

**THE ROLE OF TECHNIKONS WITH
REGARD TO SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC
UPLIFTMENT OF COMMUNITIES,
WITH REFERENCE TO THE EASTERN
CAPE TECHNIKON**

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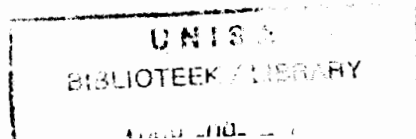
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SUMMARY

Technikons were established in order to meet the need for skilled labour in the field of Engineering and Technology. Yet, within the Transkei it is found that there is a greater need for literacy training as a means of contributing to social and economic upliftment as technological advancement cannot take place within an illiterate society.

As the Eastern Cape Technikon is based within the Transkei, a challenge is put to this institution to meet the needs of its surrounding community. Thus besides providing technologically -orientated education, the question is put as to how the Technikon could address illiteracy in the area.

A study of countries which have addressed these issues is made and an investigation into the problem within the area is carried out. Based on conclusions drawn from these, recommendations are made.

These do not necessarily pertain to all technikons but can be considered when approaching the issue of literacy/illiteracy.

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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM FORMULATION, AIMS AND METHODS

1. ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM

1.1 THE SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC SITUATION WITHIN THE TRANSKEI

With the release of Nelson Mandela and his inauguration as the first black president of South Africa, the country, indeed, the entire world rejoiced in the anticipation of a new and liberated post-apartheid South Africa. Yet amidst all the excitement the reality of the country's situation could not be ignored.

Particularly within the Transkei, an area within the Eastern Cape Province, the social and economic situation is cause for concern. An article in the Daily Dispatch (1995 May 9:1) revealed the bleakness of the Eastern Cape Province, including the Transkei:

- * 56,3 per cent of rural Eastern Cape people and 64,1 per cent of women are unemployed.

- * 81.1 per cent of the province's rural population have no tap water in their dwellings or on site and rural dwellings have no electricity for cooking, lighting and heating.

- * 37,7 per cent of rural dwellers have no access to sanitation.
- * 91,5 per cent of all the people in the Eastern Cape have no access to medical aid.
- * Only the Northern Cape has less access to telephones than the Eastern Cape where 76,3 per cent of rural people have no access.
- * Regarding unemployment, the official unemployment rate of the whole Eastern Cape was 45,5 per cent. Almost half the unemployed (366 367) are younger than 30 while 642 762 of the total had been unemployed for more than a year. The majority of the unemployed (98,8 per cent) do not possess a post school qualification and (92 per cent) are not trained or skilled for specific work.

Further statistics regarding the Eastern Cape as revealed by the Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA) indicate that the Eastern Cape has long been at "the bottom of the scale in terms of human development" and the unemployment situation in the province has long been among the worst in the country (DBSA 1995:59).

Figures released by the Central Statistics Office cited in Sarpong (1990:14-15) indicate that the Transkei represents one of

the least developed countries (sic) of the world in terms of per capita income. This stood at R260 in 1980. In 1986 the average annual household income was estimated at R5 069 comprising R13 362 for urban households and R20 645 for semi-urban households and R4 640 for rural households. The World Bank statistics for 1996 showed that black South African households were among the poorest in the world, earning between zero and R570 a month (Daily Dispatch 1997:1). Further statistics as indicated by Maharaj (1995:325) only serve to emphasise the bleakness of the area's socio-economic and geographical situation; the population is about 6.2 million, where approximately 70% of the population live in rural underdeveloped areas. Almost 160 000 pupils are in senior secondary schools (discussed in 3.3.1.2) where educational standards and conditions need addressing.

About 27% of the population is illiterate and 71% underemployed (Maharaj 1995:325). The concentration of economic development in a few areas in Transkei, notably in Butterworth, has become a particularly glaring phenomenon. Butterworth occupies less than 1% of the total area of Transkei but has about half of all the industries in Transkei and over 50% of the nation's industrial employment (Sarpong 1990:16). These statistics give an indication as to why the area of Butterworth and its surroundings are so densely populated, urban population being 35 941 and rural totalling 68 332 according to 1991 population census (Central Statistics Office 1994:Table 1).

With the re-incorporation of Transkei into South Africa, many were hopeful of a brighter future.

Instead, the situation in the previous homeland has deteriorated rapidly as is evident from newspaper articles covering post-apartheid Transkei; the Daily Dispatch reporting constant violence within the region such as fights and killings emanating from stock theft and taxi wars and other spates of crime (1995 April 26:3; May 16:1; June 19:4). A lack of facilities as well as the lack of skills has also been readily reported as leading to the degradation in the lifestyles of so many Transkeian dwellers (Daily Dispatch 1995 April 7:4; April 26:1; May 15:1; June 19:4). The frequent reports on the situation of the area is evidence of its depressing state.

So pathetic is the situation that in a motion before provincial legislature, the Democratic party leader, Eddie Trent, said that the central government should assume temporary curatorship of the former Transkei to force national focus on this neglected area. Trent said that the need for special national focus was evident from a total collapse of hospital and clinic services, standards of educational services and rural infrastructure in general (Daily Dispatch 1995 November 28:11).

Additional problems loomed with the introduction of the new tax system which would bring on par with South Africa, the rather

generous tax system of the former Transkei. Within the previous tax system certain fringe benefits were excluded, such as Housing and Travelling allowances and Standard Income Tax on Employees (SITE) was not applicable (Transkei Department of Finance 1991:General Tax Deduction Tables). These are now taxable income (Department of Finance Inland Revenue 1995:PAYE and SITE). Together with SITE in particular, income tax rates has led to an exodus from Transkei. Small industries especially, are rapidly closing since the introduction of the new unified corporate tax system (Daily Dispatch 1995 May 8:1). Instead of gradually phasing in the new system, government adopted the 'big bang' approach which many blame for the further decline of industry, especially in the Butterworth region (Daily Dispatch 1995 May 19:4). With the exodus of businesses, unemployment has increased which has led to a further increase in violence and other socio-economic linked problems.

In research done by the DBSA (1995:59) it was indicated that the waste of developmental resources and the underfunding of essential development functions is particularly visible in the Transkei. Only one-sixth of the population is functionally urbanised, whereas the majority of rural dwellers (approximately 3 million or half the province's total population) are resident in more than 1500 villages. Development indicators in these areas are extremely low, the resource base is poor and public and commercial services, such as housing and urban developmental

facilities, are lacking.

1.1.1 Literacy within the Transkei

As previously mentioned (cf 1.1) approximately 27% of the Transkeian population is illiterate. According to Steinberg and Suttner (1991:13) it is impossible to accurately state the number of illiterate people in South Africa, firstly since there is no "accurate yardstick which declares people literate" and secondly, since there are no accurate population and education statistics for the population.

Tabled statistics provided by French (1982:24) indicate that the estimation of the number of illiterate black adults in South Africa in 1980 was 5 678 000. Of this number 580 000 were from the Transkei. Furthermore, only 42 619 were in adult literacy courses, none of which were from the Transkei.

However, based on census for the 1980 period, it was found that due to the haphazard way in which data was accumulated for the former Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC) states, no specific information concerning literacy levels are available and any educational statistics are difficult to find (cf Hartsthorne 1992:43; Bunting 1994:215; Steinberg & Suttner 1991:13). Despite this, early 1990 estimates provided by French (1992:50) indicate an increasing illiteracy rate, the author

stating that only about 50% of black adults in South Africa are literate if we assume that people need at least standard three or five years of schooling to stay literate. This percentage indicates that there are between six and twelve million adults who are either illiterate or who have a frustratingly low level of literacy, and who are unable to participate fully in a society that is saturated with the written word (French 1992:50).

Considering that Transkei is a rural area and that education within this area has continuously lagged behind (compared to urban education) as stated by Hartsthorne (1992:129) it can be concluded that Transkei's literacy levels have steadily decreased.

1.1.1.1 The relationship between literacy levels and the improvement thereof in the social and economic upliftment of a community

The benefits of literacy are various and range widely, including individual, national as well as global benefits. However literacy by itself cannot obliterate poverty, although there is a high correlation between illiteracy and poverty (Hutton 1992:16-17). What is important according to Hutton (1992:17) is that "literacy has tremendous power to bring about positive change: change in the way people think, the way they organise themselves and act, the way people work, or the way countries develop."

For learners the benefits can be more personal in terms of being able to write letters, filling in forms, helping their children doing their schoolwork, getting a better job or an increase in pay, reading the Bible, signing their names, getting a certificate or qualification and avoiding being cheated (Hutton 1992:17; French 1982:100-101).

All these advantages ultimately benefit the community socially and economically, since "no man is an island" and we are all in this global community together (Donne cited in Merriam and Cunningham 1989:12-13).

According to research done by Project Literacy (1996:1), a non-governmental organisation (NGO) involved in adult basic education (ABE), and statistics on the per capita income by level of education of the household head (Central Statistics Office 1994:Table), the educational level of a household correlates significantly with the economic level of the household. Furthermore, not only does illiteracy affect the disposable income of households, but such low levels of income impacts greatly on the economy of the country. It is therefore suggested that should the illiteracy level of the population be decreased, the disposable income of households will increase and that this can improve the economy of the country (Project Literacy 1996:7).

The devastating effects of illiteracy are also highlighted by Tveit (1991:251) who says that illiteracy is an evil and a severe handicap for people living in a complex and developed society. It is an obstacle to prosperity in cultural and social life, whereas literacy, on the other hand, is a cornerstone in economic development.

The importance of improved literacy levels in order to improve economic and social conditions within communities is illustrated in the case of Tanzania (cf chapter two). The Tanzanian author, Kassam (1978:2) says that adult education (in terms of literacy training) received special attention since it had been increasingly recognised as having a crucial role to play in accelerating the improvement of living conditions of the people and bringing about rapid economic development.

Further indicators regarding the importance of improved literacy levels in order to contribute to social and economic upliftment of communities comes from the DBSA report (1995:51) in which the the low literacy rate within the Northern Cape is said to negatively affect employment rates, which in turn contributes to the stagnant economy which appears to limit the potential for social investment.

According to Lazarus (1989:88) one of the great social problems of our time is world illiteracy, which has a close correlation

with poverty.

Furthermore, in her speech read at the adult education department's annual conference at the University of Transkei, the Daily Dispatch (1995 April 6:2) reported N.Balindlela, the Eastern Cape Minister for Education and Culture as stressing the need for adult education and saying that adult education could empower the general citizenry to deal with issues concerning nation-building intelligently and imaginatively.

Ntswanwisi (1978:14) says that illiteracy amongst adults in former Gazankulu became a "stumbling block to the introduction of essential developmental changes in agriculture, health, higher education and commerce". It was linked to high mortality rates, caused by preventable diseases, unhygienic living conditions and poor feeding habits.

Mopeli (1978:21&25-26) argues that the promotion of literacy should be regarded as an integral part of development and growth and has a number of advantages, one being that it raises the standard of living.

Literacy can lead to individual empowerment and growth. It also contributes to democracy in organizations and communities, enabling people to access information on which to make their choices, and help build their confidence to participate in

decision-making structures. Furthermore, literacy is an important tool towards developing the nation, and can be argued to promote economic growth (Steinberg & Suttner 1991:15-17).

1.1.2 The role of adult basic education (ABE) in combating illiteracy in the Transkei

Adult basic education (ABE) addresses questions concerning literacy, numeracy and basic education (NEPI 1992: 3-4). As stated previously (cf 1.1.1.1), literacy is essential to individual, social and economic empowerment.

In view of the social and economic outline of the Transkei as presented in paragraph 1.1, the researcher works from the presupposition that social and economic upliftment within this area cannot be successfully undertaken unless the high illiteracy rate is addressed. This can be undertaken within the framework of adult basic education (ABE). Furthermore, as stated by Rachal (1989:11-12), "overcoming illiteracy is hardly a complete response to poverty in a depressed market", however, society has to respond to real needs and provide opportunity for encouragement.

1.1.3 The lack of educational facilities for the purposes of adult basic education in the Transkei

Given the largely rural nature of the Transkei, the educational facilities for education in general has been largely lacking (Ngubentombi 1988:240; Hartsthorne 1992:129). There are considerable backlogs in terms of the physical infrastructure, facilities and resources which has been detrimental to primary and secondary education (Hartsthorne 1992:129).

In addition to this there is a shortage of teachers, the available ones being largely under-qualified and overworked (Ngubentombi 1988:240).

This general lack of educational facilities and resources, spills over into the arena of adult basic education. As mentioned in paragraph 1.1.1 a study by French (1982:24) indicated that there were no adults from the Transkei involved in literacy classes during the 1980 period.

N. Balindlela (Daily Dispatch 1995 April 6:2) stated that adult education had been a neglected field of study for a long time. Since there are limited government funds available for adult education there is not much hope of Adult Education Centres being built, especially within the Transkei region which as previously mentioned is severely stricken with regard to poverty and

unemployment.

Considering the extent of the Trankei's resource, social and economic problems as outlined under paragraph 1.1, there is a need to address adult basic education, more specifically illiteracy, as a means of contributing to the social and economic upliftment of the community. In relation to the role of the Eastern Cape Technikon in this regard a number of questions arise. These are formulated in paragraph 1.2.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Against the background as outlined in paragraph 1.1, a need exists to investigate what role the Eastern Cape Technikon can fulfil in addressing the problem of illiteracy as a means of contributing to the social and economic upliftment of Transkeian communities. The following questions facilitate the demarcation of the problem more clearly:

- * How is illiteracy being approached in global education systems?
- * What is the traditional role of technikons in general?
- * What role can the Eastern Cape Technikon fulfil in meeting the social and economic need of its particular

community, especially as far as literacy is concerned?

- * Which guidelines can be suggested in the approach to literacy with particular reference to the Eastern Cape Technikon?

1.3 THE AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aims of this investigation are:

- * To examine the approach to illiteracy by global education systems.
- * To examine the development and traditional role of technikons in general.
- * To evaluate the role that the Eastern Cape Technikon can fulfil in meeting the social and economic needs of its particular community, especially with regard to its approach to illiteracy.
- * To provide a set of guidelines in order to shape the approach to literacy with particular reference to the Eastern Cape Technikon.

1.4 CHAPTER SUMMARIES

Chapter one describes the design of the research. An introduction to the practical problem within the Transkeian context is given and the research problem is formulated in the light thereof.

Chapter two addresses the aim (cf 1.3) of examining the approach to illiteracy by global education systems. It offers a concise examination of the development and nature of literacy programmes, with particular reference to adult literacy as approached in a number of countries, such as Tanzania, Mozambique, Sweden and the United States Of America.

Chapter three addresses the aim (cf 1.3) of examining the development and traditional role of technikons in general. It offers a background to the development and traditional role of technikons within the South African context.

Chapter four addresses the aim (cf 1.3) of evaluating the role that the Eastern Cape Technikon can fulfil in meeting the social and economic needs of its particular community, especially with regard to its approach to illiteracy. It thus deals with the social and economic situation within the Transkei and the possible role of the Eastern Cape Technikon in combating illiteracy as a means of contributing to social and economic

upliftment within the community.

Chapter five addresses the aim (cf 1.3) of providing a set of guidelines in order to shape the approach to literacy with particular reference to the Eastern Cape Technikon. It offers relevant and practical guidelines towards an approach to literacy as a means of contributing towards social and economic upliftment. Finally conclusions of the study are drawn and recommendations for further research are given.

