course are to enable them to

> develop professionally and increase their capacity for reflection and innovation in the differing sites of practice through linking theory, practice and skills development' (Adult Learning Group, n.d.)

After completion of the Diploma, the learners/ trainers are responsible for designing and organising learnerships in their workplaces.

I selected this particular site as it provided an example of an amalgamation of a 'workplace' and a higher education institution, thus pointed to new relationships between learning and work; and an interaction between formal, academic knowledge and practitioner, that is experiential knowledge. The students are practitioners who have not previously attended a university and are now working and studying at the same time. They have gained considerable experience through their work, thus provide a great potential for curricula to 'draw on their experience'.

In order to attain the Diploma in Adult Education, students need to complete six modules. Each of the six modules consists of 5-10 whole day sessions, run every Friday from 8.30 am until 3.30 pm. In the first year, students complete the modules 'Introduction to Adult Learning' (IAL), 'Organisation Development' (OD) and 'Design and Facilitation of Learning Events' (DFLE). In their second year, they attend the modules 'Foundations of Adult Learning Theory' (FALT), 'Fields and Sites of Adult Education' (FSAE), and 'Field Study' (FS). For each module but the last one, students receive a reader containing readings and articles relevant to the topics introduced in class. They also receive an overview of the module sessions, and what topics each session will roughly deal with. To pass a module, learners need to complete at least two written assignments with a mark of at least 50 %. One main course convenor marks the assignments and oversees the overall running of the course. Two lecturers run most of the sessions (one of them being the course convenor); however,

guest speakers are frequently invited to lecture on topics relevant to the course or to introduce the students to their field of practice. A brief description of the contents of each module, as well as a summary of texts contained in the readers for each module can be found in Appendix A.

4.2.3 The history of the 'Diploma in Adult Education'

The Diploma in Adult Education course was formalised in 1995 as part of a move towards formalisation of adult educator training at university-entrance level (Cooper, 1995). For over a decade before 1995, several South African universities offered semi- or non-formal, unsubsidised 'certificate' programmes to people who had limited formal qualifications but were active in adult and community education projects (ibid). However, these programmes did not offer any qualification or grant access to further tertiary education to those who participated. As part of the new government's aim to establish a national system of adult education and training, a consortium of universities with adult education departments founded the DEAL research and development programme. As part of the final report of the research project, a formalisation of training programmes at university level was proposed, as well as the linkage to a National Qualification Structure (Cooper, 1995). As reaction to the report and outside demands, the university offered the first formal 'Certificate in Adult Education, Training and Development' in 1995. It provided an initial, professional qualification for adult educators and trainers, and formally recognised the Certificate as prerequisite for application and access to the 'Advanced Diploma in Education'. The course was a 'merger' of two nonformal courses which had been run within the same Department over several years (ibid).

McMillan (1995) describes the new 'formalised' Certificate as having two aims instead of previously one. The informal certificate was aimed at assisting practitioners to improve their practice, whereas the formalised Certificate aims at developing this practitioner competence *as well as* the development of academic skills. The new 'student-practitioner' could be located between 'mainstream' formal higher education and non-formal workplace training, thus is a 'hybrid' learner (1995: 132). This points to what Bernstein (1996) and Muller (2001) describe as the 'weakened boundary' between knowledge gained from experience and knowledge gained in a formal education context, as well the movement of universities to respond to external demands. However, this integration of education and training has been seen as problematic in curriculum terms, as deep-seated and conflicting traditions of learning

and teaching underlie the development of the Diploma (Cooper, 1995). The conflicting traditions underlying the curriculum of the Diploma and this weakened boundary will be commented on again in the final discussion of my findings.

In the following sections, I will describe the processes of data collection and different stages of data analysis of my research.

4.3 Data collection and analysis

4.3.1 Data collection

The main method of data collection in this research was the collection of written documents. In addition, I conducted a semi-structured interview with the course convenor to substantiate the analysis of documentary sources. I observed one of the sessions of the Diploma, however only to gain a general sense of the 'pedagogy in practice' rather than gathering data.

At the beginning of the research process, my process of data collection was all-inclusive regarding the collection of written documentation on the course. With permission from the course convenor and lecturers, I copied their complete documentation of the course, which contained 2-page general module outlines (handed out to course participants at the beginning of each module), as well as typed or handwritten detailed outlines for each session of the course, which depicted the sessions 'as planned' by the lecturer. The files also contained handouts the learners received in sessions, assignment tasks, exercises and additional material that assisted the lecturer in convening the sessions, such as literature on the content to be covered. Wherever an outside lecturer presented a specific topic, I collected the notes taken by the course convenor, (who always attended the session), the written session outline as planned by the outside lecturer, as well as the handouts and exercises of the particular session. In addition to the material in the lecturer files, I copied actual assignments written by students of the 'Foundations of Adult Learning' and 'Fields and Sites of Adult Education and Training' modules. I also copied the indexes and first page of texts in the readers of each module, in order to determine the 'kinds of texts' learners received. All in all, I went through about 1000 pages of written texts depicting the course's content.

However, during the process of analysis, my focus became more selective. As described above, I realised that only parts of the written documents would provide useful

empirical data for my particular research focus. The data that eventually provided the basis for the analysis was:

- detailed ***session outlines*** of 35 'days', written by the lecturer for each session over the two years of the course (full days containing site visits, group presentations and tutorials were excluded, as they were not planned in detail)
- all 15 ***assignment tasks*** learners needed to complete and pass in order to receive the 'Diploma in Education (Adult Education)'
- the ***written lecturer comments*** on assignments which learners produced to pass the 'Foundations of Adult Learning Theory' module
- the ***marking criteria*** of all assignments, as stipulated by the lecturer
- comments made by the course convenor during the ***interview.***

Examples of written session outlines can be found in Appendix C. Direct quotations of examples of marking criteria, assignments and written lecturer comments are provided in chapter 5, and are therefore not attached as an Appendix. Only few parts of the interview with the course convenor were eventually used in my analysis, however, a list of questions posed in the interview is attached in Appendix B.

I did not interview learners on the course, or use classroom observations as a basis for analysis. This was due to the time restraints and limited scope of my research – I would have only had the possibility to observe the last two modules of the course while I was undertaking my research. However, I had access to the written session outlines of *all* modules, and wanted to give a 'complete' picture regarding the phenomenon I was investigating. The written documentary sources provided this 'completeness', and they indicated a "material instance of an activity" (Dowling 1998: 132) that was worth investigating in itself. In the next section, I will describe why and how I analysed each of the data sets mentioned above.

4.3.2 Data analysis

My research question contained three different aspects: what kinds of experiential knowledge are recruited in a university Adult Education Diploma course, how they are recruited, and for what purpose. As mentioned in the first chapter of this thesis, I used the term 'recruitment' to depict the ways in which prior experience or learning was 'drawn upon' in the pedagogic

process. My data analysis was a detailed interrogation of the recruitment of experience as evident in the curriculum of the Diploma. During all aspects of my data analysis, I kept on asking 'how' experience is recruited in relation to other aspects of the course, such as the formal knowledge transmitted in the curriculum, and as evident in the different data sets of my research. I used Kolb's model of experiential learning (1984), Bernstein's theory of knowledge and pedagogy (1975, 1996, 2000) and Dowling's (1998) distributing strategies as terminology and theoretical conceptual framework to guide me in my analysis. Bernstein's concepts were also used in the final discussion of my findings.

The first phase of my analysis addressed the question '*what kinds* of experiential knowledge are recruited in a University Adult Education Diploma'. In order to be able to distinguish between different kinds of experiences, I needed to first 'filter' out the instances during sessions where experience was recruited. Dowling, who analyses the texts of mathematics schoolbooks, describes "text as a material instance of activity" as the empirical object of his study (Dowling 1998: 132).

> *Pedagogic texts*, which are my immediate concern, construct authors as transmitters and readers as acquirers. The transmitter is in possession of the regulative principles of the practices of the activity which the acquirer is to acquire (Dowling 1998: 131, emphasis in original).

In my own analysis, I looked at how pedagogic text, in my case the written curriculum of the Diploma, set out to recruit learner experience. Text was a material instance of activity (in its common meaning of the word) during the sessions and thus of teaching methodologies employed by the course convenor. My focus was on moments during sessions where learner experience was recruited, either through questions or an exercise. These moments were part of bigger 'learning units', as I have named them. A learning unit was a set of activities that were related to one topic and separated from other learning units by their content. It could be a phase of two or more hours, or as short as 30 minutes, its main characteristics being that experience was recruited in this learning unit, and that it was separate from other units regarding its content. The examples given for different categories of experience in the last chapter were learning units. Within a total of 35 detailed session outlines of the course, I identified 66 learning units in which experience was recruited.

As described in the last chapter, neither Kolb's model of experiential learning theory nor other theorists provided me with a language to speak about different *kinds* of experience that could be recruited in a learning situation. Therefore, I developed my own language with which to speak about different kinds of experience. This was completed through a grounded

theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1995) approach and its method of constant comparison. Grounded theory aims to build theory out of empirical data, and emphasises discovery and description rather than verification (Merriam and Simpson, 1995). It is here where my research was inductive - through constant comparison of different parts of my data, or what Silverman calls a "repeated to and fro between different parts of your data" (2000: 180), I developed categories of different kinds of experience that were recruited in the curriculum of the Diploma.

Figure 2 on page 39 in the previous chapter represented the end point of an analytical process which comprised several stages of characterising experiences recruited, and identifying their commonalities and differences. Preliminary names of categories at one stage of the analysis were: 'experience as learner in the past', 'experience as practitioner', 'personal experience', 'artificially created experience in the classroom', 'movie, case study', 'the course itself as learning experience'. Ultimately, I differentiated between the categories 'personal' or 'impersonal' experience, and further distinguished them into 'past' or 'present' experience, and 'pedagogic' or 'other' experience. 'Present' experience was further specified into 'near' and 'far' experience. After developing this more sensitive measure of different kinds of experience, I allocated all learning units to these categories, depending on the kind of experience they recruited. I looked at patterns within the recruitment of experience, ie. which kind of experiential knowledge was used the most and which one was recruited the least. In the second part of phase one, I analysed the assignment tasks of the course, and allocated them to the same categories of different kinds of experience, according to the kind of experience they asked students to draw on. I counted the frequency of the recruitment of each kind of experience, and pointed towards the most dominant 'kind of experience' recruited in assignment tasks of each year.

The second phase of my analysis addressed the *process* of recruiting experience on the course. I used the same 'learning units' as in the first phase of my analysis. This time I did not look at the kinds of experiences recruited, but at the ways in which they were recruited in relation to theoretical input by the lecturer, thus at a movement between different activities within the learning units. As described in the last chapter, based on Kolb's model of experiential learning, I identified two 'ways' of recruiting experience: the 'inductive way', where the recruitment of experience preceded theoretical input thus was at the start of the learning unit, and the 'deductive way', where theoretical input was followed by the recruitment of experience. Within the inductive mode, I distinguished between 'open

inductive' and 'closed inductive' ways of recruiting experience. In the open inductive mode, the recruitment of experience was not followed by 'closure' through lecturer input. I analysed all 66 learning units, and allocated them to the categories 'open inductive', 'closed inductive', or 'deductive' mode of recruiting experience. I counted which way of recruiting experience was the most common, and used Bernstein's concepts of classification and framing to further illuminate the three modes of recruiting experience.

I substantiated my findings of phase two with comments made by the course convenor during the interview. The interview was semi-structured, and I posed open-ended questions to avoid subjective influencing of the interviewee's responses with the way I was phrasing the questions. The questions drawn on for my analysis addressed the ways in which the course convenor saw the relationship between experience and theory on the course, as well as what she saw as 'success' on the course. Many other questions were posed, yet did not prove relevant for my research in the end. The list of interview questions can be found in the Appendix. The course convenor's statements confirmed many of my findings regarding the process of recruiting experience on the course.

In the third phase of my analysis, I looked at the *purpose* of recruiting experience on the course. In order to find an answer to this question, I turned to another set of data: the assignment tasks of all modules. The first two phases of my analysis concentrate on the recruitment of experience in the sessions of the Diploma, as set out in the written curriculum and the assignment tasks. Having concentrated on the kinds of experience that were recruited, as well as how they were recruited in relationship to theoretical input by the lecturer, the question of *purpose* arose – why was experience recruited in this curriculum? The 'learning units' I had used for my analysis in part one and two did not give me the answer to this question. The dominance of the deductive mode as a way of recruiting experience on the course indicated that experience was mostly used 'after' theory. In some instances, it looked as if it was used to illuminate theory. In other instances, it seemed that the theory was used to ultimately understand one's experience better. The learning units alone did not give me enough 'substance' to make claims regarding the purpose of using experience. The assignment tasks and evaluation of a course, on the other hand, ultimately portray what learners are expected to be able to perform at the end of a course. Assessment on any course is an indicator of what the course aims at, it therefore points to the 'purpose' of what was learned in class. If the course valorised a deep understanding of theory, it would be reflected in the assignment tasks, and if it valorised the application of theory to specific experiences,

this would also be reflected. Dowling's conceptual framework assisted me in this part of the analysis. It characterises 'movement' within learning situations from one kind of knowledge to the other, thus characterises how experiential knowledge can relate to theory.

I analysed the marking criteria of each assignment and allocated the marking criteria to different categories: 'Understanding of theory', 'academic skill', 'application of theory to experience' and 'understanding of experience'. I counted the percentages that were given for the demonstration of different skills. I then analysed each assignment, and allocated their sub-questions to the categories 'particularising' and 'abstracting'. By identifying whether an assignment task was 'abstracting' or 'particularising', I aimed to see why experience was ultimately recruited on the course. Finally, in order to gain insight into what exactly the lecturer expected learners to do in their assignments, I used the written comments on actual learner assignments to draw up a typology of an 'ideal assignment'. I distinguished between comments indicating ways of improving the assignment or what was missing on the one hand, and comments indicating her approval of the text on the other hand as the basis for the typology. The analysis of whether assignments were 'abstracting' or 'particularising', what percentages were given for the demonstration of different skills in the assignments, the typology of an 'ideal assignment', as well as comments made by the course convenor during the interview, pointed to an interesting issue regarding the evaluation on the course.