1.5 METHODS OF RESEARCH

In order to gain new insights into the theme under discussion with a view of making a contribution to literacy programmes, a number of exploratory methods have been used.

These approaches are:

CASE STUDIES

Case studies in terms of international practices with regard to approaches to literacy have been selected in order to get a broader view. This method is used in chapter two where a study is made on the approach to adult literacy in countries such as the United States Of America, Sweden, Mozambique and Tanzania. The successes and failures of these countries in terms of their approaches to literacy are used as lessons for the Transkeian

context.

A LITERATURE REVIEW

This method is used throughout the dissertation in order to fulfil the aims as set out in paragraph 1.3. The literature study includes primary and secondary sources such as books, periodicals, newspaper articles, documents and theses spanning African (including South African), American as well as European literature in order to acquire an in-depth understanding of the broad spectrum of approaches and development with regard to adult literacy.

It is the main method of research and is also utilised in order to support statements, outline the situation in the Transkei region and to determine the key elements in developing literacy programmes specific to the needs of adults.

This method of research serves to promote critical and analytical thinking, and can raise questions that may lead to new research and information (Squelch 1991:11).

PERSONAL CONTACT

By attending workshops, conferences and seminars which were held on and around themes pertaining to literacy, correspondence was

distributed and personal contact was made with various persons who shared their views on literacy programmes in general as well as in relation to technikons. Many of the discussions were of an informal nature and are dealt with in chapters three and four.

1.6 ABBREVIATIONS

ABET	Adult Basic Education and Training
ANC	African National Congress
CAE	Centre for Adult Education
CACE	Centre for Adult and Continuing Education
CATE	Colleges for Advanced Technical Education
CSD	Centre for Science Development
DBSA	Development Bank of Southern Africa
DET	Department of Education and Training
FDC	Folk Development College
FRD	Foundation for Research and Development
HBI	Historically Black Institution
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
MEC	Member of Executive Council
NCHE	National Commission on Higher Education
NEPI	National Education Policy Investigation
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NLC	National Literacy Campaign
RDP	Reconstruction and Development
RSA	Republic of South Africa

SAB	South African Breweries
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
TBVC	Transkei, Bophutatswana, Venda, Ciskei
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation

1.7 DESCRIPTION OF TERMINOLOGY

In the context of this dissertation, the following terms are used:

ADULT EDUCATION (AE)

Adult education in South Africa is a very large field, encompassing the whole field of education provision outside the conventional formal system of initial education, including vocational education and training, human resources development, and adult literacy and basic education (NEPI 1993:3). Julius Nyerere, cited in Dekker (1993:301) defines adult education as follows:

"Adult education incorporates anything that enlarges men's understanding, activates them, helps them to make their own decisions and to implement those decisions themselves ... (It) includes training, but is much more than training. It includes what is generally known as agitation, but it is much more than that. It includes organization and mobilization, but goes beyond

them to make them purposeful."

ADULT BASIC EDUCATION (ABE)

Adult Basic Education (ABE) is part of the more general category of AE. It is differentiated from AE because the questions of redress for the victims of apartheid is most compelling in respect of literacy, numeracy and basic education (NEPI 1992:3-4).

LITERACY

Beckles (1984:19) defines literacy in terms of a basic and advanced kind. Basic literacy refers to comprehending simple written material and conveying coherent and legibly written information. Advanced literacy refers to an ability to comprehend and convey more technical and sophisticated written data. The definition provided by Hunter and Harman (1979:7) complements that of Beckles as they believe that all definitions of literacy or illiteracy are completely relative and therefore link the terms to social aspirations and functional criteria. They differentiate between (1) Conventional literacy: the ability to read, write and comprehend texts on familiar subjects and to understand whatever signs, labels, instructions, and directions are necessary to get along with one's environment, and (2) Functional literacy: the possession of skills perceived as

necessary by particular persons and groups to fulfill their own self-determined objectives as family and community members, citizens, consumers, job-holders, and members of social, religious, or other associations of their choosing (Hunter & Harman 1979:7).

Reeves (1985:55) defines a literate society as one not where most people can read and write, but one where the society has become print dependent for essential communication.

In its publication on Adult Basic Education, NEPI (1992:5) stated that literacy statistics generally have limitations as they usually make provision for only two categories, literate and illiterate, and are insensitive to the complexities of ranges and varying types of literacy.

From these various definitions it can be deduced that although there is no single explanation for the term 'literacy' there are different levels of literacy.

TECHNIKON

Wessels, as cited in Goodey (1986:9) indicates that the word 'technikon' is composed of the Greek word 'techne', which refers to artistry, dexterity or adroitness, and the suffix 'kon' to convert it to from an adjective to a noun. He further indicates

that education at technikons is only at tertiary level and that the condition for admittance is therefore a senior or equivalent certificate. One of the most important tasks of the technikon is, considering the country's manpower needs, vocational education at tertiary level.

1.8 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

While the title denotes that the dissertation concentrates on the role of technikons with regard to social and economic upliftment of communities, it also refers particularly to the Eastern Cape Technikon.

The background provided in this chapter (cf 1.1) specifically in relation to the Transkei, indicates that the Technikon has to provide more than the traditional role (as discussed in chapter three) in order to contribute to upliftment within the Transkeian context.

It is not implied that all technikons should embark on literacy programmes as a means of social and economic upliftment of the communities in which they exist. It may be that the traditional role that they fulfil (as discussed in chapter three) is sufficient to contribute to social and economic upliftment within their communities. It is also important to note that in line with the new political dispensation several transformational

developments are taking place (as discussed in 3.4.1.2) and issues such as research and facilitated access to institutions of higher learning (cf 3.4.1.3) are currently being addressed. It would be a lengthy and unwieldy task to investigate each and every technikon's role other than the traditional one within this dissertation. The traditional role as discussed in chapter three thus applies to all technikons, but in relation to literacy it applies specifically to the Eastern Cape Technikon.

1.9 SUMMARY

One of the presuppositions from which the researcher works is that technikons should serve the communities in which they exist, according to their social and economic needs. As discussed in chapter three, technikons developed in order to address a specific need, namely that of the technologically skilled human resources. Yet within the Transkei, due to the high rate of illiteracy and its negative consequences (as outlined in 1.1) fulfilling a technological need alone may not necessarily lead to social and economic upliftment of the community. As outlined (cf 1.1) a more literate community could lead to a more equipped community who would be able to become economically and socially self-sufficient. It is investigated whether the Eastern Cape Technikon can fulfil an additional role in terms of addressing illiteracy or literacy within the community. How the Technikon should address this is guided by a study of international

practises in this regard in order to gain a broader view. This is discussed in chapter two.

CHAPTER TWO

APPROACHES TO ILLITERACY BY VARIOUS COUNTRIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 1 (cf 1.5) it was stated that the approaches to illiteracy by international education systems would be examined. Chapter two is thus a discussion of approaches to illiteracy by other countries. The development and nature of literacy programmes, within the global context are examined. In order to understand the rationale for the particular nature and development of the programmes, the underlying ideologies which determine them are also discussed. The success or failure of the programmes in terms of their underlying ideologies are examined as lessons for the Transkeian context.

Thus, the aim of this chapter is to identify the underlying ideologies which have led to the development of particular literacy programmes and which have influenced the nature of these programmes. It is also to discuss literacy programmes in the global context and to gauge lessons for the Transkeian context.

2.2 IDEOLOGIES AND THEIR ROLE IN LITERACY PROGRAMMES

Literacy programmes have never been embarked upon as ends in themselves (Graff 1979:3) and as part of education have always had a practical philosophy in that they have sources of motivation and commitment, criteria for choice of goals, and principles to guide action (Bhola 1988:20-21). Bhola (1988:20) sees practical philosophies as influencing education prior to the Second World War, after which adult education also acquired an ideology. The idea that this ideology was only acquired after the Second World War can be misleading as will become clearer within this chapter. Graff (1979:1-3) maintains that ideology has always influenced literacy programmes and that educationists should become aware of the influence of certain ideologies on educational practices. They should develop a critical consciousness of the way in which particular ideologies intersect and support each other in maintaining forms of domination (Van Niekerk 1993:422).

2.3 THE HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Throughout history, literacy has been intimately linked to the society in which it operated leading to the concept of a literacy/society relationship within a historical perspective (Graff 1979:1). Strongly linked to this relationship is the ideology of the dominant class within a particular society which

seeks to legitimise their control through enforcing their ideology on the lives of the subordinate groups (Van Niekerk 1993:421). Historically, literacy programmes as linked to the dominant ideology within a society, can be divided into two periods. The first could be the pre-Second World War period where the ideologies of the ruling classes, who were mainly colonialists and religious groups, determined the nature and development of literacy programmes. The second, post-Second World War or liberation period, is strongly influenced by "liberatory" ideologies which determine the nature and development of literacy programmes (cf Marshall 1993:2).

This division is made as a means of simplifying the discussion concerning literacy programmes and should not be seen as a clear-cut division since overlapping can occur. Examples cited within this chapter can often cover both periods, for example, literacy as a liberating tool in the pre-colonial era (the Freedmen of paragraph 2.4.3) in the United States as well as in literacy programmes of post-colonial Tanzania (cf 2.5.1.1).

2.3.1 The pre-second world war period

Two distinct concepts of literacy are visible during this period, namely, literacy as "people's power" and "literacy as an assimilation of the social order" (Marshall 1993:1).

2.3.1.1 *Literacy as people's power*

For many people, being illiterate has negative connotations of backwardness, marginality, incompetence and deprivation, "being a ward of society" (Marshall 1993:1-2). Especially within the Third World, the values attached to literacy by leaders of the liberation movements, was closely linked to economic advancement or development in contrast to illiteracy which is in itself a barrier to development (Mutava 1988:343-345).

This liberating power of literacy is echoed in the history of black American education, where literacy has always been valued. For the black American slave it was a means of liberation from the bonds of slavery to freedom (Engs 1987:13-14). The liberating experiences of two black social activists, namely, W.E.B Dubois and Malcolm X, as narrated by McPhail (1987:9-15) indicate the role that literacy has played in black history.

In post-colonial Tanzania, literacy programmes were embarked upon as a means of improving the lifestyles of the majority who lived mostly in the rural areas, a means of developing to ones full potential as a person (Mlekwa 1990:93).

Literacy as an empowering mechanism is also emphasised by the situation of the Aborigines of Australia where literacy mainly in terms of the acquisition of English language skills, was a means

to greater independence from the colonialists (Christie 1990:118). This concept of liberation through language acquisition is echoed in the experience of the people of **Mozambique**. Although language was used as a means of social control (cf 2.4.1), to the people of Mozambique mastering Portuguese meant access to employment and recognition within the Portuguese community. It played a vital role in, and was integrally linked to fundamental questions of knowledge and power (Marshall 1993:77). Literacy gave them some political power to fight for their land and support themselves financially.

The value of literacy thus seems to lie in what people perceive to be its power to free them from the bonds of slavery in which they find themselves.

Even in **Sweden** where literacy was initiated for mostly religious and political reasons, it was a means of entering into mainstream society (Johansson 1988:137). Illiterates were those who could not read Gothic letters and biblical texts and were thus not allowed to receive Holy Communion and were refused permission to marry (Johansson 1988:137).

2.3.1.2 Literacy - a social order

In as much as literacy is viewed as a tool for empowerment, a liberating process, and as a means of development by the

illiterate, there exists simultaneously a contrasting view. It is also a powerful force for broader processes of social control which has encouraged the concept of mass literacy as a means of ensuring control over the masses. At first, fearing that mass literacy would lead to resistance against those in power, there was much resistance against it (Marshall 1993:2 & 10; Graff 1979:2).

However factors such as rapid social change with its accompanying problems and urgent need for solutions lead to a systematic and institutional provision of mass literacy and education, a central element in strategies for establishing control in society (Graff 1979:2).

(a) *The simultaneous existence of the perception of literacy as a mechanism of social order and as a liberating experience*

That literacy as a means of social control exists simultaneously with the view of literacy as a liberating experience is evident within the examples below of the same countries as cited in paragraph 2.3.1.1.

Penglase (1988:34), in a study of literacy in **Australia** during the colonisation period 1830-1880, quotes surveys regarding a debate on the concern of the institutional framework of public education at that time. These were with prominent figures in the

establishment and the administration of the State system, with debates surrounding important pieces of legislation, and with what some regard as the triumph of secularism over denominationalism and others as a struggle for social stability through social control.

In **Mozambique** education was a tightly controlled process of socialisation and an important and powerful aspect of political power within the community (Newitt 1995:438). This is also true of Australia where mass literacy was a means of absorbing the Aborigine into white society at the lowest rung of the social order as obedient, well-mannered and effective workers (Christie 1990:118).

For the white supremacists in the southern parts of the United States education has been a means of social control, of disciplining and containing the young, ignorant and unruly (Engs 1987:14).

(b) Literacy within religion as a form of social control

Mass literacy campaigns were undertaken mostly by religious groups at first as is evident in countries such as **Sweden**, the missionaries in the **Third World** countries and protestants during the Slave era in the **South of America**.

In the early 1700's the people of Sweden were persuaded to learn to read by means of a literacy campaign initiated for political and religious reasons. Schooling and writing were not the focal points of the campaign. Instead it took the form of informal instruction at church and at home in reading, praying and singing the "Word" of God, which was printed in books with Gothic type. The campaign required deep ideological immersion in the life of the church (Johansson 1988:140). Thus through the teaching of biblical texts, the Church controlled the lives of those who were under its influence.

During the period 1643-75 the American Indians were taught to read and write by the Puritan missionaries who saw themselves as saving souls from savagery. Literacy was equated with civilization, the natives being perceived as uncivilized and therefore in need of conversion (Monaghan 1990:493).

Education for Aborigines in Australia was intended to instil obedience and compliance to the dictates of the state and the church (Christie 1990:118).

It is clear that mass literacy was not viewed as a means of developing the individual in order to contribute to the social and economic well-being of the community. Even in Eastern Europe and the United States, the goal of religious literacy programmes was to promote fluency in the oral reading of biblical and

liturgical texts carefully selected to reinforce social control (Hunter & Harman 1979:13). Those who were in power enjoyed a type of monopoly over the illiterate, (political, financial or other) and had the power to determine the type of literacy programmes that would be introduced.

2.3.1.3 *The importance of acknowledging literacy as either a form of social control or as a means of liberation*

Throughout the following chapters the concept of literacy as linked to the ideology of the ruling political sector, will be reiterated. The acknowledgement that the objectives of literacy programmes, as either a means of social control or liberation (in whichever form) are linked to the dominating ideology, is critical for an understanding of the approach to literacy and education as a whole. The importance of this acknowledgement is stressed in Graff's (1979:5) analysis of the 1975 symposium on literacy. He criticizes the manner in which the political considerations are not fully addressed after their initial appearance in the proceedings. Graff (1979:5) states that the intrinsic political act of sponsoring or obstructing literacy provision is barely recognized and hardly debated and that instruction in literacy has always been coloured by the social (and concomitant political) goals of the sponsoring agencies. It is no different today (Graff 1979:5).

2.4 LITERACY PROGRAMMES OF THE PRE-SECOND WORLD WAR PERIOD

2.4.1 Colonial literacy programmes

As discussed in paragraph 2.3.1.2, literacy was a form of social control. The missionaries spearheaded these activities with the aim, as characterised in many African countries, of enhancing Christianity as well as the values of the colonialists. As examples, the cases of Tanzania and Mozambique are quoted.

In **Tanzania** the aim was to use the Tanzanians as a source of cheap labour, dependent on a peasant economy so that the colonialists maintained a monopoly in the externally oriented economy which was based on agricultural commodities (Kweka 1987:33). The missionaries did this through vocational, agricultural and spiritual education.

As **vocational education** was aimed at maintaining the African in the role as set by colonialists and imparting their patriotic values, skills taught were mainly rural-oriented (including literacy and numeracy skills) and farmwork. Less than fifty percent of school-age African children received any form of schooling during this time (Kweka 1987:34).

Agricultural education was the main form of education to peasants. This was done mainly by the Department of Agriculture

and Livestock, schools, some co-operative societies and some mission schools (Kweka 1987:34). The curriculum of the literacy programmes were tailored to ensure that Africans did not develop beyond low-level skills. Thus agriculture, health, home-life training, industry and recreation formed part of the syllabus of elementary and post-elementary schooling (Mlekwa 1990:107).

With regard to **spiritual education**, literacy was taught to the converts who could read the scriptures. Besides the teaching of literacy and spiritual values, the Christian missions wanted to establish centres for the promotion of true religion, agriculture and commerce, very much in line with the economic needs of colonialism (Kweka 1987:38).

During the colonial period in **Mozambique**, the convenience of classifying the Mozambique people as illiterate, by the Portuguese, meant that the state would sponsor schooling as a remedy for this "deficiency" (Marshall 1993:4).

Being literate meant being assimilated into the Portuguese culture, be it at the lowest rung - a mechanism of control (Marshall 1993:4).

Reclassification to the status of "*nao-indegena*" as the status required to gain access to employment or recognition within the Portuguese community, was achieved through mission schools (Newitt 1995:436). A person applying for the status of "nao-

indegena" had to be a practising Christian and have some education, which in turn almost inevitably meant attendance at **mission schools**. It also meant being able to speak, read and write Portuguese. Thus literacy, in terms of Mozambiquan education, during the colonial period, vacillated between the ability to read and write and the ability to speak, read and write Portuguese (Marshall 1993:77). The emphasis on language was thus an important and integral part of knowledge and power (Marshall 1993:77).

2.4.2 Slave literacy: 1830-1865

Biblical literacy according to Cornelius (1983:171) meant the conservation of piety. It was traditionally taught to slaves by their owners during this period and connected their instruction with Christian worship and civilization (Cornelius 1983:171).

Reading was mainly taught, since it was important to read the word of God, but as writing was perceived as a threat to the social order, it was not taught. Yet reading (not to mention writing) skills were not encouraged by the state within the entire Southern parts of the **United States of America**. Severe punishment was meted to those caught reading and writing since those who learned to read and write had more opportunities for learning than other slaves (Cornelius 1983:175).

Accounts indicate that reading and writing skills were not taught as formal schooling activities but rather by the mistress of the house or by the children of slave-owners both to and from school; or during studying time at night. Slave-owners also hired white teachers who also participated in the learning of the slaves (Cornelius 1983:176-177).

Ironically, owners who taught slaves to read also hoped to shield their slaves from the liberating aspects of literacy. One measure is the level of learning attained by ex-slaves under this religiously inspired teaching (Cornelius 1983:179). The texts taught to slaves were carefully selected so as not to influence their minds with thoughts of liberation. Rachal (1986:459) states that since 1740 South Carolina law had forbade teaching slaves to write, though teaching them to read was left to individual masters. The fears of a loss of social control through slaves reading abolitionist literature led to reading being outlawed in the early nineteenth century (Engs 1987:14). According to Rachal (1986:459) for practical and religious reasons masters ignored these laws. Opposition to black literacy added to the sense of its liberating power to the slaves, making them more determined to become literate.

2.4.3 Literacy programmes for the Freedmen

The Freedmen's Bureau existed for a short while during the period 1865-1872. Although it was not wholly successful, it was a source of federal funding purportedly for the advance of black education, including adult education. It was established by the Gideonites who for both humanitarian and religious reasons, hated and condemned slavery (Rachal 1986:457).

The Gideonite Programmes introduced included Sabbath schooling, adult and children day classes , tutorials and evening school (Rachal 1986:464).

Although these various programmes existed the method and subject materials for all of them was the same (Smedley, cited in Rachal 1986:463). The fact that they were all the same indicates that they were not very well planned and that the general attitude of the teachers was that learning was learning and a fact that had to be faced and gone through with, regardless of the method used (Rachal 1986:463).

The problem was further exacerbated by the fact that those involved in teaching were unqualified and inexperienced (Cornelius 1983:176). White adolescents, regardless of the extent of their knowledge or experience, were also allowed to teach and no differentiation in method was made between the

teaching of children and adults. The same pattern was followed, first the learning of a few words to accustom them to the idea of word formation and the sounds of letters in words, after which the sounds of the letters were taught followed by reading and spelling (Rachal 1986:465).

It is not surprising that these programmes were not wholly successful. Rachal (1986:467-469) gives the following reasons:

- * The unrealistic expectation that this method of education and its capacity could effect meaningful social change.
- * No distinction was made (nor does the difference seem to be acknowledged) between the needs and abilities of adult and children learners.
- * No follow-up programmes to these literacy programmes were planned as after the Emancipation Proclamation and the ending of the Civil War adult education was no longer used as an instrument of national policy to equip the freed slaves to enter the main current of American life. The emancipation of blacks was neglected and was allowed to return to its moribund state.

- * There was a lack of experienced and qualified teachers.

- * The teaching methods and materials were inadequate.

The impact of the Freedmen's system is especially questionable in relation to the 1910 Alabama census. The census listed 352,710 of its citizens over ten years of age as being illiterate (Akenson & Neufeldt 1985:189). This number included 40,1 per cent blacks compared to 9,9 per cent whites. Questions were raised concerning the overall impact of the much publicized Freedmen's schools during this period, due to the percentage of illiterates in the over forty-five age group, who reached their educational prime or adulthood during the Civil War and Reconstruction era. The main reason for this was the Alabama 1901 Constitutional Convention which effectively disenfranchised most black male adults (Akenson & Neufeldt 1985:191).

The 1915 Alabama Illiteracy campaign, motivated at least partly by embarrassment over Alabama's poor showing in the U.S. census, as well as by patriotism and a drive for modernization, emerged in the midst of the white supremacy - characterised by increased segregation and disenfranchisement of black voters (Akenson & Neufeldt 1985:191). Illiterate whites were mainly catered for in this campaign, since literacy was a condition for voting. Black males, who had already been disenfranchised were thus not regarded as the prime target. Racism was also the motivation

behind the Southern white female members of the Federation of Women's Clubs who opposed a push for female suffrage fearing that it might lead to the enfranchisement of black women (Akenson & Neufeldt 1985:192).

Thus black educational members themselves, campaigned against illiteracy within their community. Fundraising was done and black teachers conducted classes, including regular day classes, in addition to adult classes two or three nights per week or in the afternoon after the children had been dismissed, as well as teaching at home or in the Sunday Schools (Akenson & Neufeldt 1985:193; Engs 1987:14).

State funding was received in 1919 and "Opportunity Schools" for adults were organised. These meant different things to different people. For those involved in organising schools and teaching black adults, it provided a sense of mission, a feeling of contributing to a holy cause. For many black adult students, it was simply an opportunity to learn to read and write (Akenson & Neufeldt 1985:194). The programmes offered to black illiterate adults were by no means those that would liberate them from their social status in life. It did not cater for critical thinking or anything that would improve the economy of black society. All that it did was to serve the peculiar need of the community (Akenson & Neufeldt 1985:194).

Thus, limited outcomes, in terms of teaching adults the basics they needed to manage in their everyday life, such as helping farmers to read simple instructions about planting and plowing, and to write short records of their work and expenses was the extent to which illiteracy was addressed in the black community (Akenson & Neufeldt 1985:194). Although it was not intentionally done on the part of the black community educationists, it reinforced educational inequality based on racial lines.

2.4.4 The early church literacy campaigns in Sweden

According to Tveit (1991:241) illiteracy in the Nordic countries was eradicated in two stages. These included home instruction and compulsory schooling. Sweden started its campaign of home instruction first and in this sense of literacy, became the first Nordic literate nation. The reason for literacy campaigns taking one of two forms was that the Nordic languages treated the skills of reading and writing as two independent categories (Tveit 1991:241).

The first stage of literacy campaigns was religiously and politically motivated (cf 2.3.1.2). The Church Law of 1686 and Conventicle Edict of 1726 stipulated that all citizens receive fully developed church education both inside and outside the home (Johansson 1988:141; Fagerlind 1990:200).

The literacy campaigns were mostly in the form of reading and were carried out mainly by the ministers of the church, clergymen (within as well as outside their family) and head of the household (within his family only). It was the duty of the parish vicar to inspect the Sexton's instruction, and to decide when a child had acquired religious knowledge necessary for admittance to communion (Tveit 1991:243).

Unlike the literacy programme for the Freedmen (cf 2.4.3) it is clear that more thought went into the planning of the Swedish campaigns since the material and methods are suited to the needs and ability of the child as compared to the adult. ABC-books with a synthetic alphabet method of learning names of letters first, and then gradually learning to combine them into syllables and words was used mainly for the children (Johansson 1988:141). Children were taught the skill of reading in order to help them understand and remember what they had already learned by heart, that is, the aim was ability to read '*known texts*' (Tveit 1991:242). It was the thought at the time that learning should pass from what was concrete to the eye, via memory, to a complete understanding and application (Johansson 1988:142).

Although it took sixty years for the majority of the population to become literate the reading campaign proved successful (Fagerlind 1990:200). Towards the end of the 17th century, the majority of the Swedish population were reported acceptable

readers (Johansson, cited in Tveit 1991:244). Results as gained from church registers at the time indicate that on the basis of various age groups and sex, the highest percentage of literacy was on the part of men (68 percent) compared to women (65 percent) (Johansson 1988:143).

The **second stage** of the literacy campaign was initiated when, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, a rapid population growth, combined with a land reform, produced a literate, landless proletariat who challenged the authoritarian structure of the society as transmitted by the state church (Fagerlind 1990:201). This challenge reiterates the fact that literacy for social control co-exists with literacy for liberation (cf 2.3.1.2), and in fact suggests that the former can lead to the latter.

Whereas the first campaign had been motivated by religious and political control, rapid economic and social changes which were taking place motivated the second stage. Heated debates between liberals and conservatives took place in parliament as to the establishment of elementary schools for the masses (Fagerlind 1990:201).

Around and after 1850 a school campaign was launched. Cognisance of the rapid changes taking place was reflected in the methods and materials introduced. The campaign was centred upon formal

compulsory schooling to read, write, and reckon the 'world' from new books and texts printed or written with modern type (Johansson 1988:155). Whereas the first literacy campaign concentrated on the ability to understand "*known texts*", reading here also included the ability to understand "*unknown texts*". All of this contributed to a second stage of active literacy which may be labelled advanced literacy. The content of this stage in many ways corresponds to the content of present day literacy acquisition and is indicative of the advanced planning abilities of the educationists of that time (Tveit 1991:242).

Home instruction was still considered very important and preceded and supplemented school instruction. Hence a model based on the following structure emerged:

- * 1) Traditional form of popular education under the church divided into a) Traditional popular education for everyone (adults and children), including home instruction and b) Traditional form of home instruction for other children, that is, children not attending school (reading only).

- * 2) New schooling divided into three sections c) School attendance and home instruction for the school children (reading and writing) d) The school as a "school for citizens" for most pupils (more education) e) The

school as a "school for poor" for pupils with deficient home instruction (minimum level) (Johansson 1988:161).

In bridging the gap from basic to advanced literacy, one obstacle to the learning of individual reading was found. Since the understanding of "*known texts*" was based on memorizing, it was with great difficulty that this pattern was broken (Guttormsen cited in Tveit 1991:246-7).

None-the-less, this model of schooling proved to be a major advantage. So much so that Johansson (1988:161) states that Swedish material can be used for setting up new models for literacy campaigns in the developing countries. The reasons for its success can be summarised as follows:

- * The literacy campaigns were well planned and integrated. Two distinct phases with specific aims were followed.
- * A structure based on the model of the two phases was developed in order to accommodate the needs of the population.
- * A distinction was made between the needs and abilities of adult and child learners.

- * The methods and materials were selected according to the abilities of the adult or child learner.

- * The model was motivated by not only political and religious control but considered social and economic changes that took place (Johansson 1988:161).

2.4.5 **Summary: The pre-second world war period**

This period saw tight control over literacy programmes by colonialists and white supremacists with the church playing a central role in maintaining the dominance of the ruling class. Throughout the pre-second world war period the religious role is dominant within literacy programmes, promoting subservience on the parts of the ruled by the teaching of selected Biblical texts.

Yet, at the same time, there exists the perception of literacy as a liberating experience. Thus whilst in the case of religious and politically motivated literacy programmes, only selected texts were taught, the inevitability of the person learning to read and thus being able to read texts other than the selected ones could not be avoided. None-the-less, the expectations people had of this liberating power of literacy was partly misplaced. The reason for this is linked to the literacy programmes themselves. The case of the Freedmen programmes (and

their shortcomings), for example, is indicative of these unrealistic expectations. Due to the methods and materials used, among other reasons as cited, the outcomes of these literacy programmes were limited, not lending themselves to critical thinking or development beyond the level of subservience to the ruling class.

Learning to read in itself thus cannot be viewed as a liberating experience, since crucial aspects of liberation, such as critical thinking, have not been acquired. This suggests that the concept of literacy as a tool of social control proved more powerful during the pre-second world war period.

The central role of language as both a tool of control or liberation is emphasised in the experiences of the Australian Aborigines, the Mozambicans and the American slaves. The importance of language as part of a liberating experience has led to debates on African languages being used by the people of Africa as access not only to education and culture but to the exercise of political and economic power as well. These discussions during the 1962-64 period led to UNESCO deciding in favour of adult education in African languages (Mazrui & Wondji 1993:530-531).

Yet the effect of the use of language as a means of social control has not been shaken even within present day society. The

perception of the importance of language as a criterion upon which literacy was based, affected the lives and views of many Africans, even during the post-second world war era. While some did develop critical perspectives on schooling, many accepted the colonialists' attitudes towards language and dialect and which was appropriate for use in the classroom. Acceptable roles for teachers and students and the manner of schooling was also affected, these affecting social learning over the years (Marshall 1993:79).

Despite the largely negative effects of the literacy programmes of this era it did have some positive outcomes. It provided access to literacy and education opening a pathway, however narrow and restricted, for all to play some part in the emerging modern political and economic order (Newitt 1995:436).

In the case of Sweden it rendered an entire nation literate and served as a model for campaigns in other countries.

2.5 THE POST-SECOND WORLD WAR PERIOD

As mentioned in the introductory paragraph (cf 2.1) historical perspectives have contributed greatly to types of literacy programmes presented. The strong link between literacy programmes as influenced by the perspectives of the ruling classes during the pre-second world war period, is not lost after the war. It is only the perceptions regarding the value of

literacy which changes, depending on the new ruling class. Literacy has also been linked to economic consequences, for example, in the 1970's the cost linked to illiteracy in the United States was estimated at that time to be at least six billion dollars yearly (Kozol 1980:2). This section presents close studies of three countries, namely, Tanzania and Mozambique as examples of developing countries and modernizing nationalism (Bhola 1988:29) and the United States of America (USA) as an example of capitalism (Hartnett & Naish 1990:15).