As mentioned above, I give direct quotes of written session outlines as well as assignments tasks when presenting my analysis. As has become obvious in the previous chapter, there are two ways in which I present the original data: if there is one column in which I present the data, I have marked the relevant parts with italics. If there are two columns, the direct quote is in the left column, and my comments in the right column. I will remind the reader of this again at a later stage.

Table 1 illustrates the different phases, data sets and modes of analysis of my research:

Table 1: Research phases

Question aimed to answer	Data used	Language used	Modes of analysis
Phase 1: What kinds of experiential knowledge are recruited	• Written session outlines for each session of the course • Assignment tasks	Personal/ Impersonal, Present/ Past, Pedagogic/ Other, Near/ Far Experience	Identifying different kinds of experience recruited within 'learning units', developing language to depict the different kinds in interaction with data
Phase 2: How are they recruited	• Written session outlines for each session of the course • Interview	Inductive modes of recruiting experience: closed inductive, open inductive; Deductive mode, Framing and classification	Allocating 'learning units' to different modes of recruiting experience, substantiating findings with lecturer comments
Phase 3: Why are they recruited	• Assignment tasks • Marking criteria of all assignments • Written lecturer comments on assignments • Interview	Abstracting and particularising tasks	Analysing all parts of assignments as certain kind of task (abstracting or particularising), counting marking criteria and their characteristics, developing a typology of an 'ideal assignment' from written lecturer comments, substantiating findings with lecturer comments

In the final discussion of my data and conclusion of this research, I will comment on the issue of assessment, and what the course convenor called 'the dichotomy' of the course. I will use Bernstein's conceptual language to describe the findings of the different phases of my research and to characterise the pedagogy of the course. As Sadovnik (1995: 11) states, all pedagogic practices are a combination of forms of pedagogy, but lean more strongly in one direction or another. In my analysis, it became obvious that the curriculum was a representation of a mix of modes. In fact, this mix possibly created the disjunctures within the course that became evident in my analysis, which will be elaborated on in chapter six.

4.4 Limitations of the study

As I mainly look at the written curriculum of the Diploma, the claims I make about the recruitment of experience are limited to whatever the lecturer *sets out to do* during the sessions and not what is *actually done*. I limit my argument to the planned activity of the course, to the formal curriculum and to espoused theory, and not pedagogy in practice. It certainly would have been interesting to include interviews with current and past learners regarding their

opinion and reaction to the recruitment of experience on this course, and their opinion on its effects on themselves as learners. However, due to the limited scope and time frame of my research, I looked at the design of the curriculum, at what the curriculum set out to do, and not at its actual impact on learners.

I acknowledge that by using a case study approach, it will be impossible either to generalise my results or to standardise my measurement or mode of analysis, although insights from this study may inform other studies. This study presents *one* account of *one* higher education curriculum and its ways of recruiting experience. Other curricula might recruit learner experience in very different ways, and other researchers might look at the issue with different means of analysis, different theoretical frameworks, and their own ways of interpreting empirical data. However, case studies are not insular. This study points to issues regarding the recruitment of learner experience that could be pertinent to other higher education contexts. Possibly, the language I have developed regarding 'different kinds of experiential knowledge', as well as the 'modes of recruiting experience' could present a possibility for enriching existing theory and be developed further for other studies. The relationship between theoretical knowledge transmitted in a formal curriculum and learners' already existing experiential knowledge is a complex one, as studies regarding the recognition of prior learning (RPL) and studies looking at school curricula have shown. Hopefully, the results of my analysis will inform other studies looking at adult education curricula and the application of experiential learning theory.

As in all qualitative research, the researcher is the primary instrument through which the data is analysed (Merriam and Simpson, 1995). My research is interpretive, the meaning I give to the phenomenon 'recruitment of experience' within the curriculum is subjective and my own. A lack of rigour in analysis and a potential bias of the researcher are seen as the main sources of error in the analysis of case studies (Mouton, 2001). This is a threat to the validity of the research, to the "extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers" (Hammersley in Silverman 2000: 175). I tried to avoid this by making very explicit how I categorised data, and therefore laying it open to public scrutiny. One of the main sources of invalidity, Maxwell (1996) claims, is inaccuracy or incompleteness of data. In order to increase the validity in this regard, I used *all* session outlines of the course, and all learning units which displayed the recruitment of any kind of experience, as opposed to concentrating on one of the modules of the course.

The conceptual grid and language I presented to depict different kinds of experiences and different ways of recruiting experience, could be seen as a second threat to the validity of the research. Silverman (2000) quotes Atkinson, who claims that the disadvantage of coding schemes is their powerful conceptual grid "from which it is difficult to escape" (2000: 147), and their neglect of activities that do not fit into already existing categories. However Breier (2003), who developed her language of description out of the thorough analysis of her data, sees this criticism as only applying to coding schemes "borrowed from other studies and then applied uncritically to a new context" (ibid). Similarly to Breier's research, my coding scheme was directly derived from the data – instances of experience recruitment which did not fit into an already developed category provided the basis for the development of a new category. In the presentation of my findings, I give examples of empirical data that were hard to assign to a particular category, stipulate which category I eventually assigned it to, and why. When allocating assignment tasks to the categories 'abstracting' and 'particularising', I present two cases where I was unable to allocate them to one category only. I presented and named these two cases as 'ambiguous'. By presenting considerations during my analysis in such detail, I hope to increase the validity of the research.

The reliability of an analysis refers to "the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions" (Silverman, 2000: 188). The reliability of the language I developed was tested when I presented my data to a person who was entirely unfamiliar with the case, and who allocated the empirical data to the same categories in almost all cases. In the cases where our coding and interpretation of data differed, it became apparent that I needed to revise the particular category, or develop a new category altogether, which I did immediately after. The new categories were re-tested subsequent to this process. Triangulation, the use of multiple methods, is often seen as improving the reliability of research, and clarifying meaning of the data (Merriam and Simpson, 1995). Silverman claims that contrary to many beliefs, multiple methods do not always make sense (Silverman, 2000) and that one should choose "simplicity and rigour rather than the often illusory search for the 'full picture'" (2000: 100). I used the interview to validate some parts of my analysis. As my analysis mainly concentrated on documentary sources, and the interview played a relatively minor role in the overall analysis, I still considered my analysis to be rigorous about specific issues, rather than aiming for the 'full picture', and therefore avoiding the 'dangers' of triangulation Silverman speaks about.

I have kept the identities of the course convenor, outside lecturers, students and the institution at which the course is offered anonymous. I promised to do so when gaining access to the documentary sources of the course, and particularly when gaining access to the students' assignments. I also felt that imparting information regarding the institution or identity of the course convenor would not contribute to the findings and analysis in a significant way.

In the next chapter, I will present the findings of my analysis, and the answers to my research question.

5 Analysis of data

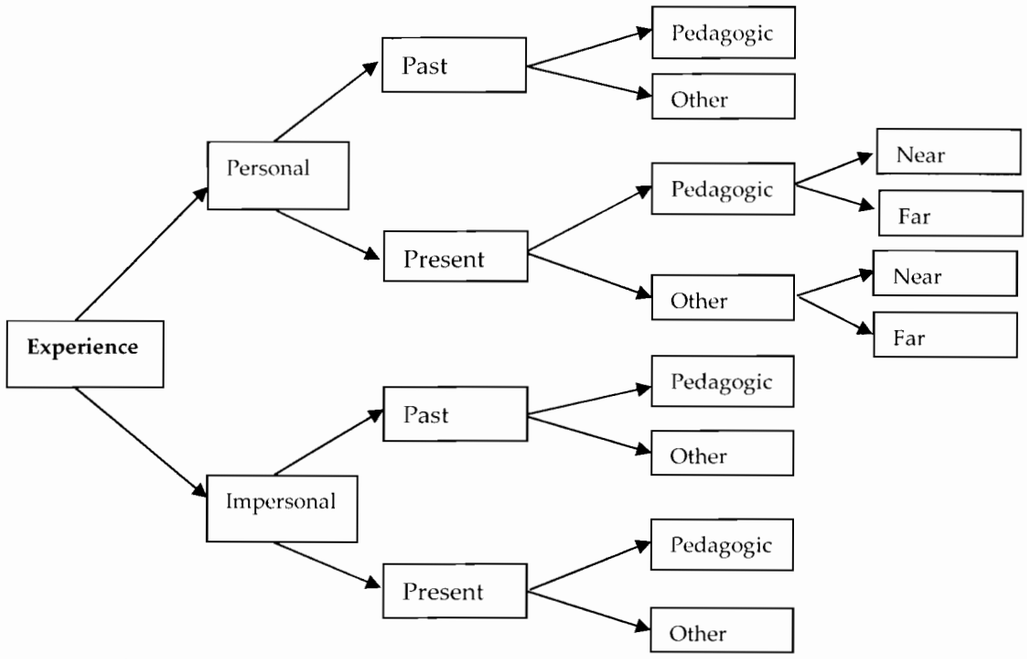
In this chapter, I present the findings of my research. The next three sections describe the analysis of the three aspects of my research question: what kinds of experiential knowledge are recruited (as set out in the curriculum), how are they recruited, and for what purpose. In section 5.1, I briefly review the grid I developed to depict different kinds of experience that were recruited within the curriculum and give further examples for each kind of experience. Furthermore, I give an account of the frequency of recruitment of each of these kinds of experiences, in the earlier specified 'learning units' as well as the assignment tasks of the course. In section 5.2, I summarise my analysis of the relationship between lecturer input and the recruitment of experience within the learning units, thus 'how' experience was recruited. I present my analysis of inductive and deductive modes of recruiting experience and stipulate the frequency of each mode of recruiting experience within the curriculum. In section 5.3, I describe the evaluative criteria of the course, analyse whether the assignment tasks of the course were particularising or abstracting, and answer the question regarding the purpose of recruiting experience on the course.

5.1 The kinds of experience recruited on the course

5.1.1 Experiences recruited during sessions

In section 3.1.2., I described the grid I developed to depict different kinds of experiences that were recruited within the curriculum. I differentiated between experiences that were personal and experiences that were impersonal. Further, experiences could be present or past experiences, and they could be regarding something pedagogic or not. Present pedagogic experience could be differentiated into experiences that were near and those that were far. Below is a representation of the grid I developed.

Figure 2: (same as p.39)



I have given examples of each category in section 3.1.2. The categories refer to the degree of separation from the learner in space and time, and whether they related to something pedagogic or not. I will give further examples of each kind of experience below.

A personal past pedagogic experience was recruited in the following learning unit:

11.15	*Personal learning story questionnaire – individually* - *complete learnings list (10″)* - *complete grid (15″)* - look at grid for patterns (5″) Now in 3/4s share what you have discovered
12.00	Plenary – what answers do we get to the question: "How do adults learn" (write up on notepad) (20″) Knowles assumptions

Extract from handwritten session outline, 9th May, Introduction to Adult Learning

Learners were required to fill in a questionnaire, asking them about the content of their learning in the past and ways in which this content was learned. The 'grid' that was referred to was a table in which learners were required to list their learning in the past. In order to do this exercise, they drew on their personal experience of learning in the past.

As mentioned in chapter 3, I did not identify the recruitment of 'personal past other' experience. The following example illustrated the recruitment of 'personal present pedagogic near' experience:

8.45	Brainstorm two lists:
	forms of presentations: lecture, overheads, slides…
	what skills are needed? … how do you get there? PRACTICE!
8.55	*Impromptu presentations*
	Each person has 5" to prepare a 2" presentation on an aspect of their work.
	Partner up – your job is to give your partner feedback after the presentations.
	- *what you liked*
	- *what you didn't like*
	- *how they could improve?*

Extract from handwritten session outline, 12th September, Design and Facilitation of Learning Events

In the example above, learners were required to practice presentations skills. The exercise itself was a 'near' experience, it was personal, and it was pedagogic, as the skills practiced referred to the facilitation of learning events.

The next example was the recruitment of a 'personal present pedagogic far' experience:

9.15 – 10.20	Reader p.36 – 'Methods and Methodologies'
	- methods: techniques – activities, teacher/ learner centred
	- methodologies: belief. *What is your methodology?*
	- *'Methods in your workplace'*

Extract from handwritten session outline, 29th August, Design and Facilitation of Learning Events

Here, learners were asked to recruit their experience of teaching methods in their workplace. The experience was therefore personal. It was 'present', as the question referred to the methods learners are experiencing at their workplace at that time. It was 'pedagogic', as it referred to a learning situation, but 'far', as it was not experienced directly in class.

Below is another example of 'personal present other near' experience:

Introduction to Programme Management

WHY IS PROGRAMME MANAGEMENT IMPORTANT?

If you don't know where you are going you will end up somewhere else.

WHAT IS IT? Give examples for projects that have to be managed – in the workplace and outside.

9.00 – 9.30 *Task 1: World Cup Bid*

In groups of 4, imagine what would go into project managing the World Cup Bid, up until their final presentation. Brainstorm ideas for 10 minutes and then try and group them into some kind of sequence, so that they follow a logical order from beginning to end as much as possible. Report back.

Extract from session outline, 28th May, Field Study

The exercise in the example above was a 'near' and 'present' experience, as it was undertaken during class. It was allocated to the category 'other', as it did not specifically refer to a learning situation, but to project management.