2.5.1 Modernizing nationalism

It is ironical that those who gained control during the post-second world war period, the educated elite, did so precisely because of their ability to master the language of the colonizer. They had an advantage over their main rivals, the traditional rulers, in their bid for succession to the colonialists since their education afforded them the ability to transcend the bounds of ethnicity set by the African languages. Though an insignificant minority, the educated elite were the ones who had the political awareness (Mazrui & Wondji 1993:679-680).

In many nations newly independent after World War II, adult literacy became a high national priority. Due to experiences of the pre-second world war era it became the focus of new governments to include the unschooled in economic and social

development (Hunter & Harman 1979:14). This focus led to the concept of literacy as a function facilitating the process, and more attention was given to the functional aspect rather than the standards or content of literacy. It is argued that this concept could be a natural outgrowth of liberal social thought, an attempt to state that persons and societies need more than reading and writing skills (Hunter & Harman 1979:14).

The concept of "modernizing nationalism" is one which springs from the perceptions the Third World countries had of themselves. Third world countries saw themselves as underdeveloped in terms of their economies, and there was a strong desire to "modernize", that is, to improve the economy to the standards they perceived the capitalist countries to have achieved. In order to do this, there was a great desire to improve literacy levels, which was seen as a means to a better economy, and therefore a better lifestyle (Bhola 1988:30).

Modernizing nationalism has two dimensions, namely ideology and technology (Bhola 1988:15). Ideology includes modernization, democratization and universalism whereas technology seeks to make use of both science and tradition. According to Bhola (1988:15) the post-second world war generation by no means lost its preoccupation with ideals, ethical standards and comprehensive views - the stuff that ideologies are made of and adult education (including adult literacy) is no exception. None-the-less,

regardless of the nature of the ideology, as specific to a particular country, there seems to be convergence in the development of ideologies in all developing nations. All seem to subscribe to the ideology of a *modernizing nationalism* (Bhola 1988:29).

This idea gained wide acceptance in the first decade of post-colonial African independence and is based on the theory of unequal development between the advanced capitalist countries and Third World countries in terms of their economy (Hutton 1992:26). The assumption is that all countries need to go through the same stages of growth as industrialised countries go through in order to remedy deficiencies and thereby reach the same state of grace as the advanced capitalist countries (Hutton 1992:26).

Modernisation, for the people of the Third World countries meant freedom from the bonds of the colonialists and improvement in living standards. At the core of this was literacy, not just as a process of learning the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, but a contribution to the liberation of man and to his full development (Perspepolis, cited in Bhola 1988:30). Literacy and education are linked to modernisation through the notion of investment in human capital, a means of liberation, as opposed to its previous role as a measure of social control (Hutton 1992:26).

The following section takes a closer look at particular programmes as influenced by the theory of modernization, with particular reference to case studies in two Third World countries, namely, Tanzania and Mozambique.

2.5.1.1 *Tanzania*

During the **early independence period** in Tanzania, adult education was at the core of national development. In support of UNESCO's theories of the promotion of adult education to enable the adults to understand the social and technical changes taking place in Africa, President Nyerere, in his introduction of the First Five Year Development Plan, said the following:

"First we must educate adults. Our children will not have an impact on our economic development for five, ten or even twenty years" (Kweka 1987:43-44).

The emphasis on adult education (including adult literacy) was largely prompted by the high percentage of adult illiteracy at the time of independence. Rated at 75 percent, little effort had been made at first to decrease this figure. Whatever effort had been made had been in the absence of socio-economic transformation in the wider society with negative consequences. The party and government gradually realised that there could be no sound and meaningful development without improvement of literacy levels and a ministry of community development and

national culture was established (Mlekwa 1990:117-118).

According to Kassam (1978:2) adult education received special attention since it was increasingly recognised as having a crucial role to play in accelerating the improvement of living conditions of the people and bringing about rapid economic development.

The ministry introduced literacy programmes which varied from literacy classes, women's groups and self-help projects. These contributed to adult literacy class attendance of approximately six million adults. Of this figure more than fifty percent were women (Mpogolo, cited in Mlekwa 1990:118). The imbalances caused during the colonial period in terms of the neglect of literacy with regard to women was at least being addressed. Yet a number of factors contributed to a high dropout rate in adult learners leading to the Arusha Declaration in 1967.

These factors include:

- * A lack of a clearly defined national policy on adult education.
- * A lack of proper training in adult education work.
- * A lack of suitable materials.

- * A tendency to use the "3-Rs" approach.
- * A paternalistic attitude and approach to handling adults in the literacy classes.
- * Poor quality in terms of the actual literacy training rendered to adults.
- * Difference in perception of the utility of literacy classes between the adult learners and state functionaries. While the functionaries viewed it as a nationalistic undertaking, the former perceived it to be an activity that was more suited for children (Kassam 1978:3; Kweka 1987:46; Mlekwa 1990:119).

The high dropout rate caused the government to react in an authoritarian manner - making classes compulsory and lack of attendance therefore punishable. Adults thus attended these classes as a means of pleasing the authorities and passing the time (Mlekwa 1990:120).

The **Arusha Declaration** was aimed at mainly developing the rural areas and within this context the emphasis on adult education was the same (Mlekwa 1990:120). After 1967, a coherent political ideology of *ujamaa* (familyhood) and self-reliance was formulated and adult education acquired supreme importance and its role in

development was clearly defined (Kassam 1978:3).

Primary schools now performed a dual role, operating as community education centres offering primary education to children on the one hand and adult literacy classes on the other. The primary school teachers, various ministries and organizations offered, in addition to their regular duties, co-operation in adult education work (Thompson 1981:318).

The year 1970 was declared by President Nyerere as "Adult Education Year" with the emphasis on adult education for improving the quality of life of the peasants and workers by enabling them to build better houses, to use better tools in order to raise agricultural and industrial productivity and to improve their health through employing modern methods of hygiene. Furthermore, it was declared that adult education ought to help in changing people's attitudes towards themselves, their fellow human beings and their cultural milieu, while also enabling them to understand national economic development plans so that they could play their part in making them a success for the benefit for all (Kweka 1987:48; Mlekwa 1990:128).

According to Mlekwa (1990:129-131) and Kassam (1978:4) the policies which evolved from President Nyerere's speech, emphasised skill and knowledge for increased productivity and modernization rather than skill and knowledge creation for human

liberation. Although these policies contained the essence of what literacy training should entail active participation of workers and peasants in their formulation was minimal. This was so since people at the grassroots level had not been involved in the formulation of these policies (Mlekwa 1990:132).

Instructional materials with regard to the literacy campaign included literacy primers based on economic preoccupations, family care and political education. Since all resources were free, the government spent a considerable amount (no less than 10% of the total budget of the Ministry of Education) on adult education and training (Mlekwa 1990:135). Foreign aid from countries such as Japan, India and West Germany was considerable. Some of these were in the form of sponsoring **Folk Development Colleges (FDC)** with sponsorship from Sweden mainly for infrastructure and transport (Norbeck 1995:1).

The main intention of the FDC was to make it possible for young adult students to develop themselves through education and thereby help the development of their villages (Norbeck 1995:1; Kassam 1978:95). Facilities for a wider variety of short courses for local leadership cadres were to be provided, the participants being selected by their fellow villagers. They in turn would communicate what they had learned to their fellows on return to the village, and play a leading role in applying this knowledge (Thompson 1981:249).

Theoretically it was decided that the contents of the courses should be adapted to the needs of the students and the local community. Therefore, 40% of the curriculum would be based on theory with 60% to be allocated to practical subjects. Students would choose from Agriculture, Technical subjects and Domestic Sciences and participate in general subjects such as Political Science and English in order to help them become more functional citizens (Norbeck 1995:1; Kassam 1978:98). This however did not materialise for various reasons. These included:

- * Students were not recruited according to the intentions.
- * The villages did not define and organize the development programmes, to which the graduates were supposed to return.
- * Once graduates had the opportunity, emigration to urban areas was preferred, thus they did not plough their knowledge back into their rural communities.
- * Adult literacy teachers included volunteers and professionals, who although they both made considerable contributions to literacy training, also had their shortcomings. The professionals were mostly primary school teachers who had little or no training in adult

psychology or adult education methods and the volunteers were mostly too young to handle adults, in addition to possessing poor levels of education to manage effective teaching.

- * Principals and teaching staff who were recruited received only one or two months' training before being sent to respective stations. This training was insufficient to obliterate the traditional and static school system with its colonial style teaching which was harsh and authoritarian and consisted mainly of repetition (Mlekwa 1990:137).

Despite this, illiteracy levels dropped from 69 percent in 1969 to 9.6 percent in 1986. Illiteracy amongst women was still higher than that of men, partly due to the division of labour on a sexual basis (Mlekwa 1990:139).

In order for the majority of people within the rural areas to gain maximum access to learning opportunities, supporting programmes in the forms of rural libraries, rural newspapers, radio educational programmes, film education, correspondence studies, folk development college studies, and vocational training centres were initiated (Mlekwa 1990:139). Mass education campaigns, in order to address specific economic, political and cultural problems, also made an important

contribution to the development of adult education and training. These programmes, although successful to a considerable extent, also had setbacks due to the following factors (Hall, cited in Mlekwa 1990:141):

- * An inadequate supply and/or poor distribution of the required materials and equipment.
- * A lack of competent personnel to manage them, particularly in the case of rural libraries.
- * A lack of feedback and follow-up learning.

Adult literacy and training no longer maintained its central position in the party and government in the late 1970's leading to the abandonment of the programmes initiated by the Institute of Adult Education in the early 1970's. This, coupled with the economic crisis in the 1980's caused a severe setback in the provision of adult education and training as government was forced to reduce its national budget for education from 14.1 percent (1975/76) to 6.5 percent (Mlekwa 1990:144).

Due to strong international criticism of Tanzania's domestic policies, foreign aid, especially from major contributors such as Sweden, was slow in forthcoming. Careful justification was therefore demanded by the Swedish government and public of

programmes being funded in Tanzania (Mlekwa 1990:140). In order to prevent those who had benefitted from the programmes (neo-literates) in the early 1970's from regressing, and to encourage continual learning a more work-oriented, post-literacy curriculum comprised of three stages (elementary, intermediate and advanced) was introduced in 1987 (Mlekwa 1990:144). Thus, for example the FDCs which were still funded by Sweden received a major overhaul. FDC staff members were to be trained to apply a participative learning pedagogy to promote democratic attitudes and behaviour as well as critical thinking in order to release the creative powers within the students (Norbeck 1995:3).

Selected staff were trained in Sweden to learn for themselves how participative pedagogy functioned and to be able to train staff within Tanzania. Leaders in the field of education such as principals together with central administration staff were also introduced to new modern leadership principles through courses conducted in Sweden. Those who completed the courses were used as leaders to introduce changes to auxiliary staff. However due to the lack of time and other resources, the training of auxiliary staff has not taken place (Norbeck 1995:4).

Students could opt for one of four streams, namely agriculture, technical crafts, domestic science or worker's education (office work or industrial work) (Mlekwa 1990:144). Adult students were no longer being treated as children and began to be creative and

took their own initiatives in looking for alternative sources of learning and using these in various ways (Norbeck 1995:4).

However, adult education and training had indeed suffered a severe blow. Post-literacy education programmes no longer enjoyed the financial support of national and international aid. Besides FDC's, other existing literacy training programmes became more rigid and insensitive to changing priorities, as well as to the worsening economic conditions (Mlekwa 1990:144).

(a) *Conclusion with regard to education and training in Tanzania*

The Tanzanian literacy campaign is a great learning experience for literacy campaigns for Transkei since its functions, successes and failures and the accompanying reasons for these can be considered when planning and presenting literacy programmes.

The post-second world war literacy campaigns of Tanzania have taught us the following lessons:

(i) The Early Independence Period

- * Socio-economic transformation within the wider society must be included in the development of literacy campaigns. It was later acknowledged that this played

an integral and vital part of the country's development strategy.

- * A clearly defined national policy on adult education is essential.

- * The quality in terms of literacy campaigns rendered is dependent on a number of factors:
 - (i) Proper training in adult education work.
 - (ii) Suitable materials for adult education.

- * The perception of the utility of literacy classes between adult learners and state functionaries should be similar.

(ii) The Arusha Declaration And After

- * Literacy programmes should also be geared towards the improvement of rural lifestyles.

- * Learning centres can perform dual roles, for example, primary schools can also operate as community education centres.

- * Members of the community can co-operate in adult education work.

- * Literacy classes should include skills and knowledge for increased productivity and modernization.

- * The formulation of policies affecting people at grassroots level should be done in consultation with them otherwise active participation on their side may be minimal.

- * The training of literacy educators is vital and the following should be considered:
 - (a) Training in adult psychology.
 - (b) Training in adult education methods.
 - (c) Maturity of the potential adult education trainers.
 - (d) A reasonable training period should be employed.

- * Access to learning opportunities should be maximized through support programmes, for example, rural libraries.

- * Feedback mechanisms should be employed.

- * Follow-up learning is vital.

(iii) The Future

- * Funding from various sources (including government and foreign) is vital to sustain literacy programmes.
- * Regression to a state of illiteracy should be prevented and continual learning should be encouraged through the introduction of a work-oriented, post-literacy curriculum.
- * Trainers should be exposed to techniques which encourage the application of a more participative learning pedagogy.
- * Trainers should be able to train potential trainers as well.
- * Adult learners should not be taught in the same way as children.

During the Second Five Year Development Plan when adult education was geared towards the improvement of rural lifestyles, success in terms of improved literacy levels was achieved. This emphasises the importance of adult education being linked to the situational factors in order for it to be relevant and successful. Yet, within this context it is also important that

the necessary trained personnel, teaching techniques and materials be available in order to motivate the learners as the Tanzanian experience proved that without these adult education and training, and thus literacy programmes as a whole, can suffer severe setbacks.

2.5.1.2 *Mozambique*

With the gaining of independence after the coup of 1974, the broad literacy movement that had emerged in Mozambique immediately before and after independence, saw a shift in what it meant to be illiterate. Illiteracy now no longer held connotations of being 'uncivilized' in the Portuguese context, but instead took on a new meaning as a socially created state of deprivation, the result of a historic denial of access to education that had intentionally created ignorance in an entire people (Marshall 1993:106).

The Mozambique Liberation Front (FRELIMO), as part of its new political dispensation launched literacy campaigns for both adults and children, which included rich experiences of popular education at community level (Marshall 1993:107). Adult literacy was seen by FRELIMO as a means of raising the level of political, scientific and technical knowledge of the people in order to increase production and encourage popular participation in political and economic life (Lind 1988:3).

Although many primary schools were established, literacy classes for members of the army and adults also took place (Munslow 1983:99, Lind 1988:40). While, at first the needs and expectations of literacy and popular education was closely linked to the armed struggle, other forms of popular education also emerged (Munslow 1983:98-99; Marshall 1993:107; Leatt, Kneifel & Nurnberger 1986:164).

One such was village meetings which provided people with the opportunity to address the ravages of colonialism in shaping people to view themselves and their worlds in distorted ways. It engendered a social literacy, empowering women and men to see themselves and their experiences as useful and interesting, the real resources for building a new Mozambican society and advancing the war (Marshall 1993:111 & 114). Munslow (1983:150) and Newitt (1995:549) highlight the political role of these communal villages in the rural areas and structures of workers' control in industry. The political education received within these groups was a means of ensuring that the masses remained firmly behind FRELIMO's goal of achieving a socialist revolution.

The concept of people's power gained momentum and when those who advocated it triumphed in the Second Congress of 1968, it resulted in a number of consequences for education. The new emphasis on education with particular reference to literacy was now:

- * The promotion of intensive literacy campaigns among the masses of the people, men, women, old and young.

- * The establishment of a system which would make it possible for students to interrupt their studies temporarily in order to participate in teaching and literacy campaigns (Marshall 1993 114-116).

The literacy campaign embarked on by Frelimo addressed issues such as traditional knowledge and practices (Newitt 1995:547). Literacy became a means of modernization not only in the social sense but in terms of the economy as well. The number of children enrolled in primary and secondary schools increased dramatically at this time, with rapid escalation in numbers in the four year primary school programme in the various provinces to well over 20,000 (Marshall 1993:116).

During the period immediately after independence, changes were begun on all fronts. In the first six years primary school enrolment doubled from 700,000 to 1,376,000, while the numbers in secondary education rose from 20,000 to 135,000. The adult literacy campaigns achieved some results. In 1981 half a million people were enrolled in such schemes (Newitt 1995:549).

In September 1974 the transitional government was established and the foundation of Dynamizing Groups (DGs) was laid (Marshall

1993:119). They were formed everywhere possible and served a number of functions, although principally they were to incorporate the mass of the population into the political process by holding regular meetings and acting as a local catalyst for change (Munslow 1983:151).

It was through these DGs that a massive literacy campaign was launched, which led to the increased levels of attendance at the various levels (Munslow 1983:151; Marshall 1993:119). It was through the campaign as spearheaded by the DGs that the sense of people's power came strongly to the fore as each and every person was involved. Even those possessing little education taught those who had none at all. The cultural dimension particularly, was emphasised, as songs and dances were devised to address particular problems. Vigilance was emphasised as opposed to laziness, used as a popular tactic of resistance against the colonialists. Women were also actively involved in these programmes, as the emphasis was on involving all people in the political and developmental processes (Munslow 1983:151-53; Marshall 1993:118-125).

A discussion on the Sofala district, by Marshall (1993:120-123) indicates how the methodology for literacy was locally determined. Three sources of literacy materials were basically used. Existing material was either adapted, primary school texts were used or Paulo Freire's methodology based on a code of 'generative

words' derived from the social milieu of the students were used. There were also reports of centres that began by rote teaching vowels, and then moved onto consonants, words and phrases (Marshall 1993:120).

Although there were quite a few cases in which it was hard to distinguish between adult literacy and expanded primary schooling for children, the enthusiasm behind the drive for people's power did not seem to deter these adults from their goal. Even the many problems did not deter the people from actively participating as problem solvers. For example, the lack of finance motivated them to raise funds. Especially within the districts, the character of the literacy activities was decentralised allowing much opportunity for local initiatives (Marshall 1993:121).

Despite all these efforts the literacy programmes were not as successful as was hoped. Once literacy programmes became state-controlled (1976) a number of factors impeded their success. The largest were poor teaching methods and materials, and the inability of the majority of learners to master Portuguese. Once again the issue of language is an important one, and has generated a voluminous literature on the subject (Watson 1982:190). Besides language, the issue of the trainers involved in the mass literacy campaigns launched after 1978 were regularly cited as one of the fundamental weaknesses of the campaigns

(Marshall 1993:139). Although emphasis was laid on education for modernization, the curricula and syllabuses were largely unchanged in many of their essential ingredients, when compared to the colonial period. This was either due to inertia or as a direct result of overseas assistance in the form of personnel and textbooks. This saw a return to the formal school system of colonial legacy (Watson 1982:190; Marshall 1993:140).

(a) Conclusion with regard to adult education and training in Mozambique

As in the case of Tanzania, the Mozambican literacy campaign can be a great learning experience for literacy campaigns for Transkei because of the following lessons:

- * Experiences of popular education at community level should be included in literacy campaigns.
- * The needs and expectations of literacy and popular education should not only be linked to an armed struggle, but should have a broader context such as social literacy.
- * Traditional knowledge and practices which condemn people to poverty, make them superstitious and perpetuate tyranny of certain customs, should be

addressed within literacy campaigns.

- * Literacy should become a means of social as well as economic modernization.
- * Groups, such as the Dynamizing Groups, should be established as catalysts for change. The advantages of such groups include:
 - * Increased attendance on the part of the learners.
 - * Active involvement by the learners.
 - * An emphasis on the cultural dimension.
- * Although finance is a central key to literacy campaigns, the lack of finance should not deter people from their goal. People should be actively involved in fundraising.
- * State-control literacy can have disadvantages which can be attributed to :
 - * Poor teaching methods and materials;
 - * The inability of learners to master a foreign language, for example, Portuguese;
 - * Unchanged curricula and syllabi, for example, from

the pre-independence period, in order to accommodate the process of modernization. This can lead to a return to the formal school system of the colonial period.

2.5.2 Conclusions with regard to literacy in relation to third world countries

Within the examples of underdeveloped countries discussed, the following conclusions can be made: Much too often, having an ideology is not the same as practising an ideology (Bhola 1992:32). That which is meant and that which is practised, differ somewhat as is evident within the cases of Mozambique and Tanzania.

Both Tanzania and Mozambique had suffered a great deal in terms of colonisation. Both countries embarked on literacy programmes as a means of liberating their people from the ravages of colonisation and to help themselves become economically and socially strong (education for modernization). Literacy was strongly linked to the political struggle and as such to the ideology of the ruling class. Yet they were not wholly successful and for a number of reasons. These are reflected in the experiences of both countries and can be summarised as follows:

- * The most important factor is the unrealistic faith put in education alone as the saviour from oppression.

- * The needs of the people and of the government with regard to education were not the same. Whereas literacy had become a political tool for the state, it had not met the basic need of the people, namely that of an improved lifestyle.

- * Financial constraints also saw the phasing out of literacy programmes thereby causing neo-literates to fall back into a state of illiteracy.

- * Incorrect teaching methods and materials added to the failure. This contributed to high dropout rates and ultimately failure to reach the goals as primarily set out.

- * Adult learners were often treated as children.

- * Adult literacy trainers were not properly trained.

2.5.3 Capitalism

As stated by Hartnett and Naish (1990:15) if there is an inextricable connection between politics, on the one hand, and schooling and conceptions of education, on the other, then particular political values and their associated conceptions of education are likely to be reflected in the policies and practices of schooling proportionately to the degree of political power they can summon in their support. The USA is a predominantly capitalistic country with its main source of motivation being economic power linked to political power, in line with its capitalists values. Thus it follows that its schools would be influenced by these values, and as such produce a work-force able and willing to staff occupational positions in the capitalist system (Bowles & Gintis 1976:53-54).

2.5.3.1 *The United States Of America (USA)*

A number of contradictory views exist with regard to the capitalist system of education in the U.S.A. On the one hand it is said to teach conformity and acquiescence rather than to emancipate. It serves the purposes and functions to the benefit of corporate capitalism (Nicholas 1983:211). The socio-economic mobility that American education claims to promote is also viewed as a myth as it is claimed that those who managed to achieve it were the exception rather than the rule (Bowles & Gintis, cited

in Nicholas 1983). The message regarding capitalist programmes of education is largely pessimistic according to sources in Carnoy (1990:91-99).

On the other hand it is claimed that capitalist education contributes or is likely to contribute to the emergence of a more just social order, unscarred by poverty. A system of compensatory education and positive discrimination in resource allocations would ensure prosperity. This system promotes the interests of the disadvantaged and impoverished and provides them with a wider variety of opportunities in life (Carnoy 1990:88-89). However, Bowles and Gintis (1976:108) claim that this is a fallacy, that capitalist education with its emphasis on human capital, has not led to equalised opportunities for all, but has instead favoured the individual, more especially from a better social class and family background. This is precisely so since education is not a neutral force, but is rather a product of, and conditioned by, the capitalist economy of which it is an integral cultural component (Carnoy 1990:95).

The following section presents and examines some of the USA's literacy programmes, bearing the criticisms by the above-mentioned authors in mind.

According to Long (1980:309) in **early America** literacy rates were high, due to three factors, namely, commerce, apprenticeship and

private venture teachers. These factors aided in forcing colonialists especially in the urban areas, to develop basic literacy skills of the population.

During the early period of American colonialism the basis of the economy was agriculture. Using simple European technology combined with methods adopted from the Indians only enough volume was produced for the local markets. Increased production was further hampered by labour shortages and capital. Yet international commerce flourished relatively as other commercial products were exported. Due to this there was a need for young men with basic literacy skills that could be further developed into able business associates. Thus skills such as penmanship, bookkeeping or merchant's accounts and practical mathematics were developed mainly at private venture schools.

The demand for these skills grew so great that it even influenced the curricula of a number of colleges who had been more inclined towards the arts and sciences (Long 1980:305-306).

Apprenticeships took the shape of one of three forms; a) voluntary b) parents placing their children under a master c) church or civil officials placing poor and orphaned youngsters with masters as apprentices. After 1620, laws regarding the education of apprentices as a responsibility of their masters led to the establishment of evening schools where they were taught

reading, writing and arithmetic (Long 1980:306).

Private venture teachers were mainly involved in developing basic skills such as spelling, writing and arithmetic.

During the **post-colonial period** the problem of illiteracy remained. In his work on the dimensions of the problem concerning adult illiteracy in the USA, Kozol (1980:1) states that estimates regarding the numbers of illiterate men and women differ so widely that only one thing seems to be beyond debate: Nobody knows how many illiterates there are today in the United States. Almost every estimate is extremely high.

This is despite the many literacy programmes that American society has embarked upon, be it state-sponsored, private ventures or industry-related amongst others (Dekker 1993:297-298).

Varnum (1986:3), argues that there is no literacy crisis within the United States. He states that in order for such a crisis to be said to exist, three criteria should be met, namely that within a particular educational system, literacy standards must be shown either to have declined relative to a previous era, or to be inferior to a standard attained in a different national system, or to be lower than what society has come to need and expect. This is not the case in the United States, rather there

are higher expectations due to economic progress (Varnum 1986:145).

None-the-less there was a large number of the adult population that suffered educational disadvantages, the exact number not known, and programmes were introduced to address this problem.

Due to the extent of the problem legislation during the 1960's established adult basic education (ABE) in order to provide instruction for adults 16 years of age and older who were out of school and who had not completed high school (Hunter & Harman 1979:57-58). Approximately 60 million American adults were considered to be legitimate candidates for the ABE programmes which were designed to promote literacy or to provide credentials and these were labelled the target population. Yet only about between 2 and 4 million adults (the demand population) actually enrolled for the programmes. A few of the reasons offered for this huge gap between target and demand population include, according to Hunter & Harman (1979:58-70):

- * Cultural and linguistic barriers.
- * Fear of failing.
- * Distrust of the institutions of the mainstream culture.

- * Reliance on the electronic media as a substitute for the written word.

- * The ability of some to find satisfaction despite low levels of academic attainment.

- * Poor attendance either complicated by "mix of students" and "turnover".

- * High drop-out rates especially within the lower income groups seemingly since :
 - (a) The curriculum did not meet their needs as well as the needs of those who were in the middle income or relatively affluent groups.

 - (b) The inability of the teachers to identify with, understand or meet their needs as most were not from the poverty-stricken areas. Counselling, or assistance of any other nature which could have assisted in the successful completion of the programmes by these students, was therefore lacking.

- * Lack of funding for teacher training.

- * Lack of funds among the most disadvantaged who could not pay for their own education which included costs of childcare and transportation among others.

- * Poor administration of funds which before 1974 was administered by the Office of Education and thereafter by the State.

- * The needs of the educational system was prioritised instead of the needs and the abilities of the learners.

Kozol (1980:19) puts it differently, stating that major breakdowns and distinctions within the target population seem to fall between those who do and those who do not believe in the 'good life' that the social system claims to offer to those men and women who possess the appropriate skills.

It is therefore suggested that for these and other reasons inter-institutional delivery systems based on carefully worked-out local agreements among both private and public institutions should be established (Hunter & Harman 1979:101).

Taking into consideration the proposal that institutions should work together (Hunter & Harman 1979:101) and that the changing economic and demographic needs of society determine the nature of literacy programmes (Varnum 1986:147) contemporary American

society will next be discussed in terms of its demographic, economic and technological situation and programmes as offered by community colleges.

With regard to its **demographic situation**, according to population statistics, the population of the U.S.A. seems to be getting older and living longer. Whereas in the year 1950 only 8 per cent of the population was older than 65, in the year 2000 this figure is expected to rise by 12% (Withnall & Kabwasa 1989:319). It is therefore not surprising that more adults have become involved in education, either as means of improving their job marketability or keeping up with rapid technological changes amongst other reasons. But the U.S.A is changing ethnically as well and this has far-reaching implications for adult education (Rachal 1989:5).

In 1990 12.6% of the American population was black, 7.9% Spanish with hundreds and thousands of immigrants from Puerto Rico and East Asia, and other illegal immigrants. This contributed to the change in the demographic nature of the country with an increase in demand for a number of educational programmes for various levels of literacy, English as a second language, vocationally orientated education, or preparing programmes for citizenship (Titmus, cited in Lemmer 1993:296). The potential for social conflict in such a situation is great and therefore it would be the responsibility of adult education to foster social tolerance

and interdependence (Rachal 1989:5).

As an industrialised country with great and rapidly changing **technological advancement**, it is not only the individual's life which is affected but also the way in which society handles education. Teaching media are also constantly improving, making lifelong learning increasingly necessary and possible.

Technological change leads to an increase in work-related adult education and for this reason the private sector puts significant investment in adult education. In fact the private sector spends \$30 billion on formal training with Federal government spending \$5 billion per year. The state and local government also invest in adult education. Many industries have now established separate training centres for adults, rather than on-the-job training (Lemmer 1993:296). Titmus (cited in Lemmer 1993:297) asserts that there have been changes in workforce patterns. The working week has shortened since the first half of the twentieth century and the workforce is getting older. The shortened working week means that adults are not as tired as they used to be and they have more time and energy to engage in adult education programmes if they so wish.

The tempo of **social change** has increased tremendously with profound implications for adult education in equipping individuals to adjust to change. As changes in society creates needs, one of the purposes behind the provision of adult

education is to respond adequately and creatively to these needs (Rachal 1989:9-13).

In response to a changing society, Varnum (1986:147) argues that literacy programmes should change in response to the new needs which arise. Thus in technologically advanced America there is a need for a different literacy programme, a more advanced programme of adult education (AE). One of the responses (with regard to AE) to the situational factors of the U.S.A, was the establishment of **community colleges**.

Initially, they were primarily created to serve a growing population of college-age youth but then persons of all ages began using them, and they gradually evolved into institutions of lifelong learning for all (Yarrington 1989:286).

They are mostly two-year county educational units with the cost of operation divided equally between the state, county, and student. Most of the programmes offered reflect the employment opportunities of the local community, and, therefore, fall within vocational categories (McMahon 1989:108). These institutions now account for more than half of all the colleges in the U.S.A with the average age of those who attend being around thirty years. They offer a wide range of services ranging from professional, technical or liberal arts fields, and leading non-credit programmes (Lemmer 1993:316). These services are in response to

the local needs and community interests. They also co-operate with other educational bodies and a close working relationship is maintained with local business and industry for a number of reasons, part of which are that: the majority of the students are already employed, graduates go to work for local employers and the colleges are supported primarily by local taxes.