A 'personal present other far' experience was recruited in the following example of a learning unit:

10.00 Globalisation, Post-Fordism

presentation on Fordism and Post-Fordism

Groups discuss: what system is present in the […] industry at present?

Extract from handwritten course convenor notes, 23rd April, Fields and Sites of Adult Education

Learners were required to draw on their work experience in order to define whether their work had 'Fordist' or 'Post-Fordist' characteristics. The experience drawn on was 'present', not relating to a learning situation, thus 'other', and recruited from outside the classroom, thus 'far'.

An example of impersonal past pedagogic experience was the following:

2.00 *Introduce case studies of situated learning in communities of practice in workplaces – Vai/ Gola Tailors and Meatcutters*

Groups read one of the case studies and answer:

1. *how does this apprenticeship relate to your workplace training? What are the similarities and differences?*
2. *what are the lessons to be learned from this case study about effective training/ education practice?*

Feedback and discuss responses.

Extract from handwritten session outline, 5th March, Foundations of Adult Learning Theory

In the example above, the case studies represented the 'impersonal past pedagogic' experience that was drawn on. Partly, learners were also required to recruit personal experience of their workplace (see question 1).

An instance of 'impersonal past other' experience recruitment was demonstrated by the following notes, taken by the course convenor in a presentation by an outside lecturer:

Excerpt from Charlie Chaplin movie on production lines ('modern times')

Students to look for features of Fordism and Post-Fordism in movie

Discipline, no skilled artisans, monitoring, keeping time, reducing time wasted, attempts to increase productivity.

Extract from handwritten course convenor notes, 23rd April, Fields and Sites of Adult Education and Training

The experience drawn on in the instance above was a video, thus 'impersonal', and from the past. It did not refer to anything pedagogic, thus was allocated to the category 'other'.

Examples of the recruitment of impersonal present pedagogic experience were presentations of different learner groups who were reporting on their recent site visit to adult education and training companies. In the session outlines, only the names of the companies were listed. As mentioned in chapter three, no instance of recruiting 'impersonal present other' experience was identified.

In total, I recorded 66 learning units within all session outlines that depict instances of recruiting one kind of experience or another as part of the session. The following table represents the frequency with which each experience was recruited.

Table 2: The recruitment of personal and impersonal experience

Kinds of experience			**Frequency of use**	**Total personal/ impersonal**
Personal	Past	Pedagogic	6.1%	**83.3%**
		Other	0	
	Present	Pedagogic	48.5%	
		Other	28.8%	
Impersonal	Past	Pedagogic	7.6%	**16.7%**
		Other	4.5%	
	Present	Pedagogic	4.5%	
		Other	0	

In 55 of 66 learning units, that is 83.3%, 'personal experience' was recruited, and in 11 learning units, or 16.7% 'impersonal experience'. Within 'personal experience', 4 instances of 'personal past experience' were recruited, and no instances of 'personal past other experience'. Therefore, the recruitment of 'personal past experience' happened in 6.1% of all instances of experience recruitment. 'Personal present pedagogic' experience was recruited 32 times, that is in 48.5% of all cases. 'Personal present other' experience was recruited 19 times, or in 28.8% of all instances of experience recruitment. 'Impersonal past pedagogic' experience was recruited 5 times, that is in 7.6% of all cases, and 'impersonal past other' experience 3 times, or in 4.5% of instances of experience recruitment. 'Impersonal present pedagogic' experience was recruited 3 times, that is in 4.5% of all cases. No use of 'impersonal present other' experience was identified.

There was a clear dominance of the recruitment of 'personal experience' over the recruitment of 'impersonal experience'. Most experiences that were recruited were therefore close to the learner in terms of distance, and few experiences were more remote to learners (such as case studies, videos, or descriptions of experiences by outside persons). The following table represents the frequency of recruiting 'past experience' in relationship to recruiting 'present experience'.

Table 3: The relationship of past experience to present experience

Kinds of experience	**Past**	**Present**
Personal experience	6.1%	77.3%
Impersonal experience	12.1%	4.5%
TOTAL	**18.2%**	**81.8%**

In the analysis of the learning units, a clear dominance of the recruitment of 'present experience' became apparent. Within 'impersonal' experience, the recruitment of 'past experience' dominated over the recruitment of 'present experience'. This could be explained by the fact that 'impersonal experiences' were often depicted by case studies and videos, which related to something in the past, and less by outsiders giving an account of certain experiences, which on the course related to experiences of the present exclusively.

Table 4 below represents the frequency of the recruitment of 'pedagogic experience' in relationship to the recruitment of 'other experience'.

Table 4: The relationship of pedagogic experience to other experience

Kinds of experience	Pedagogic	Other
Personal experience	54.6%	28.8%
Impersonal experience	12.1%	4.5%
TOTAL	**66.7%**	**33.3%**

In both cases of 'personal experience' and 'impersonal experience', the recruitment of experiences that were 'pedagogic' clearly dominated over the recruitment of 'other' experiences. This could be explained with the fact that the contents of the Diploma in Adult Education referred mainly to education, thus to issues relating to pedagogic encounters.

The last 'move' within the grid I developed was the distinction between 'near' and 'far' experiences within 'personal present experiences', referring to experiences that learners have within the course itself, or experiences from outside the course. Table 5 depicts the frequency of the recruitment of 'personal present near' experience and 'personal present far' experience.

Table 5: The relationship of 'near' and 'far' within personal present experience

Kinds of experience	Near	Far
Personal Present Pedagogic	43.1%	19.7%
Personal Present Other	13.7%	23.5%
TOTAL	**56.8%**	**43.2%**

Within experiences that were pedagogic, the 'near' experiences dominated over the 'far' experiences, since 'near' experiences represented exercises within the course, as well as using the course as a basis for reflection on learning and teaching methods. Within 'other' experiences, the 'far' experience dominated. Yet, in total, the experiences recruited from the present were more frequently 'near' to the learner than 'far', and thus referred to the learners' immediate context.

As demonstrated above, the use of 'pedagogic' experience, whether present, past, personal or impersonal, clearly dominated over the use of 'other' experience. In all learning units, the recruitment of personal experience clearly dominated over the recruitment of impersonal experience. The recruitment of present experience dominated over past

experience, and the recruitment of 'near' present experience dominated over the recruitment of 'far' present experience. In determining what kinds of experiences are recruited within the sessions, thus answering the first part of my research question, I concluded that the experiences most frequently recruited during the sessions are learner experiences that are personal, present, pedagogic, and 'near'. The experiences recruited were therefore mostly *close* to learners in terms of time and space, and mostly related to pedagogic issues. The learners' professional identity as trainers was therefore foregrounded.

In the next section, I will describe the kind of experiences recruited in the assignment tasks of the course.

5.1.2 Experiences recruited in assignment tasks

Experience, whether impersonal or personal, was recruited in all assignments of this course. Learners had to show their understanding of what was learned in class – this happened in different ways, which will be explained further in the following section. In this section, I describe the kinds of experiences learners were asked to recruit in assignments tasks, allocating them to the same categories of 'kinds of experiences' developed above.

In four out of six modules of the course, learners were required to complete two assignments. An exception to this were the modules 'Design and Facilitation of Learning Events', where learners needed to complete four assignments, two individually and two within a group, and the module 'Field Study', where learners needed to submit three assignments. In total, the students completed eight assignments in their first year and seven assignments in their second year. The last module required learners to complete a research project, which was the longest assignment learners needed to complete.

In section 3.1.2, I have given two examples of personal and impersonal experience that were drawn on in sub-questions of assignment tasks. Below, I illustrate my 'categorizing' and analysis of one whole assignment. On the left is the original assignment task, on the right, the experience each task draws on.

Introduction to Adult Learning, Assignment 2:	Experience drawn on
This assignment requires you to describe and analyse your experiences of language and literacy practices. While it relates to the readings you have been doing on language and literacy, it is hoped that you will be able to reflect on your own experiences in a wide range of contexts. This assignment is divided into **three** sections and you need to complete **all three sections. Please read through the task carefully, making sure you understand what is required of you to complete this assignment.**	
Section A: Language Diary Over a period of **four days, write up a language diary** for yourself. You need to write it over two weekend days and two work days, to give a fuller reflection of your language interactions. The purpose of the diary is to provide a description of the languages and texts you come into contact with over this period (remember 'text' is a broad term and can refer to any written information or documentation; to films, television and radio; and to conversations, amongst others). Try to provide as much detail as possible about what the texts were, what language was used, who was involved in the interaction, and the context. It is more important that you focus on the kind of text and language used as well as anything interesting that emerged, rather than on the detail of the content (unless the content show up something interesting and relevant).	Draws on **'personal present other far experience'**, outside of classroom, yet personal, and not referring to a specific learning situation, thus 'other'
Section B: Analysis of diary **Choose three or four language interactions** which you found interesting or significant in your language diary (section A). **Analyse these interactions** with reference to some of the course readings and the class input and discussions. Use the following questions to guide your analysis: • What patterns, if any, emerge in your diary? E.g. is one language/ kind of text dominant in one area of your life and others in another? Is there evidence of "code-switching" in any areas of your life? What is the significance of this? • Did the particular incidents you have described make you feel empowered or disempowered to make a contribution or understand what is going on? Explain why you think this was so. • Did you feel included or excluded – in other words, was there compatibility or conflict between the discourses and/ or roles of which you were a part? • Why are these particular interactions or experiences significant or important for you?	Draws on **'personal present other far experience'**, same as above.
Section C: Implications for education and training From what you have written above (section B), what are the language and literacy implications for both yourself as a learner, and for your own learners? The following questions might be helpful in assisting you to structure your answer: • How does the issue of language impact on you as a learner – both here at UCT as well as in other learning contexts? • What are some of the strategies that you could adopt to overcome any barriers you might experience because of language, in your own learning? • What do you think are some of the main issues facing you as a trainer in terms of language use in your own work context?	First two questions draw on **'personal present pedagogic near experience'**, as learners are required to think about the impact of language issues on themselves as learners in the classroom at this point in time. Third question draws on **'personal present pedagogic far experience'**, it refers to the learners workplace, and a present (and even future) pedagogic situation.

In the following two tables, I list all twelve assignments and the kinds of experiences they drew on. As demonstrated above, an assignment could draw on several kinds of experience, as it usually consisted of at least three different questions. The numbers indicate how many sub-questions of the assignment draw on the particular experience. For example, in the assignment quoted above, I would say: 2x 'personal present other far experience', 1x 'personal present pedagogic near experience', and 1x 'personal present pedagogic far experience'.

Table 6: Experiences drawn on in assignment tasks in year 1

ASSIGNMENTS YEAR 1	**Experience recruited**
Introduction to Adult Learning, Assignment 1	2x Personal past pedagogic 1x Personal present pedagogic near
Introduction to Adult Learning, Assignment2	2x Personal present other far 1x Personal present pedagogic near 1x Personal present pedagogic far
Organisation Development, Assignment1	2x Personal present other far 1x Personal present pedagogic near
Organisation Development, Assignment2	4x Personal present other far 1x Personal present pedagogic near
Design and Facilitation of Learning Events, Assignment 1	1x Personal present pedagogic near
Design and Facilitation of Learning Events, Assignment 2	1x Personal present pedagogic near
Design and Facilitation of Learning Events, Assignment 3	1x Personal present pedagogic near
Design and Facilitation of Learning Events, Assignment 4	1x Personal present pedagogic near

Table 7: Experiences drawn on in assignment tasks in year 2

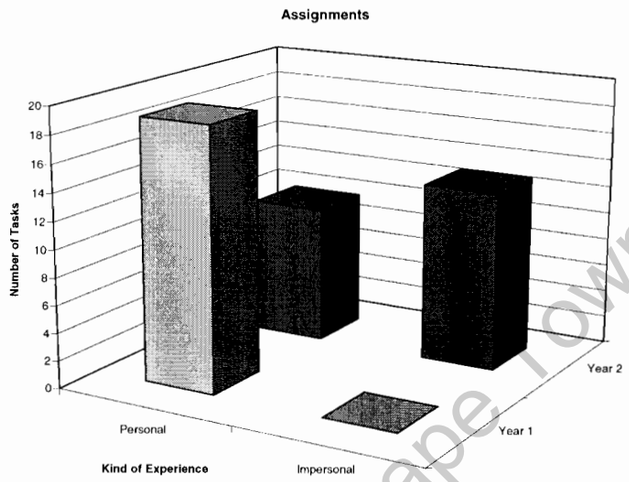
ASSIGNMENTS YEAR 2	Experience recruited
Foundations of Adult Learning Theory, Assignment1	1x Impersonal present other 2x Impersonal present pedagogic 1x Personal present pedagogic far
Foundations of Adult Learning Theory, Assignment 2	2x Impersonal present pedagogic 1x Impersonal past pedagogic 2x Personal present pedagogic near/ far 1x Personal past pedagogic
Fields and Sites of Education, Training and Development Practice, Assignment 1	3x Impersonal present pedagogic 3x Personal present pedagogic far
Fields and Sites of Education, Training and Development Practice, Assignment 2	1x Personal present pedagogic far
Field Study research proposal	1x Impersonal present pedagogic 1x Impersonal present other
Field Study research report	1x Impersonal present pedagogic 1x Impersonal present other
Field Study critical reflection	2x Personal present pedagogic near

The recruitment of 'personal present pedagogic near' was represented by two different kinds of tasks. If it was recruited at the end of the assignment, as in the first four assignments of the course, as well as the last assignment of the last module (Field Study critical reflection), it meant that learners had to reflect on the actual experience of doing the assignment, and comment on what they learned through the process. However, it did not exclude the recruitment of another kind of experience in the task before.