The purpose of these colleges are thus threefold (Lemmer 1993:317):

- * Transfer
- * Vocational education
- * Community provision

Some states have even gone as far as integrating the community colleges into their economic development programmes.

Despite these positive attributes, a number of criticisms have been made with regard to these institutions. These include:

- * A narrowly useful general education curricula. Raisman (1994:37) substantiates this view questioning whether community colleges in fact provide an effective avenue to the baccalaureate degree. It is argued that the vocational skills are work specific in order to satisfy the needs of corporations, business councils, and chambers of commerce, as well as state and regional

economic planning agencies who have become an important source of revenue and institutional support (Higginbottom 1994:273 & 278).

- * Due to this reliance on funding there is a possibility that these institutions may become centrally-controlled training agencies. As a result of demographic changes, financial problems and the imposition of political priorities, they have accepted in many cases a purely instrumental vocational approach - the concept of training as preparation for work (Ward 1990:354).

- * Criticisms have also been targeted at the attitudes of these institutions to their students. It is argued that their teaching methods were found to be inadequate, especially for developing higher order cognitive and integrative skills and that instructional methods, known as "bitting" (providing just bits of information and knowledge) were used. Other studies indicate that community college faculty retain low expectations of their students which may indicate that they believe that their students are not academically capable or motivated (Raisman 1994:38).

- * Questions have been raised as to the objectives of community colleges' curricula. It is argued that too

little attention is given to the essence of humanities which connect us to experiences that enlighten and move us and enable us to transcend place, social circumstance, and cultural particularity: the very perspectival achievement on which, one could argue, adaptability, empathy, and tolerance are based.

Models of learning adopted by community colleges have become technically specified omitting critical intellectual enquiries into civic concepts like truth, freedom, obligation, equality and justice. Such concepts that are crucial in helping us bear up under the oppressive weight of ignorance and injustice and in preparing us to take control of and improve our lives, especially our working lives (Higginbottom 1994:285).

Raisman (1994:38) cites a study of the 1989 course offerings at 29 community colleges in the state of Michigan, to attempt to determine the actual condition of general education within community colleges in the state. The following, according to Raisman (1989:41-44) are part of the results which were obtained:

- * Most of the course offerings were in education.

- * Only 16.6% of general education offerings could be classified as sequential follow-up courses, that is, courses which prepared students intellectually in terms

of the knowledge and skills needed to allow the students to build towards a major in an area for transfer to a four year institution.

- * Mathematics, English and Political Science courses were the most common.
- * Remedial courses in areas such as Mathematics and English as a second language were offered but science courses were lacking.
- * General education offerings were extremely low in comparison to career education offerings, and it was also limited in the depth of knowledge it could provide toward a major concentration.

The study concluded that should Michigan be an indicator, these institutions may very well be primarily vocationally oriented due to either changing situational factors, desire for increased state funding or a lack of understanding of what the college actually provided (Raisman 1994:45-46).

Yet McMahon (1989:109) argues that adults usually want specific kinds of instruction, often within a fairly remote part of a very skilled area. If the programme director is not totally aware of the special needs of a particular adult class and if sufficient

care is not exercised in the selection of an instructor, those enrolled may simply cease to attend.

2.5.3.2 *Conclusion with regard to the USA's literacy programmes*

The U.S.A is a good example of contemporary society where there is an imbalance between members of society who are still in need of basic literacy skills and those who demand advanced skills, and the struggle of the state to find a balance in meeting all these needs. Whereas in colonial America certain reading, arithmetic and writing skills (3-Rs) were of importance, the technological advancement of this developed society put greater pressure on all stakeholders to provide more advanced literacy programmes. Combined with this is the constant streaming in of immigrants and those citizens in the lower classes of America's society whose needs also still need to be met.

The introduction of ABE, in order to improve the literacy levels within the the lower classes were largely unsuccessful.

Although Community Colleges in the U.S.A were established in response to the situational factors and as such offered courses in specific vocations, influences such as state funding and the growing need thereof, combined with a number of other factors brought heavy criticism against their role and effectiveness in

society. A number of common factors within the ABE programmes and community colleges can be cited as reasons for partial failure and success regarding adult literacy. Failure can largely be attributed to the inability to meet particular **needs**, including:

- * The needs of the various classes.
- * A tendency to fulfill the needs of the state rather than that of the individual learner.
- * Poor teaching methods and the inability on the part of trainers to identify with the needs of the learners.
- * An irrelevant curriculum or the the inability of curricula to include courses in the humanities which concentrate on developing critical skills other than purely technical skills.

Success can be attributed to:

- * Inter-institutional consultation and co-operation (for example, education institutions, industry and the state).
- * Funding from external institutions, for example, the

state.

- * The change in literacy programmes in response to the changing situational factors.
- * The provision of specific, vocational instruction in response to the special needs of a particular adult class.

This leads to the conclusion that it is always important to have clear objectives set which are conducive to both the individual and society so as to derive mutual benefit. Respect for and knowledge of the learner as well as relevant teaching methods are crucial to effective adult education.

2.6 SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

Throughout this chapter it is indicated that literacy programmes have always been embarked upon because of, and influenced by a particular ideology. Regardless of whether it is the ideologies of the pre-or-post second world war ruling class, a few common issues always arise.

The functions and provision of literacy programmes as perceived by the state differ from the perceptions of the people at large. Teaching methods and materials are not thoroughly thought through

and influence the attendance, and ultimately the success or failure of such programmes. In many cases no differentiation is made between the teaching of adults and children. Attitudes of the teachers towards adult learners are often paternalistic. The utility of literacy classes differ quite often between adult learners and state functionaries. None of the programmes indicate that critical thinking, democratic attitudes and behaviour or creativity were encouraged. Most concentrated on reading and writing skills by rote learning or vocational education. The question of language has also played an important role in determining the success or failure of particular literacy programmes. Lessons learnt from this comparative study can be summarised as follows:

- * It is an unrealistic expectation that literacy campaigns on their own can effect meaningful social change.
- * Socio-economic transformation within the wider society must be included in the development of literacy campaigns.
- * A clearly defined national policy on adult education is essential.
- * Literacy campaigns should be well planned and

integrated.

- * Regression to a state of illiteracy should be prevented and continual learning should be encouraged through the introduction of a work-oriented, post-literacy curriculum.

- * The training of literacy educators is vital and the following should be considered:
 - (a) Training in adult psychology.
 - (b) Training in adult education methods.
 - (c) Maturity of the potential adult education trainers.
 - (d) A reasonable training period should be employed.

- * Distinction should be made between the needs and abilities of adult and children learners.

- * Materials suited to the needs and abilities of the learner should be selected.

- * A literacy model should not be motivated by political and religious control but should consider social and economic conditions.

- * The perception of the utility of literacy classes between adult learners and state functionaries should be similar.
- * Literacy programmes should also be geared towards the improvement of rural lifestyles.
- * It should be acknowledged that learning centres can perform dual roles and should be utilised as such.
- * Members of the community can co-operate in adult education work.
- * Literacy classes should include skill and knowledge for increased productivity and modernization.
- * The formulation of policies affecting people at grassroots level should be done in consultation with them.
- * Access to learning opportunities should be maximized through support programmes.
- * Feedback mechanisms should be employed.
- * Funding from various sources (including government and

foreign) is vital to sustain literacy programmes.

- * Trainers should be exposed to techniques which encourage the application of a more participative learning pedagogy.
- * Trainers should be able to train potential trainers as well.
- * Inter-institutional consultation and co-operation is essential.
- * There should be provision of specific, vocational instruction in response to the special needs of a particular adult class.

These are but a few of the findings which provide us with important lessons for Transkei. When developing new or analysing existing literacy programmes, the above-mentioned are some of the areas which should be considered as guidelines in order for us to be aware of their potential dangers and to develop alternative methods to ensure success. These findings are considered when discussing the role of the Eastern Cape Technikon with regard to literacy in chapter four.

This chapter thus, together with the discussion in chapter three on the development, role and tasks of technikons in general, lays the foundations for chapter four.

CHAPTER THREE

TECHNIKONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the research aims, as outlined in chapter one, is to establish the development and the traditional role and tasks of South African Technikons. Chapter three thus presents a general discussion of the development, role and tasks of technikons in South Africa as institutions of higher learning.

By establishing the traditional role of technikons, and therefore of the Eastern Cape Technikon as well, a premise is laid for the fourth chapter in which the role of the Eastern Cape Technikon with regard to literacy is discussed.

As stated in the second chapter the underlying ideologies of the ruling class, inter alia, determine the nature of the education system within a particular country (cf 2.2). As the Afrikaner Nationalists governed South Africa for more than thirty years (1948-1990) the ideology as practised by them has strongly influenced the nature of education as it is currently practised in South Africa. This includes the nature and development of technikons. Thus the development and traditional role and tasks of technikons require an understanding of the South African

education system as it was practised during the apartheid era and thus an historical overview of this is firstly presented.

Within the role of technikons itself the quality or inequality of higher education in South Africa is examined as a consequence of Afrikaner ideology, conclusions are drawn and recommendations are made for the future.

3.2 AFRIKANER NATIONALISM AS IDEOLOGY IN SOUTH AFRICA

Recently South Africa has been governed by a government of national unity, and is presently under the sole governance of the ANC (Claassen 1995:460). Regardless of this, it is the previous government's policy of apartheid, based on their Afrikaner Nationalist ideology which has largely influenced and still influences the nature of education in South Africa.

Bunting (1994:2), in his critical overview of the state of higher education (including technikons) in South Africa during the years 1986-1992, states that it is important to view the South African model of education within the boundaries of Afrikaner Nationalism for two main reasons:

- (a) Since the previous government's educational policies and structures were still in place, the 'educational reality' which any analysis of the period 1986-1992 must take into account, is the division of institutions

into three 'own affairs' and various 'general affairs' groupings.

- (b) Unless the four 'population group' categories are used in an analysis of the current state of higher education in South Africa, the extent of the major inequalities which have existed and still exist in this system will inevitably be hidden.

The need to understand apartheid education is vital to the understanding of the provision of separate educational facilities for the various ethnic groups in South Africa (Behr 1988:12). Afrikaner nationalism forms part and parcel of South Africa's complex history. A force which mobilised the resources of 'Afrikanerdom' to fight the perceived challenges of British imperialism and a black majority in South Africa, it is the ideology of the Nationalist regime that has ruled South Africa for nearly forty years (Leatt, Kneifel & Nurnberger 1986:66).

Although throughout South Africa's history and policies '*institutionalised racism*' has pervaded, it was the legislative blitzkrieg that followed the National Party's accession to power in 1948 that entrenched apartheid - Afrikaner nationalism's policy of separation based on race (Leat et al. 1986:67). It has been argued that this policy of apartheid is a front for the inequality of capitalism in South Africa based along racial

lines. Legassick (cited in Leatt et al. 1986:67) states that apartheid has operated simultaneously as an expression of the domination of capital in South Africa and as an expression concerned to reproduce (in changing forms) separate 'racial' and 'cultural' identities. It is within these parameters that the education model, whose influence still presides to a great extent currently, was established. However many ideologically diffuse arguments there may exist about the purposes of education, few would deny that it plays an integral part in the political and economic progress of societies. The realities of power and social class and the organisation of socio-economic structures are perhaps nowhere more clearly revealed than in a country's educational institutions (Nasson & Samuel 1990:1). It is within this context that the apartheid education model will be discussed.

3.3 THE APARTHEID EDUCATION MODEL

It is said to be common knowledge that South Africa is experiencing an acute shortage of skilled manpower, especially in the technological vocations and that this shortage is most acute within the black sector of South Africa (Goodey 1987:3; Barker 1983:5). The problem is further exacerbated by the fact that the white population's labour potential has been nearly fully tapped whereas the black population's huge labour potential has hardly been developed. This springs forth from the inequality of

education as promoted by the apartheid education model and has left a huge black workforce greatly disadvantaged. Statistics provided by Goodey (1987:86) indicate the need for the training of technicians in general, and blacks in particular.

The implications of these statements affect the current role of technicians, and in order to fully realise the complexities they have created there is a need to understand the historical context of the apartheid educational system which has led to this inequality in black and white labour potential.

Within the apartheid education model, although there were legal restrictions, it is the deficiency of education which has mostly constrained the advancement of blacks within the labour market. The lack of quality education has contributed to the reluctance of employers to train their black employees properly (Giliomee & Schlemmer 1989:81). The salient feature of education in South Africa is the differential pattern of educational development of the different race groups. On the one hand, black education is characterised by an inequitable allocation of resources, overcrowded classrooms, high drop-out rates, and insufficient and poorly qualified teachers, and is generally considered by blacks to be inferior and designed to confine them to lower-class occupations (Pillay 1990:30). As this inequality within the education system stems initially from within primary and secondary schooling, and has a number of consequences for higher

education (including tertiary education), a brief historical overview of these formative years is important and is discussed in the following section.

3.3.1. A brief historical overview of education prior to and as part of the South African apartheid model of education

Figures quoted by Bunting (1994:9-10) and Bot (1996:19) with regard to the enrolment of students at institutions of higher learning as late as in the years 1992 and 1994 respectively clearly indicate that inequality in respect of educational opportunities are still prevalent. By highlighting the experiences of the black sector of our community, inequality as it was practised within the apartheid education system becomes clearer and easily comparable to the education of whites. As this dissertation focusses specifically on the Eastern Cape Technikon whose students come predominantly from the Transkei area, an understanding of the education system as it was practised and experienced within the former homeland is also of importance.

3.3.1.1 *Primary schooling for blacks in South Africa and the former Transkei homeland*

With regard to **primary schooling** for blacks, **mission schools** (up to the year 1910) were usually the first means of education in terms of teaching reading, writing and arithmetic skills within African society (cf 2.4.1). Yet the influence of Christianity in Africa is today a controversial issue. Although their intentions were praiseworthy, they were not necessarily knowledgeable and experienced in educational matters and to many they were agents of imperialism and even racism (Leatt et al. 1986:61). They attempted to educate the African away from his culture, neglecting mother-tongue education and over-emphasised academic learning (Claassen 1995:455).

Between the years 1910-1925 the concept of Native Education with special curricula was introduced. The emphasis would be now on manual work as a prelude to industrial training, the purpose of which was to keep blacks in their social place as efficient workers (Hartsthorne 1992:26). Yet, already there were indications that there was a need for a better educated African workforce to supply the needs of industry (Claassen 1995:456). Despite this, statistics for the period 1935-36 indicated that these needs were not being catered for. Fifty-seven percent of all black pupils in school were still in the first two years of schooling and eighty percent had left school before completing

standard three. Only 2,5 percent were in standard six, and less than two percent received any form of post-primary education. The average school life of a black pupil was shorter than three years and on average, in comparison with white pupils, they were two to three years older at any particular school stage (Bureau for Education and Social Research, cited in Hartsthorne 1992:28).

The **Eiselen Commission (1949-1951)** reported on the state of Native Education and made numerous recommendations which were clearly in line with apartheid ideology and most of which were implemented in terms of the Bantu Education Act of 1953 (Nasson & Samuel 1990:1). The apartheid ideology is clearly embodied in the statement (Eiselen Report, cited in Giliomee & Schlemmer 1989:52) that:

"Educational practice must recognize that it has to deal with a Bantu child, that is, a child trained and conditioned in Bantu culture. The schools must also give due regard to the fact that out of school hours the young Bantu child develops and lives in a Bantu community and when he reaches maturity he will be concerned with sharing and developing the life and culture of that community".