If 'personal present pedagogic near' experience was the sole experience that was recruited, as in all four modules of the 'Design and Facilitation' module, it meant that the whole assignment drew on 'pedagogic near experience' and therefore 'was the experience itself'. Being a practical assignment, learners were not required to relate anything they learned in class to an experience outside of class or vice versa. The experience of the assignment was the basis as well as the proof of learning.

As became obvious in the analysis, learners were generally more often required to relate what was learned in class to something personally experienced, something close to them in time and space, rather than to an experience that was more remote in time and space. Yet what was interesting was the move from the *exclusive* recruitment of personal experience in year one to the recruitment of more impersonal experience in year two. The graph below illustrates the difference between the kinds of experience recruited in the assignments of the first and second year.

Graph 1: Experience recruited in assignments of both years



In the second year, learners were asked to stand more remote and detached from the experience they recruited for the assignment. The 'impersonal' experience drawn on was the experience of a site of practice other than the learners' own site. There was only one reflection on the actual process of doing the assignment, in this case the final field study report. In all other assignments, learners were required to reflect on their site visit, and identify differences between the site visited and their own companies. This indicated a move from a very self-reflective position to a position where something other than one's own experience was analysed by the learners.

5.1.3 Summary of different kinds of experiences recruited

In the above sections, I identified the recruitment of different kinds of experience as obvious in the session outlines, and concluded that the experience that was recruited the most was the personal, present, pedagogic and 'near' experience, thus experience that was close to learners in space and time, and experience that related to a learning situation. I identified the recruitment of different kinds of experience in the assignment tasks, and pointed out that in the first year 'personal experience' was used exclusively, whereas in the second year assignments the 'impersonal', more detached experience was dominant. The kinds of experience that were recruited in the sessions and the assignment tasks indicate that context-bound, horizontal knowledge was largely validated in the curriculum. This was confirmed by the course convenor, who described the overall purpose of the course as being

> people bringing their experience of adult education and training and then building on it in order to improve their practice... and to build themselves as practitioners as well as individuals (interview).

The move from personal to more impersonal experiences within the assignment tasks indicated a move from a 'near' to a more remote experience. Both kinds of experiences were still horizontal knowledge and context-specific, however, learners could be more 'detached' from the impersonal experience. Dealing with 'impersonal' experience could be argued to be a first step towards an analytic detachment, which is usually present within a vertical discourse. The facilitation of access to a macro-perspective of a certain situation is made easier for the learner.

Bernstein describes horizontal discourse as characterised by everyday, common sense knowledge, which is local, segmental, context dependent and tacit. Competence modes are often characterised by horizontal knowledge, and by a weak boundary between learners' experiences and vertical knowledge transmitted in the classroom. Kolb claims that a learning process will be facilitated if an education process brings out learners' beliefs and theories, examines and tests them, and integrates new and more refined ideas into the person's belief system (in Thorpe, 1993). He states that "the wider 'real-world' environment at times seems to be actively rejected by educational systems at all levels" (ibid: 150) and sees the recruitment and use of learners' experience not only as an alternative to traditional educational methods that are mainly based on rational epistemology (ibid), but as the central aspect and basis for new learning. The findings described above, which answer the first part of my research question – 'what kinds of experiential knowledge are recruited in the

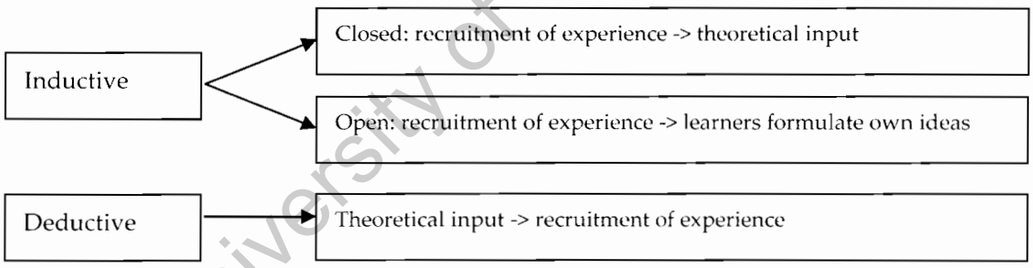
curriculum' – seemed to be indicators of what Bernstein defined as a competence mode which takes the 'everyday examples' into account. It points towards a learning process that draws on learners' experiences, which is what Kolb suggested.

However, in order to make valid claims regarding the recruitment of experience on the course, I needed to look at it from several angles. I needed to look at the results of this first part of my analysis – that is, *what* experience was recruited – alongside the results of *how* these different kinds of experiences were used. The second part of my analysis, which dealt with the process of recruiting experience, is described below.

5.2 *The process of recruiting experience during sessions*

Up until now I have defined the kinds of experience that are recruited in the Diploma course, but have not elaborated on the process of recruiting experience. In order to answer the question of 'how' experience is recruited, I analysed the sequencing of the activities in class, and looked at whether the use of experience preceded the theoretical or conceptual input by the lecturer, thus was recruited inductively, or whether it followed lecturer input, and was recruited deductively. For this part of the analysis, the 66 learning units of the session outlines once again provided the data. As described in chapter three, I differentiated between two broad ways of recruiting experience, the inductive and the deductive mode:

Figure 3: Inductive and deductive ways of recruiting experience (same as p.42)



Within the inductive mode, I differentiated between the recruitment of experience being followed by lecturer input, and the recruitment experience happening without further input by the lecturer. In the next sections, I will describe my findings regarding these different modes of pedagogy.

5.2.1 The inductive mode of recruiting experience

One way of recruiting experience on the course was for the lecturer to ask learners about their experience regarding a certain topic, or to let them do an exercise providing them with an experience of the content that would be covered next. The recruitment of experience was the start of the learning unit, and followed by lecturer input. As described in section 3.1.3, I have named this the 'closed inductive mode'. Depending on the topic, the experience drawn on could either be a 'personal past experience', or a 'personal present experience', and could be an experience depicting a pedagogic encounter or not. No 'impersonal experience' was recruited when recruiting experience in the closed inductive mode. Below is an example of a 'closed inductive mode':

10.15	Introduction to Organisation Development Module (15")	
10.30	Draw/ represent your own organisation (indiv.) (15") How would you represent it?	Learners are asked to draw on 'personal present other far experience', the structure of their workplace
10.45	In 4's share and discuss	
11.15	Plenary – show on transparency (20") – questions/ discussions (20")	
12.00	Groups and group dynamics - SGFC model - Decision making - Gibb's Diagram	Input by lecturer on structures of groups, group dynamics, decision-making within groups

Extract from handwritten session outline, 20th June, Organisation Development

The recruitment of experience was followed by lecturer input, which provided 'closure' to the organisational structures discussed before, and a framework with which to represent group dynamics and organisational structures.

I identified 8 out of 66 learning units that displayed the sequence of the recruitment experience being followed by lecturer input.

The 'open inductive mode', a variation of an inductive mode, focused more on learners' reflection on experience, as the experience was the key resource for discussion and learning in class, and other than the general facilitation of the discussion, no input by the lecturer was added. An example of an 'open inductive mode' was the following:

1.30	Reading about different perspectives on education: Christie text: how did students find the text? What strategies did they use to help them read it?	Learners recruit their personal present pedagogic near experience of reading texts for the course, then formulate their own reading strategies, without further input by the lecturer.
	Groups share responses to handout questions, feedback to plenary discussion. Clarify 'consensus' and 'conflict' perspectives.	This was part of the same learning unit, however, represents a different activity. No lecturer input on the 'reading strategies' above is planned.

Extract from typed session outline, 13th February, Foundations of Adult Learning Theory

Learners were asked to recruit their experience, reflect on it and formulate general principles that could be applied to situations in the future. The example given above and the example given in section 3.1.3 were clear cases of an 'open inductive mode': learners recruited an experience, reflected on it and formulated conclusions without further input by the lecturer. Below, I quote a session outline in which the mode of recruiting experience was not as clear (again, the original session outline is on the right, my comments on the left).

8.45	Buzz about kinds of methods students have experienced in workshops. Write ideas on flashcards, and stick up on wall under three headings: learner-centred methods; teacher-centred methods; outside methods. Discuss 'methods' mind-map on O/H	Recruitment of personal past pedagogic experience or personal present pedagogic experience This could be seen as lecturer input, as learners might not be aware of the expressions 'learner-centred' and 'teacher-centred', but they are self-explanatory and a 'small input', thus I concluded it was more a 'guidance' or facilitation on part of the lecturer, not substantive input.
9.15	Groups discuss one of these methods which they experienced as effective, and one which was not effective, and why these were so. Feedback and discuss in plenary. Link 'effectiveness' with a) achievement of learning outcomes (what was the purpose of the method?) and b) good/ powerful/ memorable learning experience	Discussion and reflection on personal experience, formulating general concepts out of it regarding effectiveness and ineffectiveness. Again, this could be seen as input, yet the facilitator does not provide any kind of summary at the end of the discussion. There is no pre-determined answer.
9.45	refer back to last week's session outline, to compare outcomes/ methods/ activities	Again recruitment of experience, in this case the recent experience of what was presented and dealt with the week before.
10.00	TEA	
10.30	Group tasks: 4 groups do the same task in different ways, with different sets of instructions. Groups present feedback on their tasks; then reflect on and compare the processes. What helped/ hindered them? Which was the most effective group process and why?	This is a personal present pedagogic experience, created in class for students to experience different instructions for tasks. The experience of the exercise is the basis for further discussion in class regarding group processes. No further input by the lecturer is indicated in the session outline.

Extract from typed session outline, 22nd August, Design and Facilitation of Learning Events

This example was a learning unit that I could not easily allocate to the category 'closed' or 'open' inductive. My comments in the right column explain why I did eventually characterise the learning unit as recruiting experience in an 'open inductive' way. The lecturer guided the process, yet did not provide as explicit input as in learning units where the inductive mode is 'closed'.

I identified 9 out of 66 learning units which displayed an 'open inductive mode', opposed to 8 instances of a 'closed inductive mode'. The 'closed inductive mode' involved an 'imposition' by the transmitter. The recruitment of experience was 'guided', learners were not completely free to draw their own conclusions regarding the experience, as the lecturer/ transmitter had the 'last word' regarding the experience, and the ways in which it could be viewed. Closure was provided in that the theory, which followed the recruitment of experience, *organised* the experience in a certain way. Through lecturer input, key issues were extracted from the experience, in order to work them into an abstract framework. The input organised what was to count and to be learned in the particular learning unit. In an 'open inductive mode', this closure did not exist, and there was a greater range of meanings and understandings to attach to the experience. The result of the learning unit was much more open-ended. This will be commented on again in the final discussion of my data.

In the following section, I will describe another sequence I identified within the session outlines.

5.2.2 The deductive mode of recruiting experience

Another way of recruiting experience on the course displayed a sequence opposite to the inductive mode – here the recruitment of experience followed input by the lecturer. As explained in section 3.1.3, I named it the 'deductive mode'. Theoretical input by the lecturer preceded the recruitment of experience. An example of the deductive mode of recruiting experience was the following:

[outside lecturer presenting information on the Skills Development Act]	Lecturer input on the Skills Development Act.
Do students feel these purposes of the Skills Development Act are realised in the workplace? Aims were for integrated, quality assured system.	Learners are asked to recruit their experience of their workplace with regards to the content of lecturer input before.

Extract from handwritten course convenor notes, 16th April, Fields and Sites of Adult Education and Training

The example above was a clear example of a deductive mode. Below, I illustrate an example that illustrated a less clear sequence, yet was in the end still allocated to the category 'deductive'.

11.30	RPL: (part of EL – 4 villages – reminder – Overhead projector)	Short input by lecturer
	What is RPL? Brainstorm in class. Different names (Overhead) and Definition (Overhead)	Recruit ideas from students, drawing on personal experience
	RPL reader p.2, section 1. Read and comment on use of words	Input in form of text
	Purposes of RPL (Overhead) – in 3's discuss and pick ones relevant for the CTFL sector	Input as well as relating it to personal present other experience (of CTFL sector)
	Benefits from RPL (various Overheads) – do they apply in your context?	Input as well as relating it to own context – draws on personal-present-other experience
	Comments on FET & RPL (see Photostats), Knowledge Mode 1+2 -> Janice	Input
	Assessment methods (Overhead) – which are used in your sector? Add any others?	Input as well as relating it to personal-present-pedagogic experience and adding onto it

Extract from lecturer notes, 2nd April, Foundations of Adult Learning Theory

Above, there was no clear-cut sequence between the use of experience and theoretical input, these were mostly intertwined, going from input to experience back to input and back to experience. I did however allocate this example to the category 'deductive', thus as experience recruitment coming *after* the theory. The intertwining of the use of experience and input by the lecturer was mostly instigated by the latter – in the above case, mostly by going through some facts on an overhead projector slide, immediately relating it to experience, introducing another concept, relating it to one's own experience etc. Even though it might have been quick input and immediately followed by recruiting experience, the input still preceded the experience.

I identified 49 learning units out of 66 in the session outlines where the recruitment of experience followed lecturer input, thus was used deductively, as opposed to 16 learning units where the recruitment of experience was inductive. If theoretical input was the start of a learning unit, the input cast a light on the experience, framed it and drew out its salience in a stronger way than the 'closed inductive mode'. In the next section, I summarise the findings of this part of the analysis, and discuss them in relationship to Bernstein's concepts of classification and framing.

5.2.3 Interpreting the two modes of recruiting experience

In the preceding sections, I identified two broad modes of recruiting experience during the sessions. Experience was either recruited inductively, as introduction to theory, or deductively, as following lecturer input. A variation of the inductive mode was the 'open inductive' mode, where experience was used as the key resource for learning, without further theory or conceptual input. My analysis showed that the deductive mode was clearly dominant in the curriculum of the Diploma. In 49 out of 66 instances, the recruitment of experience followed input by the lecturer. Below, I show the frequency of each mode of recruiting experience in percentages.