The premise was thus that white and black education had to develop separately since the theoretical-orientation of white education led blacks to aspire to skilled work (Behr 1988:33; Hartsthorne 1992:65). This led to the approval of the the idea

of a separate 'Bantu' education in keeping with the notion of a separate 'Bantu' society and economy. This entailed the education of blacks within specific vocational skills (agricultural and health, amongst others) where these vocations were seen as separate from the academic streams of secondary schools. Due to their recommendations, strengthened by the ideologies of HF Verwoerd, secondary schooling for blacks was severely restricted, and made the responsibility of the homelands. Growth in secondary schooling during this period was extremely slow. Already in the early 1970's it had severe consequences for the economy, when the private sector first came to a realization of the shortage of skilled persons. This problem emanated from the quality of teaching in the black schools because of a shortage of well-qualified applicants for training (Hartsthorne 1992:68).

In September 1953 The Bantu Education Act was passed and a separate Bantu Education section was erected. Although it is reported that this act heralded a rapid deterioration in educational standards for Africans, Giliomee and Schlemmer (1989:81) argue that this is not quite correct. According to them, the standards were already very low when the Nationalist Party (NP) came to power and by 1952 only 3 per cent of Africans had received more than a very elementary education. Yet, in many aspects there were changes for the worse. Great disparity existed in the financing of black education which was much less

than that of white education. This had a detrimental effect on the quality of black education and ensured that they did not aspire to 'white collar work' but that the majority of black children would receive a schooling that did not equip them for anything other than unskilled manual labour. At the same time the state, through schooling, was endeavouring to ensure that whites were prepared for an almost complete monopoly of the dominant positions in society (Samuel 1990:18-19).

It is however conceded that enrolment at black schools increased rapidly during this period but that the quality of education and age of scholars differed vastly when compared to white education (Unterhalter 1991:36-45; Pillay 1990:32-48). Whereas it was the norm that teenagers were still in primary schools at black schools, it was an exception at white schools. The high drop-out and failure rate at black schools also reflected on the nature and quality of education (Hartsthorne 1990:65; Pillay 1990:36; Unterhalter 1991:40).

Wolpe and Unterhalter (1991:4) emphasise that the ideology of separatism and racism was embodied in the Act by stating that education was seen as an essential mechanism for the reproduction of specific components of white domination in post-war South Africa, especially the reproduction of the rigidly segregated occupational structure in which blacks were virtually excluded from all job categories except that of unskilled labourer, and

the maintenance of ideologies of white superiority. The Bantu Education Act of 1953 was the major tool by means of which the regime attempted to shape education to perform these functions.

The Eastern Cape's Education Department now also fell under Bantu Education. This meant that the white government had now conveniently shifted the responsibility of black education onto blacks, financing the department with a measly R13 million from general revenue and four-fifths of the general poll tax bringing the total spent on black education to R17 million (Samuel 1990:19; Hartsthorne 1992:37). Should black education be expanded beyond this total, revenue in the form of poll tax would be increasingly depended upon. Although the Separate Bantu Education Act was abolished in 1972, it was already in 1963 that the Transkei Education Department replaced their curriculum with that of the Cape Education Department's. This was hardly relevant to Transkei as was evident from the poor retention capacity of the system. Hartsthorne (1992:39) quotes the following figures which reflect the failure of the black primary school system:

- * 1972: Of approximately 600 000 children who entered sub A in 1968, only 49,6 per cent completed 4 years of schooling and were in Std 3 in 1972.

This indicates that almost 50% of those who started school, had fewer than four years schooling, the

absolute minimum as a literacy and numeracy platform for further training.

- * Of approximately 500 000 children who were in Sub A in 1965, only 31,3 per cent reached Std 6, the final year of the primary school, in 1972 and only 22,6 per cent passed the Std 6 examination and qualified to go to secondary school. Thus over 75% of primary school pupils did not complete a full primary school course. By 1980 this group were young adults in the 17 - 21 age group seeking gainful employment, and by 1990 they were in the 27 -31 age group and should have been making both a contribution to the economic development of the country and to their own independence and self-respect as fathers and mothers of families. Yet, it is doubtful whether they have been able to do either. Even from the point of view of fulfilling the labour needs of capital in general, both in respect of skills, and of attitudes and values appropriate to capitalist social relations' primary schooling had been far from successful.

Figures cited by Samuel (1990:20-21) reiterate the appalling state of affairs regarding black education which culminated in the 1976 riots.

Betela (1990:81) acknowledges that a shortage of teachers as well as inadequate qualifications contributed to the high failure rate at primary school level. He argues though, that it was not so much these two factors than the fact that many primary school teachers were 'misplaced, in other words, employed in the wrong school place according to their qualifications, that consequently led to the poor retention capacity ratio. Betela (1990:81) cites the example of the year 1988 when teachers with primary professional qualifications taught in secondary schools.

During the period 1972 - 1990 during the earlier part of which most of today's adults would have been at school, black education was still experiencing problems financially, as well as in terms of curriculum irrelevance, and underqualified teachers. The number of qualified black primary school teachers increased and with the introduction of secondary schools, together with insufficient qualified learners, those who were well qualified and experienced to teach primary education were moved to secondary schools, depleting the sources of primary school teachers even more (Hartsthorne 1992:44; Samuel 1991:20-21).

(a) Conclusion: Primary schooling for blacks

From as early as 1910 it is evident that black education was to develop separately and to be inferior in quality to white education. This was in line with the apartheid ideology of the

National Party led by Verwoerd. Reports such as that of the Eiselen Commission and the Bantu Education Act were the means by which the government enforced its policy of separate development. For black primary schooling it had the following consequences:

- * Native education with its special curricula ensured that blacks did not develop beyond the level of unskilled workers.
- * The emphasis was on specific vocational skills such as agriculture and health rather than on the academic stream disadvantaging blacks in terms of opportunities in the technical vocations and consequently affecting the South African economy negatively.
- * The Bantu Education Act placed black education under state control with limited state funding.
- * Limited funding led to a shortage of qualified teachers which in turn affected the quality of education leading to high drop-out and failure rates.
- * Limited funding also lead to an imbalance in the age groups of scholars; black teenagers still attending primary schools in comparison to whites who were already at secondary level.

- * Qualified and experienced primary school teachers were forced into secondary education depriving primary schools even more.

3.3.1.2 *Secondary schooling for blacks in South Africa and the former Transkei homeland*

Secondary education with its emphasis on academic achievement has been perceived by black South Africans as a means of gaining the social and economic status which the majority of South Africans have been denied. Yet this has not proved to be the case (Hartsthorne 1992:59-61).

Claassen (1995:477) criticises the academic-orientated curriculum of the pre-democratic era, stating that it failed in preparing students for vocational development. This is reflected in statistics which indicate that as recently as 1992 only 9% of white matriculants and 1% of black matriculants followed a technical course. There has been a lack of clarity regarding the fundamental purpose of secondary schools in South Africa. For example, is its purpose to prepare students for higher education? Or does it have a broader responsibility in terms of general development or the development of the community (Hartsthorne 1992:59)?

Historically, the education system has been dominated by the

ideologies of both Afrikaner and British colonialists, which stresses academic achievement and therefore secondary education has failed to develop social and lifeskills, values and attitudes that will not only build self-respect, but also respect for others in a common, shared society (Hartsthorne 1992:61). Its authoritarian character with its emphasis on the teacher as transferer of knowledge and importance of content-oriented and knowledge-based education proved successful within the white community due to the advantages of apartheid education.

However, this strong leaning towards academic-orientated secondary schooling has failed dismally in terms of black education. The reasons for this are numerous, the most obvious being the link between poverty and limited accessibility to quality education. For example, school fees, textbooks, entry into good schools and transport costs cannot be afforded, forcing the youths to drop out. Furthermore, since juveniles have to contribute to meagre family incomes, they leave school to hold down jobs (Claassen 1995:463). Black students have challenged this style and they have suffered the most in terms of the education crisis the country is now experiencing.

Going back in terms of the history of black secondary education, shows the extent of the present problem with pertinent implications for higher education (Hartsthorne 1992:59-61).

A comparative table provided by Hartsthorne (1992:62) indicates that the percentage of total enrolments in secondary schools during the period 1925-35 was 0.5% with whites averaging 11,3%. This reflects the situation at the time where there was no system of secondary schooling for blacks and the limited facilities that were available to them, did not allow successful promotion to matric level. The tables indicate an improvement in the percentage total enrolments for the period 1935-1950. Percentage total enrolment increased to 3,5% with the average for white enrolment at 16%. The increase in black attendance was mainly due to additional subsidisation of missionary schools and the establishment of new secondary schools in certain areas.

It is important to note that during the 1935 - 1950 period, the syllabus, curriculum and textbooks as well as examinations were the same for both whites and blacks. African languages were not recognised fully for matriculation purposes and standard nine and ten students had to take English to satisfy the requirements laid down. The standard at the time was quite high and black students who passed matric and continued to tertiary education were on a par with their white counterparts.

Secondary schooling was of an elitist nature since it involved a harsh screening process. This was further influenced by financial constraints since few families could afford to keep their children at school during the secondary phase (Davis

1990:130; Samuel 1990:18; Hartsthorne 1992:63).

The costs of boarding schools and day schools which included fees, books and stationery were beyond the means of most families. Most students left school at standard eight after which they could follow a career in teaching or nursing where the prerequisite for entrance was a junior certificate. Strikes, boycotts and other disturbances were very frequent in black schools during this period, that is, 1935-1950. Curriculum priorities during this period are reflected in the average percentages obtained by black pupils ranging from the highest in African Languages, History and Biology and the lowest in Mathematics and Arithmetic, for standard eight. For the senior certificate the highest averages were obtained in Xhosa and Zoology with the lowest in Mathematics. Many matriculants opted for Latin rather than Mathematics. This already set a trend for the lack of technologically skilled manpower South Africa is currently experiencing (Hartsthorne 1992:64-65; Hyslop 1990:85-87).

It was within the 1949-1975 period that the recommendations of the Eiselen Report which were implemented in the Bantu Education Act of 1953, that black education was put firmly under state control (Molteno 1990:88). The consequences of the recommended changes as discussed under paragraph 3.3.1 were that black secondary education experienced high drop-out and failure rates

with serious repercussions for South Africa's economy. Yet there were those who successfully made it through the system. In order to maintain this policy of separatism, ensuring the disfranchisement of blacks, black institutions of higher learning had to be established to cater for those who successfully passed through the system (Giliomee & Schlemmer 1990:98). Thus three separate black universities were established. In this way government ensured a sufficient flow of black students to institutions separate from those of whites (Pillay 1990:43).

The standard nine and ten curriculum for black and white schools remained the same except that whereas most whites wrote provincial examinations, blacks, as from 1962, took the National Senior Certificate. The administration of this examination was increasingly placed within the Department of Bantu Education from which many of the examiners and markers came. The first major change in curriculum, with an ideological slant towards the reinforcement of apartheid and separate development occurred in 1967 at the junior secondary level. This was evident within the Social Studies courses where the statement of aims emphasise the theme of moulding and adaptation strongly reinforcing the apartheid ideology (Hartsthorne 1992:72; Molteno 1990:89).

As the latter part of the period 1975-1990 especially, has produced the students who have recently passed through technikon education it is of particular importance to understand the

experiences of these years. This period epitomises education under the apartheid era and is also the culmination of all the years of struggle that black education has undergone. The period 1976-1980 was particularly distressing for black education and was characterized by severe unrest, a period of disintegration in black secondary schools (Behr 1988:103; Hartsthorne 1992:74). This disintegration was caused by a number of factors which will be discussed separately but in reality form a powerful unit which lead to the near destruction of black education in South Africa.

One factor was the changes in policy directions from a thirteen-year to twelve-year schooling structure which, together with the introduction of a 50/50 language medium policy, had a very negative impact. Not only did it lead to overcrowded classrooms but the introduction of both English and Afrikaans as mediums of instruction contributed to the explosive situation which was already prevalent. With an increase in the number of secondary school students who entered this phase from one of two areas, that is, the old primary Std 6 level, or the new junior standard five level, a bottleneck occurred. Although there were sufficient teachers, the lack of classroom facilities led to overcrowding which had a negative effect on the quality of the teaching and learning experience (Behr 1988:37; Hartsthorne 1992:73).

A second factor was the growing frustration of people due to the

extremely unsatisfactory conditions prevalent in the social, economic and political spheres of society. This exacerbated the situation in which secondary schools found themselves. Rental, housing, unemployment and transport were but a few of the issues that contributed to the fight for survival. Motivated by the independence gained by Angola and Mozambique students became more politically conscientized and viewed political struggle as a tool for liberation and as a result concentrated less and less on education (Hartsthorne 1992:72; Samuel 1990:22).

The third factor is that of **teacher qualifications**. Figures quoted by Hartsthorne (1992:78) indicate an increase in the percentage of unqualified teachers from 1975 to 1988. Within secondary schools however, there was an improvement in qualifications but there was a grave shortage of teachers at Senior Certificate level and in Mathematics and Science at all levels. The experienced teachers were underqualified whereas the qualified ones were very young and thus inexperienced. Both these groups started out with great enthusiasm but due to the shortcomings of their physical environments, ended up becoming examination-orientated rather than offering a broader, general education. Students became dissatisfied with this teaching-style and revolted against it. As a result hardly any teaching or learning took place within this period (Hartsthorne 1992:78).

(a) *Conclusion: Secondary black education*

Year after year the results of matric students in the Department of Education and Training (DET) Senior Certificate examination depict escalating failure rates. Statistics quoted by Hartsthorne (1992:81-2) and Pillay (1990: 40-41) indicate that the education system continues to favour white scholars. These results continue to be reflected in the end-of year write-ups in newspapers concerning black education results in particular. The main headline in the Daily Dispatch (December 1995 27:1) indicated that there had been a drop in the overall pass rates from 1974 and that the Eastern Cape had the third lowest results. The high drop-out rates together with the continual increase in failure rates reflect dismally on the secondary schooling system of South Africa. Its negative consequences in terms of the economic and social instability of South Africa urges rapid changes in the secondary schooling system. Some of the reasons for this situation can be summarised as follows:

- * The inability of the academically-orientated curriculum to prepare black students for skilled vocations.

- * The authoritarian structure and examination-orientated curriculum neglected to develop skills important for self-respect and respect for others.

- * Limited funding of these schools meant limited access to quality education and inadequate supplies of learning and teaching materials for the majority of blacks.

- * Enforced apartheid policies which, amongst other factors, propagated Afrikaans as a medium of instruction, led to increased political conscientization at schools leading to a neglect in education and high drop-out and failure rates.

- * An unsatisfactory political, economic and social climate exacerbated the frustrations in black schools leading to unrest and high failure rates.

- * An overall lack of qualified and experienced teachers particularly in Science and Mathematics together with a lack of facilities led to inappropriate teaching methods, contributing to growing student revolt with consequent negative effects.

3.3.1.3 *Further expansion regarding structure and policy issues pertaining to education in the former Transkei*

Within the Transkei the problems are not only similar in nature to those experienced in the DET but exacerbated due to its

previous independent status (Ngumbentombi 1988:233-234).