Table 8: The frequency of the different modes of recruiting experience

Kinds of experience	**Open Inductive Mode**	**Closed Inductive Mode**	**Deductive Mode**	**Total**
Personal	13.6%	12.2%	57.5%	83.3%
Impersonal	-	-	16.7%	16.7%
Total	**13.6%**	**12.2%**	**74.2%**	**100%**

By far the most frequent way of recruiting experience during the sessions was deductive. Experience 'entered' the learning situation after theoretical or conceptual input by the lecturer. A new concept or theory was introduced and subsequently related to the learners' own experience, in order to see how the theory applied in a particular context. Impersonal experience, thus experience that was more detached from the learner, was never recruited in an inductive mode.

In the brochure of the Diploma, the commitment to incorporating learners' experience into the classroom was indicated in the description of the Diploma's contents:

> We value the knowledge gained from experience that participants bring to the course, and we use this as the *starting point* to develop further knowledge and skills in the following areas: […] (Adult Learning Group, n.d., emphasis added).

'Building onto' knowledge gained from experience was stressed. Experience was seen here as the start of learning, as the basis for the development of further knowledge. Yet as this part of the analysis has shown, learner experience on the course was mostly *not* recruited inductively, that is as the start to develop further knowledge in classroom pedagogy. It was mostly recruited after lecturer input. During the interview, the convenor confirmed this

sequence when saying "we do refer back to their experience in the workplace and in their previous learning, we get them to reflect back on that a lot" (ibid), and describing a typical learning situation –

> generally what we would do would be to introduce a theory or an idea and then get them to think of instances from their experience that would explain that or illustrate that. So that they can understand it in terms of their own experience (ibid).

The use of experience was seen as an aid to "locate their theory better, to make it more meaningful" (interview).

Looking at the learning units which displayed the processes of recruiting experience, and relating them to Bernstein's concept of 'classification', I concluded the following: The learning units in all modes of recruiting experience, whether inductive or deductive, displayed a weak boundary between everyday knowledge, experiential knowledge and theory. Insofar as theory was introduced, classification was strengthened, whereas the introduction of instances from everyday experience weakened the classification. Whether the recruitment of experience preceded or followed lecturer input, 'experiential knowledge', that is knowledge gained through the everyday, was constantly related to 'abstract concepts' or theories transmitted on the course, and vice versa. Overall, the learning units were therefore relatively weakly classified. It has been argued that a 'weak boundary' between the everyday and academic knowledge does not specialise the 'academic voice' of the learner. However, this was not a focus of my thesis. The focus of the second part of my research question was on the process of recruiting experience, thus on the pedagogy of the course.

Even though my data was limited to the written, 'planned' session outlines of the course, and not the 'pedagogy in action', I was able to draw conclusions regarding the course's framing rules on the basis of the different processes of recruiting experience. As described in chapter three, Bernstein's concept of 'framing' refers to the degree of control the learners and transmitters have over the selection, sequence, pace and evaluation criteria of the content to be transmitted. The learning units analysed in the previous sections displayed strong framing over the sequence and pace of the content to be transmitted. The session outlines as quoted above all display a careful planning of the sequence of each activity, over "what comes first, and what comes second" (Bernstein, 1996). They also display a strong control of the transmitter over the rate of expected acquisition (ibid), as the time frames for each activity are stipulated and set. This indicates strong framing over pacing as set out in the

written curriculum[8]. However, this was not the focus of my analysis, I concentrated particularly on the framing over selection, sequencing and evaluative criteria.

The framing over selection of the content to be transmitted varied in the different modes of recruiting experience. The 'open inductive mode' left the most space for any kind of experience to be recruited and interpreted, and to be the resource for learning. The framing over selection was relatively weak, as learners were 'free' to choose the experience recruited, and to formulate generalisations on the basis of this experience. This way of recruiting experience on the course, with weak framing over selection, was the one closest to the model Kolb developed, where the key resource for learning is learner experience, followed by learners' reflection on this experience and the formulation of abstract concepts. Kolb's model does not explicitly refer to the 'intervention' or 'imposition' of a transmitter, learners are relatively free to 'steer' their learning. In the learning units that I termed 'open inductive', the situation was similar.

The framing over selection of the content to be transmitted in the 'closed inductive mode' was stronger than in the 'open inductive mode', as the lecturer provided input regarding the interpretation of the experience, 'guided' the learner towards ways in which the experience was to be interpreted. The lecturer had more control over what was 'made of' the experience recruited, and therefore the learning content that was transmitted.

The deductive mode of recruiting experience, which was the most frequent way of recruiting experience on the course, had the strongest framing over the selection of content of all modes of recruiting experience. Here, lecturer input preceded the recruitment of experience. This narrowed the selection of experiences that learners were able to recruit. Because theoretical input was at the start of the learning unit, it 'shaped' the experience that learners were able to recruit. The selection of what counted as legitimate experience that could be drawn on was 'steered' from the start.

The fact that very different kinds of experiences were recruited on the course pointed towards an experiential learning model such as Kolb suggests. Kolb's model of experiential learning, as described above, displays a typical competence model of pedagogy, where learner experiences are used as the key resource and basis for learning. However, looking at the processes of recruiting experience on the course, it became evident that the different ways of recruiting experience all displayed relatively strong framing over the sequencing and

[8] In practice, the 'timing' of activities might have been adapted according to learners' pace; however, the 'planned' session outlines indicated that there was a certain pace that was expected by the transmitter

pacing of the course's content. The deductive mode, which was the most frequently used process of recruiting experience, had strong framing over the selection of experience on the course. The strong framing over sequencing and pacing on the course, and particularly over the selection of content to be transmitted, indicated a limited range of options for the learner, and a great degree of control on the side of the lecturer. These are characteristics of a performance model of pedagogy.

I will return to this argument in the final discussion of my findings. Before I draw conclusions regarding the recruitment of experience on the course, I will describe the third part of my analysis, which addressed the *purpose* of recruiting experience on the course. In order to define the purpose of recruiting experience on the course, I turned to the assignment tasks learners needed to complete on the course. The findings of this part of the analysis will be described in the next section.

5.3 The purpose of using experience in assignments

In this section, I describe the content of the evaluative criteria of the Diploma in more detail, as they indicated what was valorised on the course, and assisted me in determining the purpose of recruiting experience. I analysed three aspects of the evaluation on the course: first, the marking criteria that were given to learners at the same time as the assignments and stipulated which skills learners needed to demonstrate. Secondly, I allocated the assignment tasks to the categories 'abstracting' and 'particularising', as described in section 3.2.3. Thirdly, I analysed the written lecturer comments on learner assignments and used them to draw up a typology of an 'ideal assignment'. In the following sections, I summarise the results of my analysis in this order.

5.3.1 The marking criteria

Students on the course were formally assessed for each module of the Diploma. For 10 out of 14 assignments, learners were given a sheet listing the 'marking criteria' of the assignment, stipulating different criteria that needed to be fulfilled in order to pass the assignment. Each criterion had a weighting of a certain percentage, indicating how strongly the criterion was valued in comparison to others. An example of marking criteria were the following criteria for the first assignment:

Introduction to Adult Learning, Assignment 1:

In marking this assignment, we considered the following criteria:

	Out of	Your mark
Understanding of new concepts introduced on the course	30%	
Ability to apply these concepts in order to reflect critically on your own learning experience	40%	
Ability to reflect on your learning in doing this assignment	10%	
Ability to express your own opinion	10%	
Ability to write in an organised, logical way	10%	
Total	100%	

Each marking criterion of each assignment related to one of four categories: 'demonstrating an understanding of abstract concepts', 'demonstrating academic skill', 'demonstrating an ability to apply abstract concepts to an experience', and 'demonstrating an understanding of experience'. I allocated all criteria to these categories, and added up the percentages of each category. For the marking criteria quoted above, this meant that 'demonstrating an understanding of abstract concepts' counted 30% (marking criterion 1), 'demonstrating an understanding of an experience' counted 10% (marking criterion 3), 'demonstrating the ability to apply abstract concepts to an experience' counted 40% (marking criterion 2), and 'demonstrating academic ability' counted 20% (marking criteria 4 and 5). However, not every assignment stipulated the marking criteria in percentages, or stipulated marking criteria at all. Additionally, not every assignment counted equally towards the overall course mark. The analysis of an exact weighting of skills in the assignments was therefore impossible, but I used the marking criteria I had in order to describe 'general tendencies' of what was valued the most[9].

The criteria that seemed to be valued most were the 'ability to apply abstract concepts to an experience', and 'demonstrating an understanding of an experience'. The high percentages that were given for these two criteria pointed to a tendency towards the particular, towards using theory in order to understand experience better, thus indicated that the purpose of recruiting a particular experience would be to gain a better understanding of the experience. In order to verify or refute this tendency, I analysed each assignment task, and stipulated whether it was particularising or abstracting, as described in section 3.2.3. This analysis will be described in the next section.

[9] An attempt to add up percentages regarding the marking criteria will follow in the next section.

5.3.2 Particularising and abstracting assignments

All assignments learners were asked to complete undoubtedly incorporated elements of the general, the abstract, as well as the particular and concrete. However, there was a distinction between assignments that used experience in order to get a better grasp of theory (here the majority of the tasks would be abstracting), and assignments that used theories and concepts learned in class in order to improve one's practice or gain a more thorough understanding of one's experience (here the trajectory would be particularising). The former consisted of tasks that predominantly moved from experience to theory, and showed that a deep understanding was valorised. The latter consisted of tasks that predominantly moved from theory to experience, therefore valorised the application of theory, and a deeper understanding of one's experience. By focussing on this movement within the assignment tasks, I was able to draw conclusions regarding their purpose of recruiting experience.

In section 3.2.3, I have given examples of an abstracting task and a particularising task. There was only one assignment I termed 'abstracting' as a whole, as moving from experience to theory, and not vice versa. In order to define whether an assignment as a whole was abstracting or particularising, I analysed each assignment task of every assignment, allocated it to the categories 'abstracting' or 'particularising', and looked at which kind of tasks were dominant in each assignment. The assignment that I interpreted as ultimately 'abstracting', as well as my comments on its different tasks, are represented below (the original assignment is quoted on the left, my comments on the right).

Introduction to Adult Learning, Assignment 1: Learning Histories This assignment asks you to show your understanding of some of the topics we have discussed and read about in class, as well as to reflect on your own experiences of learning. In order to answer the assignment question, you need to complete <u>all three sections</u> (A, B &C) of the assignment task.	
Section A: Explain, in your own words, what you understand to be the meaning of the following three statements: 1. "Experience is not the same as learning." 2. "With adult learners, you can use their experience as a resource for learning." 3. "The experiences of adult learners can also act as a barrier to learning. You might find some of the readings on "experiential learning" or Tony Morphet's article helpful in answering these questions. However we would like to hear <u>your opinion</u> on these issues.	In this first part, learners needed to show their understanding of the general principle of experiential learning -- their explanation should transcend the concrete, and include statements of general concepts and their explanation.
Section B: Provide some examples from your own life to show how past experiences you have had have acted as both a resource and a barrier to your learning. In order to answer this question you need to draw or represent in some creative way, your own personal learning history in which you outline or highlight some of the most significant learning experiences you have had in your life. These could include formal, non-formal or informal events. Once you have done this, use your learning history to answer the following questions; a. Which of these experiences have helped you to learn something new? Please explain how this happened. b. Which of these experiences have acted as a block or barrier to your efforts to learn(ing) something new? Please explain how. Try to consider the skills, understandings, attitudes, feelings, values or behaviours that you have developed through these experiences and which might or might (may or may not) not have helped you in your learning. Please include your learning history representation with your assignment when you hand it in.	This part looked 'particularising' at first sight, as learners were required to draw on their experience, and display an understanding of this experience by applying theory. However, it also required learners to show an understanding of abstract concepts – in this case, 'resources and barriers to learning'. Experience was used illustratively of the concept learned in class. It was an 'aid' to illustrate understanding, but not the focus of the inquiry.
Section C: Critically reflect on your process of completing this assignment task. This could include: a. How long it took b. Whom you spoke to about the questions c. How you set about doing it (ie. the steps you followed) d. Any particular difficulties you encountered e. How many times you wrote and rewrote it f. What you have learnt from writing it	This part was clearly particularising, learners had to concentrate on a particular instance, and recruit 'informal' knowledge.

Both the first and second part of this assignment were ultimately abstracting, and focussed on the explanation of general concepts.

An example of a particularising assignment was the following:

Organisation Development, Assignment 1 […] This assignment requires you to critically reflect on and analyse your own experiences of being a member of a group. Think of a group of which you are a member – preferably at work or in the community. If you are choosing a group at the workplace or within your organisation, focus on a project team, department or section, rather than the organisation itself. In order to complete the assignment please answer the following questions:	
1. Describe this group in terms of Gibbs' theory of trust formation in groups. You would need to discuss the following concerns raised by his theory: • Acceptance: who am I in this group? • Information-flow: who else is here? • Goal formation: where are we going? • Control: how are we going to get there (achieve our goals)?	This task required learners to apply a theory learned to a particular context. It went from theory to experience, thus was a particularising task.
2. Drawing on your answers above, as well as from the reading 'Groups in Social Context' or any of the other sessions or readings of this module, complete a 'micro-macro' analysis (Lazarus 1989) of this group, reflecting on your experiences and understanding. Some of the issues you can address in your analysis could include: • Whether you feel part of the group or not (feelings of inclusion/ exclusion), the reasons for this, and what strategies could you or the group take to change this; • Whether you feel the group will reach its goals or not i.e. are the goals you outlined above in question 1 realistic? Please provide details to support your answer. • Where does power lie in this group and how is it exercised? • What issues relating to identity, culture, race, and/ or gender might impact on the functioning of the group? How do you think these could be addressed?	The aim for the learner in this task was to understand his or her own role within a group, and the dynamics of this particular group. The 'theory' of group dynamics was backgrounded, the group itself was the focus of attention. I could call the task a 'theorised reflection' on experience – with the main trajectory being the understanding of the experience. An understanding of the theory is required as basis for this, but is not the ultimate aim.
3. Critically reflect on your process of completing this assignment. In this section, please discuss in detail how you went about doing the assignment, any difficulties you experienced, what you learnt from doing it or any other insights that you had in the process.	The last part is again particularising, concentrating on the learners' personal experience and interpretation of it.

Compared to an abstracting task, where learners were asked to "provide some examples" from their life to show how they illustrate the general concept, "how past experiences you have had have acted as both a resource and a barrier to your learning", thus to go *from* experience *to* theory, the particularising task above asked learners to "describe this group", thus their experience, "in terms of Gibbs' theory of trust formation". Learners were required

to relate a theory learned in class to a particular experience, in order to illuminate and gain a greater understanding of their experience.

In the case of two assignments, particularising and abstracting tasks were equally dominant, thus the purpose of the assignment was ambiguous. One of them was the second assignment of the 'Organisation Development' module:

Organisation Development, Assignment 2 […] This assignment requires you to analyse the culture/s of your organization drawing on Charles Handy's models of different organizational cultures. In order to complete the assignment, please answer **all** of the following six sections:	
1. Select one of the readings by Charles Handy. Read through it and present a summary in your own words of the 4 main organisational cultures. (Please indicate which of the readings you have used at the end of the assignment)	This task was abstracting, learners needed to summarise a theory covered in class.
2. Describe your own organization. In your description, include the name of the organization, its mission and vision, the kind of work it does, how long it has been established, how many people work there, as well as any other features.	This task was clearly particularising and foregrounds the contextual.
3. Which type of organizational culture, or what mixture of organizational culture/s do you see evidence of in your organization? If there is a mixture, in which parts of the organization are the different cultures found? Please explain your answer and provide examples to support this. 4. Do you think this organizational culture (or mix of cultures) is the best or most appropriate (suitable) for the organization, given the organisational mission and vision, and the kind of work it does? Provide reasons for your answer. 5. What kind of organisational culture would best serve your organization in the future? Why do you think so? Please give reasons (with example where relevant) to support your answer.	Tasks 3, 4 and 5 were tasks that required learners to show an understanding of the theory learned in class, as well as an ability to interpret their own organisation in the light of this theory. Both the use of experience of their organisation to illuminate theory, and the use of theory to illuminate their experience were present.
6. What new insights, if any, have you gained about your organisation through doing the readings and this assignment? Please provide some detail of this.	This task was once again particularising, the focus was on the application of theory, and the particular experience of writing the assignment.

In the case above, I was unable to conclude that the assignment had one dominant trajectory, it seemed that both purposes of recruiting experience were at work here: the recruitment of experience in order to illuminate theory, as well as the use of theory to gain a greater understanding of a particular context. It was therefore one of two 'ambiguous cases'.

Table 9 below illustrates the frequency of abstracting assignments in relation to particularising assignments, as well as ambiguous cases.

Table 9: The 'trajectory' of assignments in numbers

	Abstracting	Particularising	Ambiguous
Assignments	1	12	2

Almost all assignments required learners to use theory and to apply it to their experience, thus displayed a particularising trajectory. Within particularising tasks, there was a distinction between the tasks that required learners to apply theories to their professional practice, and tasks which required learners to reflect on the process of doing the assignment. The former focussed on learners as professionals, and theory enhanced the understanding of their practice. The latter displayed a more therapeutic and self-reflective activity, and learners did not have to draw on theory to complete the task. This distinction was also referred to in section 5.1.2, where I distinguished between different experiences drawn on in assignment tasks. I stated that at the end of some assignment tasks, the experience drawn on was 'personal present pedagogic near', thus the experience of the course itself and of completing the assignment particularly.

In the table below, I will present a summary of my analysis of the assignment tasks, as well as the allocation of marking criteria described in the previous section.

Table 10: An overview of the assessment on the course

Assignment	**Trajectory**	**Marking Criterion:** Understanding of theory	**Marking Criterion:** Academic skill	**Marking Criterion:** Application of theory to experience	**Marking Criterion:** Understanding of experience
IAL 1	Abstracting	30%	20%	40%	10%
IAL2	Particularising	20%	10%	40%	30%
OD 1	Particularising	1x[10]	1x	1x	2x
OD 2	Ambiguous	1x	2x	1x	2x
DFLE 1	Particularising	2x	-	3x	-
DFLE 2	Particularising	Group project and project report: Application of what was learned in class: design of a workshop (35% of course mark)			
DFLE 3	Particularising				
DFLE 4	Particularising	Critical reflection on experience (20% of course mark)			
FALT 1	Particularising	-	-	25%	75%
FALT 2	Ambiguous	25%	20%	55%	-
FSAE 1	Particularising	15%	15%	50%	20%
FSAE 2	Particularising	-	10%	30%	60%
FS 1	Particularising	Application of what was learned in class: Project proposal (10% of course mark) and project report (70%)			
FS 2	Particularising				
FS 3	Particularising	Critical reflection on experience (20% of course mark)			
TOTAL	**2 Ambiguous, 1 Abstracting, 12 Particularising**	**Average: 15% and 4x**	**Average: 12.5% and 3x**	**Average: 40% and 5x**	**Average: 32.5% and 4x**

IAL = Introduction to Adult Learning, OD = Organisation Development, DFLE = Design and Facilitation of Learning Events, FALT = Foundations of Adult Learning Theory, FSAE = Fields and Sites of Adult Education and Training, FS = Field Study

[10] 1x, 2x, or 3x in this case means that there were no percentages for the marking criteria. 2x indicates that two of the marking criteria referred to this particular skill.

The conclusion reached regarding the marking criteria, namely that the 'ability to apply theory to experience' and 'an understanding of experience' were credited with the most percentages, was confirmed by the result that most assignments displayed a particularising trajectory. The marking criteria and the assignment tasks as part of the evaluative criteria on the course indicated a move towards the particular and context-specific.

This tendency was reflected and confirmed in the general aim of the course, described in the course brochure:

> The Diploma programme provides an entry level qualification at the Higher Education level (Level 5 on the NQF), and is aimed at those who have some work experience in the field of adult education, training or development, and *who want to improve their practice by undertaking a formal, university course*. (Adult Learning Group, n.d., my emphasis).

The assignment tasks demonstrated that the course aimed for a 'practitioner' voice, an ability on the part of the learner to apply what was learned in class, rather than specialising a voice in terms of abstract concepts and theory. This provided the answer to the third part of my research question, in which I questioned the purpose of recruiting experience on the course. Learners ultimately needed to show an understanding of theories learned in class by *applying* them *to* their experience. Theory was used to understand practice better, and not vice versa. The tasks ultimately foregrounded learners' experience and practice, theories learned in class were a means to assist learners in improving their practice.

The course convenor confirmed this when stating that the course aimed for learners "to develop their practice and to develop their understanding, to understand the theory better and to use the theory to reflect more on what they are doing" (interview). However, it was here where the framing over selection of content indicated an important issue, as in the deductive mode of recruiting experience described in the last chapter. Even though most tasks were particularising, thus foregrounded learners' experience, theory was not absent. In fact, the particularising movement of the task was *from* theory *to* experience. Similarly to most processes of recruiting experience during sessions, this was a deductive process. The framing over selection of the experience, and what learners were asked 'to do' with this experience was strong. The focus of the task was the learners' experience and understanding of it, however, this was controlled and shaped by the theory that learners were asked to use in order to perform it.

In order to see whether the conclusions reached above would be reflected in what the course convenor 'wanted learners to do' in the assignments, I analysed her written comments on all actual learners assignments of the 'Foundations of Adult Learning Theory' module as a

last move of my analysis. In the interview, the course convenor stated that she saw her written comments on learner assignments as formative, and that she wanted learners to use her suggestions and comments in order to improve in their next assignment. What she suggested as improvements to learners' text production will be described in the next section.

5.3.3 The written lecturer comments on assignments

The course convenor's written comments on each assignment were very explicit, as she wanted her comments to be the "kind of feedback that they [the learners] can learn from" (interview). She indicated not only where something was well done or not so good, but gave suggestions to learners on how to improve, and what exactly it was that she was missing or approving of.

In my analysis of the course convenor's written comments, I distinguished between comments that indicated ways of improving the assignment or what was missing on the one hand, and comments indicating her approval of the text on the other. Below are examples of comments regarding the former:

> This section is not very clear
>
> These points would also be better with some explanation
>
> Interesting, but not directly answering the question
>
> Some more detail and further description of these would be good
>
> Please check the requirements for referencing in your course reader, and use these consistently
>
> You haven't really explained clearly enough how the work of the organisation reflects its goals
>
> New paragraph
>
> It is not clear what this is - explain this more
>
> This doesn't really answer the question
>
> Try to rely less on the texts, read them, a few times if necessary, until you feel you understand them, then answer the questions using your own words and responses
>
> This point is not really relevant here
>
> Some relevant information, but you need to be clear about what information to give in response to question 1, and what for part 2. You have some confusion here
>
> Use full sentences
>
> Good points, not always clearly expressed though

Rather wordy and repetitive – try to be concise

You need to explain more clearly how this is an example of consensus thinking

I think you're probably right, but you need to make your argument and points more clearly, in relation to the various perspectives, as you see them in evidence in the industry

This is not clear, I don't follow your points

Your examples and explanations are not always as clear and explicit as they might be however, which brings your marks down a bit

Needs more explanation

Quotes of written lecturer comments on different learner assignments

Examples for written comments that indicated the course convenor's approval were the following:

Well summarised – capturing the main points clearly and expressing them in your own words

Well analysed and applied to SA

Well explained, in your own words

You show good understanding of the text – especially where you use your own words in your summary

.

Excellent point, clear and succinct

Also a very pertinent example

You show a clear understanding of the concept

Good, clear summaries, capturing the main points about each perspective

Good point, and well made

Useful, thoughtful comments

Well written and well-answered, thorough

Good analysis and application of the theory

Well done, you have thought through the questions carefully, and written clear, relevant points. You have also structured your assignment well

Your writing style is becoming very fluent and impressive, you'd make a fine academic/ writer

Useful introduction, to contextualise the assignment

Interesting analysis – well presented

Interesting comments. This section you have themed well.

Quotes of written course convenor comments on different learner assignments

The convenors' suggestions for improvement as well as praise for the text produced in the assignments of the 'Foundations of Adult Learning Theory' module, could be combined to construct an 'ideal assignment' with the following characteristics:

Table 11: The 'ideal assignment' for "Foundations of Adult Learning Theory", Assignment 1

It is typed and well presented, well-structured, and contains a fluent writing style. Quotes are used correctly, references are written up according to the guidelines for referencing, and the different sections of the assignment are linked with each other. The learner gives enough detail on relevant facts, provides correct information and answers questions directly. The assignment contains useful, full, interesting, relevant and detailed information on experiences such as site visits; it shows that the learner has explored his or her own ideas, it gives good, clear descriptions of theories and concepts learned in class. It contains thoughtful comparisons and points of analysis, useful perceptions, and proves that an understanding of theories can be applied to a specific context. It shows clearly the relationship between a specific context and theories of adult learning, and provides an interesting, well-presented and well-argued analysis. A learner who produces a good assignment can show the links between theory and their experience, give correct examples of experiences to illuminate a theory or concept, demonstrates reflection and independent thinking about an experience or concept, and can show how insights gained can be applied in the workplace. Learners express their own ideas, demonstrate a thoughtful approach, and – independent of their point or opinion – argue it well.

This typology of an 'ideal assignment' was surprising to me, as most comments given by the lecturer indicated a focus on academic skill. In the marking criteria of most assignments, 'academic skill' counted an average of 12,5% of the course mark. In the particular assignment above, 'academic skill' was not included in the percentages of the marking criteria. In her written comments, the course convenor did refer to issues other than the presentation and structure of the assignments, such as the comment "You haven't really explained clearly enough how the work of the organisation reflects its goals". Here, she referred mainly to the content of the task. However, academic skill is *indirectly* implied, as the learner might have *understood* how the work of the organisation described reflected the goals, but not have been able to *express* it in written form. Whatever the content of the task, and the relationship between theory and experiential knowledge, the answer to it needed to be presented in an academically valid style.

When questioned about the recruitment of experience in relationship to assessment on the course, the course convenor pointed towards this issue:

> There were some who were excellent community workers, excellent communicators, excellent practitioners, you would know that they were good at what they do, and you didn't want to have to fail them on the course. But it is an academic course.

When referring to what she regarded as 'success' on the course, she commented:

> [...] people who do well in terms of marks have succeeded on a level, [...], you can probably say they've succeeded generally. But then there are also people who don't necessarily do well in assignments, because they don't maybe write as well or they don't structure writing in a way that we're really looking for it to be structured.

The course convenor raised a difficulty regarding the assessment on the course, and pointed to the disjuncture of being committed to valuing learners' experiential knowledge on the one hand, but having to evaluate this experiential knowledge academically on the other. This issue will be discussed in the final discussion and conclusion of this thesis. Before I move on to this discussion, I will summarise the results of my analysis of the assessment on the course, which I undertook in order to elaborate on the 'purpose' of recruiting experience on the course.

5.3.4 Summary of the assessment on the course

In the preceding sections, I described my analysis of the marking criteria, the content of the assignment tasks, and the course convenor's written comments on actual learners' text productions. I showed that the marking criteria, as well as the content of the assignment tasks pointed to a 'particularising trajectory' of the course, where theories and concepts learned in class were applied to learners' experiences, with the purpose of gaining a greater understanding of their experience. This pointed to the purpose of recruiting experience on the course, namely for learners to gain a greater understanding of this experience, particularly their experience at work. The majority of percentages within the marking criteria were given for an *ability to apply* what was learned in class to their experience as practitioners, thus pointed at a directionality '*from* theory *to* experience', thus the ultimate aim of *understanding experience*. At the same time, the movement *from* theory *to* experience indicated strong framing over the selection of experience, and the process of recruiting it in order to perform the task.

The analysis of lecturer comments on actual assignments of learners indicated a crucial set of skills learners needed to show in their assignments, namely *academic skills*. This was *not* reflected in what the marking criteria indicated as critical skills learners needed to demonstrate. In comments during the interview, the course convenor expressed her concern as how to valorise experiential knowledge as well as academic skill at the same time.

Ultimately, the purpose of the course as identified in the assignment tasks was to create better practitioners, to enable learners to perform 'theorised reflection' on their practice, who can look at their practice from a distance, and gain new understandings of it. Most assignment tasks displayed a strong particularising trajectory, thus supported this purpose. However, the framing over selection of the experience in assignment was strong. The focus on the particular, thus on horizontal knowledge, might have pointed to a competence model of pedagogy. Yet the strong framing over selection, and the explicit evaluation criteria, indicated a performance model of pedagogy. The course convenor described her role as

> the archetypal sort of facilitator role where you bring their attention to the particular experience that you want them to focus on, and the particular theory that you want them to relate to it... and set up the possibility for them to reflect on their experience and learn something from it [...]

This description also revealed features of a performance mode – the word 'facilitator' is usually associated with competence models of pedagogy, in order to stress the weak framing over hierarchical rules. However, the course convenor proceeded to state that her role was to "bring their attention to the *particular* experience *that you want them to focus on*" (my emphasis). This again indicated the strong framing over selection of experience, as well as relatively strong hierarchical rules (ie. the control of the educator over the learners) that were dominant on the course. These two factors, as well as the explicitness of the marking criteria and the written comments by the lecturer, which pointed towards strong framing over evaluation on the course, pointed towards a performance model of pedagogy.

Even though the assessment of the course revealed an ultimate purpose of 'illuminating experience', understanding one's experience better, and the focus on the contextual and themselves as practitioners, the only way students could succeed in a 'measurable' way was by expressing themselves academically. This will be discussed and commented on further in the final conclusion of this research.

In the last chapter of this thesis, I will summarise the findings of my analysis, and discuss them in relationship to Bernstein's theory. I will answer the different parts of my research question, and comment on the above-mentioned contradictions that arose.

6 Discussion and conclusion

In this thesis, I aimed to find answers to the following question: What kinds of experiential knowledge are recruited in a University Adult Education Diploma, how does this recruitment take place, and for what purpose? The case study provided an example of a site of intersection between a higher education institution and the workplace, as it was offered to experienced practitioners who had not had much previous formal training. It was therefore an interesting site to explore my interest in how informal knowledge gained through prior experience, which plays an important role in the adult education discourse, is drawn upon in a formal higher education curriculum.

The analysis concentrated on the recruitment of experience in a University Adult Education Diploma as evident in its session outlines and assignment tasks. It consisted of three parts. In the first part, I looked at different kinds of experience that are recruited on the course. In the second, I investigated how these kinds of experience were recruited in relationship to theoretical lecturer input. In the third part of my analysis, I looked at different aspects of the assessment on the course, in order to gain insight into the purpose of recruiting experiential knowledge.

The first part of my analysis, which addressed the different kinds of experiences that were recruited within the sessions, revealed that the experience most frequently recruited was experience that was personal, present, pedagogic and 'near'. Therefore, the experience that was predominantly drawn upon during sessions was *close* to learners in time and space. The analysis regarding experiences recruited in the assignment tasks revealed that in the first year, personal experience was drawn on exclusively, contrary to the assignments of the second year, which recruited impersonal experience as well as personal experience. Thus when producing their own text to show their understanding of what was learned in class, learners moved from analysing their very own, close experience in the first year, to analysing experiences that were more remote from them in the second year. Although both personal and impersonal experiences that were recruited on the course were context-specific and 'everyday' knowledge, thus what Bernstein termed 'horizontal knowledge', it could be argued that the move from the recruitment of personal experience to the recruitment of impersonal experience indicates a progression – from a situation analysis where learners are

very focussed on analysing their own context, to a situation where learners are able to have a more detached view of a different context.

The predominant recruitment of personal experience found in the session outlines in the first part of my analysis indicated a valorising of the personal in particular, and showed that learners' experience was drawn upon on this course. This resonated with the espoused principles of experiential learning theory and adult education, where personal experience is seen as the key resource for learning. It was also reflected in the course brochure, which explicitly states the commitment to "valuing knowledge gained from experience that participants bring to the course" (Adult Learning Group, n.d.). The findings of the first part of my analysis therefore indicated features of a competence mode of pedagogy, which takes the everyday world of learners as a starting point for learning. However, the findings of the second and third part of my analysis led me look more carefully at my initial conclusion, and indicated that I could not look at the *kinds* of experiences recruited on the course without looking at *how* and *why* they were recruited.

In the second part of my analysis, I looked at the 'learning units' in session outlines and analysed *how* the experiences described above were recruited in relationship to theoretical input by the lecturer. I distinguished between two ways of recruiting experience, a deductive mode and an inductive mode. Within the inductive mode, there was relatively weak framing over the selection of experience, learners could bring a range of narratives into the classroom, and the learning process was relatively open-ended. This weaker framing over the selection of content, which is characteristic of a competence mode, is similar to what the principles of experiential learning and models such as Kolb's experiential learning cycle suggest. However, the findings regarding the process of recruiting experience revealed that the deductive mode of recruiting experience – theoretical input *preceding* the recruitment of experience – was by far the most dominant way in which experience was recruited on the course. The deductive mode was characterised by strong framing over the selection of experience on the course. By starting the learning units with theoretical input, the lecturers had more control over which experience learners 'could' recruit, over what counted as 'legitimate experience' to be recruited in that particular moment. The lecturer was able to steer the learning process regarding its content. In addition to the strong framing over selection in the deductive mode, strong framing over sequencing and pacing in all three modes of recruiting experience was noted. This indicated, contrary to the findings of the first

part of my analysis, features of a performance mode of pedagogy, with an emphasis on providing learners with the conceptual tools and specialised language of 'theory'.

In the third part of the analysis, I looked at the marking criteria and assignment tasks of the course, as well as written lecturer comments on learner assignments. The analysis of the marking criteria pointed to the tendency that 'applying theory to experience' and 'understanding experience better' (particularly practitioner/ professional work experience) were the two criteria that learners needed to display in order to succeed in the course. Most assignments displayed a particularising trajectory, thus moving from theory to experience, as opposed to an abstracting trajectory. This led me to conclude that the ultimate purpose of the course was to equip learners with theories and concepts as aid to better understand their own experience as practitioners and the context of adult education and training in South Africa. The particularising move – the move *from* theory *to* experience – also indicated a deductive mode, and therefore strong framing over the selection of experience in assignments. Even though the ultimate aim of understanding an experience better could be compatible with a competence mode of pedagogy, the strong framing over selection of experience, the positing of theory through which the experience was to be interpreted and analysed, points towards a performance mode of pedagogy.

The written lecturer comments on actual learner assignments, which I analysed and used to draw up a typology of an 'ideal assignment', pointed to another criterion that was valued on the course, in addition to the 'ability to apply the theory that was learned in class' and a 'theorised understanding of experience'. The written comments, as well as comments made by the lecturer during the interview, indicated that *academic skill* was crucial for learners to succeed in assignments. It seemed that experiential knowledge of learners on the course was validated, yet had to be expressed academically in order to be recognised.

When describing different modes of pedagogy, Bernstein speaks about a 'pedagogic pallet where mixes can take place' (1996: 70). The curriculum of my case study seems to bear characteristics of such a pedagogic pallet, as the findings of my analysis revealed features of both a competence and performance mode of pedagogy. This could be explained by different educational traditions underlying adult education on the one hand and higher education on the other, which I commented on in the introduction of this thesis, and which became obvious when describing the history of the case study.

The first part of my analysis showed a validation of learner experience, particularly experience that was close and personal to learners. This commitment was confirmed by the course convenor in the interview, as well as the course brochure. It was clearly influenced by a liberal humanistic approach to adult education, which is present in the experiential learning discourse that is dominant in adult education today, and is a clear representation of a competence mode of pedagogy. The Certificate (which then became the Diploma) was initially shaped by a popular education tradition, concentrating on developing practitioners, on critical reflection and learner-centred, process-orientated approaches to education.

The first part of the analysis also showed that the course is a representation of recent changes within higher education, namely the collaboration with workplaces, the 'erosion' of boundaries between different institutions, and the interaction between formal and informal knowledge. Universities are required to increasingly recognise informal learning, thus learning from experience. Processes of the recognition of prior learning are representative of this. The case study in this research did not offer a formal process of 'recognition of prior learning', but it offered access to practitioners who did not have much previous formal education, and thus mainly had their informally acquired knowledge to draw on. The fact that the course drew on learners' experience was therefore not surprising. Therefore, the features of the course which displayed a commitment to recruiting experience and using it as resource for learning were not only representative of the dominant discourse of experiential learning in adult education and the origins of the course. They were also representative of the interaction of context-bound and discipline-based learning, which is requested within recent South African policy developments.

However, the second and third part of the analysis revealed features of the recruitment of experience that were *not* representative of an experiential learning approach, and that alluded to differences between informal, context-bound learning, and discipline-based, formal learning. Traditional experiential learning models, such as Kolb's cycle, move from experience to abstract concepts, without explicit input by a transmitter. The learning process is therefore open, and learners do not achieve a pre-specified outcome. Framing over the selection, sequencing, pacing, as well as the evaluation of content is weak. The ways in which the experience of learners was recruited and evaluated on the course, however, represented strong framing regarding the sequencing, pacing, evaluation, and particularly the selection of the content to be covered in class. This represented a relatively high degree of control by the lecturer, which pointed to a pedagogy opposite to the one promoted by

experiential and adult learning theorists, namely a performance mode of pedagogy. Experiential learning methods are said to challenge traditionally legitimate knowledge. However, since its formalisation, the curriculum of the Diploma contains a set body of knowledge that is to be transmitted in order to fulfil its stipulated learning outcomes. It is offered at a higher education institution, and is regulated by a formal curriculum stipulating the theoretical content to be covered. The selection over recruited experiential knowledge, as well as the evaluation criteria of the course, therefore *has* to be strongly framed.

Kolb's statement that learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes (1996), indicates the relative 'openness' of an experiential learning process. However, how do you *assess* this process? How do learners know what is required to demonstrate learning? The findings of the second and third part of my research were initially surprising; I had expected the recruitment of experience to happen with a weaker framing, similar to experiential learning models such as Kolb's. However, looking at the history of the Diploma, its formalisation, as well as the broader context of formal higher education in which it is offered, it seemed logical that the process of learning, as well its evaluation was more strongly controlled by the lecturer than in a 'typical' experiential learning process.

Breier (2003) states that the promise of RPL and adult education to recognise prior informal experience in a formal education context conceals transmission and acquisition purposes of formal education programs. This comment is relevant to the above-mentioned findings. At first glance, the course recruits many different kinds of experiences, and recruits them frequently. However, this recruitment is strongly framed, and has to be, in order to fulfil the purpose of a formal education program. Since the formalisation of the course, the above-mentioned popular education tradition seems to sit uncomfortably within a formal frame. The disjuncture of being committed to valuing learners' experiential knowledge on the one hand, but having to evaluate this experiential knowledge academically on the other, was referred to by the course convenor during the interview:

> It's the *dichotomy of what the course* is, it's an academic course in an academic institution, but it is also very situated in practice, it's drawing people from practice, with the expressed intention of building onto that practice. So it's not purely academic, it's not taking people out of a context and just do academic exercises. We value that connection with their situations, with their contexts. […] that makes it difficult, because we have to value the academic success, and the university does, but the other [learners' experiential knowledge], we also value that, but I don't know how we would quantify that (Course Convenor, interview, emphasis added).

It seems that the fact that learners had to display academic skill in order to formally succeed on the course overshadowed the commitment to recognising and drawing on learners' experiences. This would explain the strong framing regarding the selection of experiences recruited, as well as the sequencing and evaluation rules on the course. The results of my research resemble those of Harris (2004), who identified that the RPL process she analysed had a 'hidden performance mode' within a competence mode pedagogy.

The answer to my research question, "what kinds of experiential knowledge are recruited in a University Adult Education Diploma, how are they recruited, and for what purpose?", reveals that the course draws on different kinds of experience, mostly experience that is personal and close to the learner. This resonates with the principles of experiential learning methods. However, as these principles are incorporated into a formal higher education environment, as is the case with the course, the course pedagogy takes on characteristics of a different mode of pedagogy. The ways in which experience was recruited and the purpose of the recruitment reveals features of a pedagogy which does *not* accord with the principles of experiential learning.

The analysis presented in this thesis was limited to the written curriculum of the case study. Further research could address the actual practice of the course, and analyse whether it reflects this written curriculum. Yet what this analysis has shown is that the recruitment of practitioner experience in a University Adult Education Diploma is not a straightforward or uncomplicated matter. The findings point towards the fact that drawing extensively on experience does not necessarily reflect a 'classical' model of experiential learning.

Several questions have remained unanswered, and point to the broader significance of the findings in this thesis. What do the conclusions of this thesis mean for people working in higher education? Do they indicate that the 'classical' assumptions of experiential learning theory cannot be accommodated within higher education? Or, if they can be accommodated, how can experiential learning be reconciled with academic skills and discourse, without disregarding the one or the other? How exactly can experiential learning then be valued at a higher education institution, when dealing with experienced practitioners? What effect does the connection of formal and informal knowledge have on practitioners? This thesis has not addressed any of these questions directly. However, the conclusions reached could be a starting point for further research projects, which could tackle these questions and further the knowledge regarding the recruitment of experiential knowledge in higher education, its impact on students, and its broader significance for adult learners.

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Appendices

Appendix A:

Description of Modules

This is a short description of the content of each module on the course, the topics covered in each module and the texts in the readers that are given to the learners. I do specify the number of texts contained within the readers, however know that only a few texts of each reader get covered in class. Some texts are given as homework, but not discussed in class, and others are added as additional texts if learners want to read further on a particular topic, but are not compulsory to read.

Module 1: Introduction to Adult Learning (IAL)

This module is the first module of the course, and consists of five sessions. The course is meant to introduce students

> to theories of learning through reflecting on own experiences as learners and educators, in order to develop an understanding of how theory shapes practice (session outline, Introduction to Adult Learning).

Topics covered in the five sessions are 'how do adults learn', 'learning and experience', 'learning styles', 'experiential learning and reflection', learning theories', 'learner and practitioner roles', 'barriers to learning', 'discourse and identity' and 'language and literacy'.

Learners receive a reader consisting of 23 texts, covering learning theories and issues of adult learning specifically. The texts are journal articles, original chapters of books or summaries of certain theories, based on different references. Some theories are further illuminated through illustrations or diagrams. The reader starts with texts about learning theory, specifically experiential learning theory. Texts on roles and relationships follow, as well as texts on barriers to learning. Towards the end of the reader are texts on learning theory in general, then specifically on Vygotsky's theory of learning. The last texts are about Discourse theory and literacy.

Module 2: Organisation Development (OD)

The module 'organisation development' also consists of five sessions. Most sessions in this module are run by a lecturer from the Graduate School of Business at UCT. The course is said to

> introduce students to theories of organisation development and develop practical skills in areas such as goal-setting and planning and facilitating groups (session outline, Organisation Development).

Students deal with topics such as 'groups and group dynamics', 'organisational culture', 'organisational learning', 'the learning organisation', and 'group facilitation and learning in groups' (session outline, Organisation Development).

The 20 texts in the reader cover group theory, the history of organisation development, structures and cultures of organisations, management styles, different types of training, learning communities, ways of facilitation and facilitator roles.

Module 3: Design and Facilitation of Learning Events (DFLE)

The third module of the first year is the longest module, consisting of 12 sessions. The first eight sessions deal with topics regarding the learning events, most of which are practical, skill-developing topics, such as drawing up learner profiles and needs analysis, research skills, aims and objectives as well as learning outcomes of courses. Students also attend sessions on educational methods and facilitation skills, presentation skills and the evaluation of learning events. At the beginning of the modules, students form groups and work on a group project together throughout the whole course. In the second half of each session, groups get together and develop a presentation for the whole class. Sessions 9 to 11 are dedicated to the group presentations. The last session is meant to recapitulate the sessions and learnings of the course, as well as an evaluation of the module.

The 23 texts in the reader are primarily guidelines and useful lists regarding effective design and facilitation of learning programmes. The texts provide practical, procedural knowledge that can be put into practice straightaway.

Module 4: Foundations of Adult Learning Theory (FALT)

The first module in the second year consists of five sessions, one 'site visit' session and one tutorial at the end of the module. The module introduces students to basic concepts of social theory, and sets out to

> explore different ways of viewing the relationship between education, social change, and development (session outline, Foundations of Adult Learning Theory).

It does this through covering basic sociological theory, theoretical traditions of adult education, and other purposes and perspectives in adult education. Other topics that are covered are 'HIV/ AIDS in the media', 'Freire's theory', 'Development', and 'Workplace learning'. The site visit session is in between two blocks of 'theory sessions', and is meant to provide a basis for discussing how theories are reflecting in actual adult education practice.

The 19 texts in the reader are divided into different groups: texts 1-4 introduce disciplines which form the background to the adult education theory studied on the course. The texts introduce basic concepts, definitions and arguments central to the disciplines of sociology, psychology, philosophy and anthropology. The next group of readings focus on education and adult education, dealing with key issues and debates around educational theories. Readings 10-12 concentrate on the notion of development, and how ideas and debates on development relate to adult education. Readings 13-16 relate to adult education and training in the workplace context, as well as 'social learning' and 'situated practice'.

Module 5: Fields and Sites of Adult Education and Training (FSAE)

The Fields and Sites module consists of five whole-day sessions and one tutorial session. It aims to

> explore the different areas of work (the 'sites of practice') which make up the field of adult education and training in South Africa" (session outline, Fields and Sites of Adult Education and Training)

The sessions deal with the ETDP field in South Africa, its historical context, and different roles within the ETDP context. New policy developments within South Africa, such as outcomes-based education, Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) are topics of the module, as well as a general overview of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). Other topics covered within the module are 'knowledge and learning', 'workplace training and development', learnerships, the Skills Development Act and the role of SETAs, as well as workplace training issues such as

globalisation, Post-Fordism, Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET), and HIV/ AIDS training in the workplace. The last session again looks at different sites of ETD practice and at differences and commonalities within the field.

The 21 texts in the 'Fields and Sites' reader are divided into three groups of texts – the first covering the current policy context of education and training in South Africa and dealing with the NQF, OBE, and learnerships. The second group of texts are text about the field of Education, Training and Development (ETD), and the third deal with recognition of prior learning.

Module 6: Field Study (FS)

The field study module is the last module of the Diploma, and aims to give learners an understanding of different ETD practitioner roles, as well as the skills to undertake a field study project about the work of a practitioner in a particular role. Learners attend four sessions on different ETDP roles, namely 'research', 'researching, developing, and adapting/using learning materials', 'project management, administration and evaluation', and 'learnerships implementation and assessment'.

After attending the four sessions, learners work on their projects, either individually or in groups. There are five contact sessions where individuals or groups can work on their projects and get assistance from the course convenor and the tutors. Learners can chose the focus of their project from three topics: learnerships, ABET in the workplace, or HIV/ AIDS in the workplace. However, if they have a strong interest they would like to study, they can do so, provided their topic gets approved by the course convenor. There is no reader in this module; however, the students do get handouts regarding the topics of the four sessions at the beginning.

Appendix B:

Interview questions

General questions about the Diploma:

- What would you say is the overall purpose of the course?
- What are the main things students are learning and getting out of the course?
- How would you describe the role and influence of experiential learning theory on you as an educator and the course in general?
- How would you describe your role as an educator? And the role of the other lecturers?
- How is the relationship between theory and practice on the course?
- What do you see as 'success' on the course? Who do you think succeeds, and who does not?
- How does experience get used on the course? Are there different ways in which you use it? What kind of experience is used?

Questions about the design of the course/ modules:

- What do you think initially influenced the choice of modules and their order?
- Can you say three or four sentences about each module, eg. its content and its goals?

Questions regarding the readers:

- What purpose do the readers have, and do you think it gets fulfilled?
- What determines the choice of texts for the readers?
- What determines the choice of readers that are actually used in class?
- How do students react to and use the readers?

Questions regarding the classroom sessions:

- What is important for you when preparing the sessions?
- There is a similar structure to most of the sessions – can you describe it and say why you organise it that way?

- How would you describe the relationship between you and the students during class? Is it different with other lecturers?
- How much control would you say the students have over the time frame and content of the sessions?
- You sometimes take time to deal with 'academic skill' in class. Why?

Questions regarding the assignments:

- What is the purpose of the assignments?
- What informs the assignment questions? How have they changed over time?
- What are students asked to do?
- What do you look for when marking the assignments?
- Can you say something about your comments on the assignments?
- Who succeeds in the assignments, and who does not, and why do you think that is?

Appendix C:

Samples of written session outlines

SESSION OUTLINE

23/5/03

Buzz with partner re last weeks learning.

8.30 Introduction

- re me – [redacted]
  - last years course - clothing sts. - need to see sts in workplace to apply theories practice/skills taught on the course.

- re the sts – names, workplaces, jobs
  - refer to last weeks session – things they think will help them to learn on the course. (ad. learning theories)

9.00 Reading strategies

- Show o/H. re surveying textbooks.
- sts report to group on what strategies they used, & whether these were successful.
- Importance of summarising (qs given were designed to guide this) for academic success → writing assignments.
- Point out strategy of id. linking words/phrases/sections (p

9.30. 'Tony Napper' article

- Groups (numbered off) discuss text:
  - What are the main points & arguments re Ad. learning?
  - Work through the qs answered for H/W. & compare responses.
  - Do you agree with him?

(* The main points of the article)

10.00 Tea

10.30 Pull together points to report back → J write onto N/P.
Any terms / sections not clear? (- Discuss usefulness / otherwise of dictionaries -

11.00 · Barriers to learning.

- Refer back to TM article - How does he explain learning barriers? (p.42)
- Read p.36 individually. How do the writers suggest learning barriers can be overcome?
- In pairs, Ss's think about + share egs of barriers to their learning in the past.
- Ref. to p. 37 and identify what kind of barrier this was.
- Report back to plenary are these barriers + how they were / not overcome.

12.00 FREE Writing. Intro by reading H/O
Ss write about the reading / am session for 10 mins.

12.30 LUNCH.

1.30 Assignment writing
- Groups discuss ass. → questions / issues (Sem. respond)
- How are they feeling about writing ass?

Day 1 — 27th June

8:30 - 10:00 Revisit OD

What is OD? Process of CHANGE

What does OD seek to improve? O/H

Potential benefits of OD O/H

How can org's be developed? O/H + Handout

10.30 - 12.30 Structure

Key concepts O/H + Handout

Bring in handy reading "Structure of Org's"

2 key - elements
- Psychological contract
- New words for org's

Ask: Where does your org fit?

1.30 - 3.30

Tasks: 1. or 2. or both

Case Study: KODAK

OR

Case study: LEVI STRAUSS

*Discuss Assignment 1

Consolidation:
What have we learnt today?

Read: Gods of manag

DESIGN AND FACILITATION SESSION 4 (22ND AUGUST)

METHODS OF FACILITATING WORKSHOPS

8.30	Welcome Re-cap on the course so far, and explain the next 5 sessions Introduce this session outline	Course outline on O/H Session outline on N/P
8.45	Buzz about kinds of methods students have experienced in workshops. Write ideas on flashcards, and stick up on wall under three headings: Learner-centred Methods; Teacher-centred Methods; Outside Methods. Discuss 'Methods' mind-map on O/H	Flashcards & headings Kokis
9.15 9.45	Groups discuss one of these methods which they experienced as effective, and one which was not effective, and why these were so. Feedback and discuss in plenary. Link 'effectiveness' with a) achievement of learning outcomes (what was the purpose of the method?) and b) good/ powerful/ memorable learning experience. Refer back to last week's session outline, to compare outcomes/ methods/activities	Last week session outline on newsprint
10.00	TEA	
10.30	Group tasks: 4 groups do the same task in different ways, with different sets of instructions. Groups present feedback on their tasks; then reflect on and compare the processes. What helped/ hindered them? Which was the most effective group process and why?	Group task instructions O/H transparencies for presentations
11.30	SETA and NSF visit	
12.30	LUNCH	
1.30	Introduce June as new supervisor Reflect on progress in projects so far (partly to orientate June) Group project work	
3.30	END	

WORKPLACE LEARNING 5/3/04

1.30 Input: Introduce idea of workplace learning - the 'T' in ETDP + theory behind it.

Focus on:

Wenger / Lave — Social Theory of learning
Situated learning
Communities of Practice

Aim to understand these key concepts.

Wenger - outline of Social Theory of learning on O/H.

2.00 Introduce Case Studies of situated learning in communities of practice in workplaces - Vai/Gola Tailors + meatcutters

Groups read one of the case studies & answer:

1. How does this apprenticeship relate to your workplace training? What are the similarities & differences?

2. What ~~the~~ the lessons do be learned from this case study about effective training / ed. practice? —— response next w after consulting for this

Feedback + discuss responses.

Outline for Diploma Session – 12 March 2004

PART 1: LEARNING WITHIN THE NEW WORKPLACE – A FOCUS ON MARSICK AND WATKINS.

Introduction:
Introduce the session, briefly discussing how workplaces have changed over the past few decades within global competition. Discuss how this has changed the structure and organisation of the workplace, but more importantly the way that learning takes place within workplaces – this will be the focus of today's session – how does learning take place in today's workplace, what does learning look like? (Could use the Garrick introduction chapter here – I have not read)

Understanding globalisation:
Many writers argue that globalisation (or new global competition) has placed significant pressure on organisations to change the way that they are structured and operate in order to flexibly respond to new markets and new customers. What do you understand by globalisation? What is the definition of globalisation?

⇒ Group work: Discuss and answer the following questions:

1. How do you understand globalisation and what are its main features?
2. What, if any, changes have occurred in workplaces as a consequence of globalisation?

⇒ Feedback – facilitator writes up.

Your own workplace:
Our main focus today is to look at how learning takes place within contemporary workplaces – especially our own workplaces?

⇒ Group work: Discuss the following questions and note answers on newsprint:

1. How is your workplace structured?
2. How does learning happen in your workplace?
   - Who decides what and how learning takes place?
   - What kind of programmes are run?
   - Who attends or learns?
   - Who are the trainers/educators?
3. What changes if any have you noticed in the way that learning takes place over the past 2 – 5 years?

⇒ Feedback:
Each group feedsback
Facilitator groups responses as follows -

Structure	Who decides?	Type of programme	Educators