Education with regard to the homeland was firstly officially expressed in terms in the Eiselen Commission on Native Education of 1949-1951 and the subsequent Bantu Education Act of 1953 (Hartsthorne 1992:125). It was the same socio-economic and political forces which had influenced and determined black education in South Africa that shaped the development of education in Transkei which became a self-governing homeland after the approval of the Transkei Constitution Act by the SA parliament in 1963 (Ngubentombi 1988:229). Thereafter it was declared a republic after attaining full political independence in 1976. Presently with the government of national unity it has been re-incorporated into South Africa.

Transkei, as explained in terms of its geographical location (cf 1.1), can be regarded as largely rural, and as a homeland has provided a convenient and comfortable rationale for central government concentrating on the issues in white South Africa. As South Africa has not viewed the homeland as an integral part of the South African polity, it has starved this area of adequate development resources, especially so in the field of education. **Rural education** has suffered even more greatly than urban due to neglect and isolation. The problems experienced in rural areas are both of general international relevance in terms of being typical of some less developed African countries and specific as

a result of South African policies (Hartsthorne 1990:111-113). Education has been viewed in African countries as a means of liberation from poverty (cf 2.3.1.1), a means of affecting economic growth positively, leading to a fall in deprivation; unemployment, underemployment and low status. The truth of the matter is that this has not materialised. Education has not been the fairy godmother it promised to be. This problem has been exacerbated especially in the former Transkei homeland where, although tribal chiefs had indirect authority, white South Africa was still in control. The South African government controlled the financing of education (70% of Transkei's income in the 1980s came from Pretoria) (Giliomee & Schlemmer 1991:102).

3.3.2 Conclusion: The implications for tertiary education

Within the period 1984-1994 the percentage enrolment in secondary schools had increased substantially as indicated in the table provided by Bot (1995:17).

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		TOTAL	
	1984	1994	1984	1994	1984	1994
African	78%	82%	63%	79%	74%	81%
Coloured	10%	8%	10%	7%	10%	8%
Indian	2%	2%	5%	3%	3%	2%
White	10%	8%	22%	11%	13%	9%

SOURCE: RACE RELATIONS SURVEY 1985, SAIRR, PP375/6; RESEARCH INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION PLANNING, EDUCATION AND MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT 1994, NO 15, UNIVERSITY OF THE ORANGE FREE STATE 1995

Yet, these figures do not reflect the quality of education as, according to Hartsthorpe (1992:83) most black matriculants are entering tertiary institutions with an average 'F' aggregate symbol (33-39 per cent). This has a number of implications with regard to tertiary education (including technikon education). Students are not prepared for higher learning as they are not equipped with the background of knowledge, understanding and thinking skills that will enable them to cope comfortably with tertiary education. They are also disadvantaged in the technological fields because of the limited opportunities available to them in terms of subjects such as Mathematics and Physical Science. This immediately puts into disrepute the

concept of equality of opportunities at tertiary level or any other level of employment (Bunting 1994:40). It is with this background knowledge in mind that we examine the role of technikons in South Africa.

3.4 TECHNIKONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Technikons have been established to provide tertiary vocational education for middle and high-level human resources in technology and play an ever-increasing role in providing education which meets the manpower needs of the country. Their importance will probably grow in the democratic era (Claassen 1995:479).

In the past, particularly during the apartheid period, technikons, like other institutions of higher learning were divided into racial groups. A University Education Act (the extension of the University Education Act of 1959) which established racially based universities (NCHE April 1996:10) was based on the Bantu Education Act of 1953 and influenced the ideology of higher education in its entirety.

Pillay (1990:43) states that up till early 1990 there were 8 technikons for whites, 3 for Africans and 1 each for Coloureds and Indians. This reflects that as in the case of primary and secondary education, the influence of the apartheid ideology stretched as far as and included tertiary education as well.

The close link between the two is emphasised in Bunting's (1994:11) statement that the nature and function of various elements in the higher education subsystem were defined in detail by the previous RSA government in various acts of parliament and in various policy documents issued by the Department of National Education. The role of technikons is thus also examined within the historical context of the apartheid and post-apartheid era.

3.4.1 The historical context of technikons

It is argued that even though the present situation of the technikon can be traced back to historic considerations, its desired future development will not necessarily be extrapolated from its history (Geldenuys 1985:7). Whether this will indeed be the case is debatable, since the African National Congress (ANC) (1994:113-114) in its policy framework for Education and Training stated that as part of its principles:

- * The national government will have central responsibility for the provision of Higher Education.

- * The Ministry of Education and Training through the Division of Higher Education will be responsible for the development of national policy for, and a large part of the financial provision of, higher education.

Both Claassen and the ANC's statements are valid if one considers that the role of technikons have been determined to a great extent by the political (Claassen 1995:46; Pillay 1990:43), as well as economic (Goodey 1987:85-86) and industrial (Geldenhuys 1987:7) factors which are closely intertwined.

3.4.1.1 *The evolution of technikons*

Technikons evolved from technical colleges which had been established as the first steps towards industrial development in South Africa as a result of mining development (Pittendrigh 1988:108). They were granted the status of tertiary institutions through Act 40 of 1967 and were known as colleges for advanced technical education (CATE) which were to provide (a) advanced technical education and teacher training and (b) secondary and other education on a part-time basis to students who were no longer compelled to attend school in terms of any law (Behr 1988:142).

In the year 1979 the name was changed to technikon and these institutions were granted autonomous status in terms of Act 84 of 1983 (Van Rensburg 1985:15; Behr 1988:142). Beukes, Human and Marx (1987:3) say that the state only took an interest in the offering of technical education at the beginning of the twentieth century when subsidisation of these types of institutions began. Gradually the influence of the state increased and in 1922 an act

was passed which compelled technical colleges to offer the theoretical section of apprenticeships throughout the country. Until 1967, technical and vocational education in South Africa developed quite slowly but with the introduction of Act 40 their role was summarised as follows:

- * To provide intermediate and high-level occupational training with emphasis on practical work.

- * To provide support for general learning, artistic creativity and the advancement of the cultural heritage.

- * To provide services to the community and commerce and industry in terms of a practical nature.

Although there are numerous acts and reports that have determined the nature and extent of the role of technikons in South Africa, one which is of particular importance is that of the Van Wyk De Vries Commission (hereafter referred to as the Commission) of 1974. The reason is that this commission laid the foundations for what can be described as the present 'trinary' structure of higher education in the RSA; a structure which presumes that rigid distinctions can and must be drawn between (a) universities, (b) technikons and (c) vocational colleges. The

committee's views on the functions of CATEs were picked up by the **Goode committee** whose recommendations were accepted by the previous government and which have not yet been amended by the government of national unity (Bunting 1994:15-23).

The report of the Commission is significant in that it emphasises the need for further higher qualifications within the technical field and tries to differentiate between the functions of technikons and universities (Van Rensburg 1985:5; Prior 1986:14; Pittendrigh 1988:4). The report stated that the Commission could not agree with the second reading of Act No 40 of 1967 for the following reasons (Commission Of Enquiry, cited in Pittendrigh 1988:4):

"The idea of horizontal dividing lines presupposes a hierarchy, a runged ladder standing on the ceiling of the secondary school, extending upwards through the sphere of the CATE as far as the lower limit of the university's sphere from which it continues upwards".

The Commission argued that this approach is responsible for a great deal of confused thinking on the relationship between the university and the CATE and that, in this sense, it is wrong to say that the CATE occupies a position between the secondary and the university levels. According to the Commission, the correct view is that the CATE has no ceiling and can rise as high as its

function permits. Due to the acceptance of this report the growth of technikons was accelerated.

Despite the fact that the report attempts to identify technikons as applicators of knowledge as distinguished from universities as generators of knowledge, it is criticised for not offering its own analysis of what the functions of technikons should be but relies on the views of the association of CATEs who state the following (Department Of National Education, cited in Bunting 1994:15):

Colleges concentrate on developing attitudes and outlooks in their students which will make them firstly practical people who would be able to apply their knowledge to the full and in this way make an important direct contribution to the economic life of the community. This practical training at the college could be upgraded to a high level. By practical is meant far greater concentration on the application of knowledge than on the knowledge itself. The approach is less academic and formal, although a sound knowledge of science and technology must be built up. This knowledge is, however, acquired with its possible application constantly in mind (Pittendrigh 1988:190).

The Goode Committee was formed to inquire into the training, use and status of engineering technicians in South Africa. Their report coupled with the Commission's report affected the

development of technikons remarkably. It recommended a name change which was totally acceptable to the public at large and dealt with very important matters such as a return from trimesters to semesters for technicians. Furthermore, it dealt with the separation of apprentice and technician courses, an extension of courses beyond the basic diploma to a five year Diploma in Technology and a six year qualification to be known as an Associate of the Institute of Technology, which would be based on a thesis, project or design (Pittendrigh 1988:191-194).

It is due to the Goode committee's recommendations that the functions of technikons as distinguished from those of universities, and a 'trinary' higher education system, was accepted. The committee argues that the functions of universities involve a study of *science*, and that the functions of a technikon involve a study of *technology*. They suggest further that studies in these two broad fields can be pursued separately but to an equally high standard (Bunting 1994:21).

Pittendrigh (1985:12) and Bunting (1994:21) are critical of the the lack of a definition for the term 'technologist' by the Goode committee. According to Bunting (1994:21-23) this has far-reaching implications and questions amongst others, the very nature of technikons as institutions of higher learning. The reasons for this include that it implies that technikons do not have vertical-free movement and are inferior in status to

universities. Geldenhuys (1985:6) states that many verdicts have already been passed on the role of technikons in the educational sphere, but the dividing lines between the technikon and the university have not been identified positively enough to clarify with authority the confusion existing in university circles and the workplace and that there is uncertainty even in technikon circles as to what its educational function should be.

The recommendations on higher education thus made in the two reports by the Department of National Education, indicate that the Department has not offered a clear or consistent argument in support of its 'trinary' higher education system (Bunting 1994:23).

3.4.1.2 *The role of technikons*

Given the parameters as defined by the reports of the Commission and Goode Committee, technikons have been assigned limited roles within the sphere of tertiary education. During the apartheid era these roles were confined to (i) the training of engineering technicians and technologists or offering of vocational education at tertiary level which was attained through the performance of various tasks including (a) training in technology and later including (b) research (Bunting 1994:16; Geldenhuys 1985:7-11).

At first it was accepted that technikon staff could be involved

in research but students could not do research as a means of attaining higher qualifications. Due to the recommendations of the committee it was, however, accepted that a technikon qualification could be obtained through research (Pittendrigh 1988:187). Technikons could thus involve themselves in applied, developmental and technikon-didactic research (Prior 1986:16).

As part of the future role of technikons, the ANC in its Policy Framework document (1994a:112), sees the central role of technikons (as part of the Higher Education sector) as (ii) a system linked to national and provincial reconstruction, in particular to human resource development and the production of scientific and other knowledge to service the economic, political, cultural and intellectual development of our communities and nation.

This role leads to the additional function of (c) access which entails addressing the imbalances in human resource development in terms of (i) facilitating access to the previous disadvantaged groups and (ii) forging partnerships between the Higher Education system and government, institutional governing bodies, the business sector, organised labour, academic staff, student organisations and other stakeholders (ANC 1994a:114).

The role of technikons can thus be **summarised** as follows:

- 1) It is a sector of the higher education system which is involved in the training of career technicians and technologists (human resources) in a manner which should (i) reflect the cultural diversity of the South African society and (ii) benefit the economic, political, cultural and intellectual development of our communities and nation.

- 2) It has a central role to play in the production of scientific and other knowledge which will service the economic, political, cultural and intellectual development of our communities and nation.

Implicit within the role of technikons are a number of tasks. The two are inextricably linked since technikons cannot fulfil their role without performing these tasks which are discussed in the following paragraph.

3.4.1.3 *The tasks of technikons*

As previously mentioned, the tasks of technikons are implicated within their role and can be **summarised** as follows:

- (a) Provide training in Technology.

- (b) Develop a Research Culture.

- (c) Facilitate access to Higher Institutions of Learning through:
 - (i) Facilitating access to previous disadvantaged groups.

 - (ii) Forging partnerships with the relevant bodies who have an interest in education.

(a) *Training in technology*

There are a number of challenges facing South Africa at present. These include unemployment, population growth and the invasion of global competitors who are challenging South African companies for the control of their markets and destiny. There is thus an urgent need for South Africa to transform itself economically in order to become globally competitive. Technikonans can contribute to the transformation process through technological training, particularly in terms of technology as required in the workplace (Joubert 1995:81).

Since there is a need for practically useful knowledge together with the mechanisms to translate this knowledge into a result that is of practical use, technikonans will have to concentrate more on applied technology (Geldenhuys 1985:10).

The need for technological training is emphasised by figures quoted by Goodey (1987:86) revealing that in 1981 there was a shortage of approximately 5 000 engineering technicians. The need to develop engineering technicians in the black sector of our community is pressing as only 110 of the 870 engineering technician diplomas awarded during 1982/83 were presented to black students.

According to Van Rensburg (1985:15) there has been an increasing demand for technologists up to the year 1985. Whereas technikons were delivering only 2000 technicians per year, there was a need for 9 500 per year for an economic growth rate of 4,5 per cent.

Despite the increase in demand, statistics quoted in a discussion document on transformation by the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) (1996:13) indicate that even in the year 1993 an imbalance still existed at technikons with regard to enrolment within the Science, Technology and Engineering sector. The ratio in terms of Engineering enrolment was 1:148 (that is, for every black student there were 148 white students), a figure which indicates that intervention is necessary.

The reason for the shortage of black technicians stems from the inequality in education (cf 3.3) at the levels of primary and secondary, as well as tertiary education (cf 3.4).

It should also be kept in mind that up till 1992, 85% of places at technikons were under the control of the department of Education and Culture (House of Assembly) - i.e. the department established to serve primarily the interests of whites and that in 1992 60% of students in technikons were white whereas only 25% were black. These proportions are seriously out of line with the proportions which these two groups have in the total population of the RSA (Bunting 1994:44).

The role of the education and training of technicians has been assigned to technikons as recommended by the Goode committee and gives the technikons a qualification structure as follows:

1. First national diploma (3-years)
2. First national diploma (4-years)
3. Postdiploma diploma
4. National higher diploma
5. National diploma in technology
6. National laureatus in technology (Bunting 1994:17).

A more recent qualification structure for technikons as recommended by the Department of Education (1997:14) is a National Certificate, A National Diploma, a National Higher Diploma/B Tech degree, a Master's Diploma in Technology/ M Tech degree and a Laureatus in Technology/ D Tech degree.

(b) *Research*

As previously mentioned (cf 3.4.1.2), research was not undertaken at technikons but with the recommendations of the Goode committee it has now been accepted that a technikon has a role to play in conducting research in its own right, either by the teaching staff or by the students as part or all of the requirements for obtaining a qualification (Pittendrigh 1988:230). Research can also be of an applied, developmental or problem-solving nature but does not have to be exclusively so.

Traditionally however, the role of research has been generally accepted to be related to lecturing staff who will initiate and develop research. However it should be a long-term goal of all technikons, that in order to sustain research, a base should be established. This base should consist of research students, research assistants and research fellows together with additional lecturing staff (Conlon & Humphreys 1995:315).

At an International Conference on Technikon Research Development (1995:1) J.Naidoo, Minister Without Portfolio at the time, said that one of the key challenges facing technikons at this time is that they must look at research capacity since technology is needed if South Africa is to enter into the global economy. Technikons need to ask themselves seriously what they are doing to promote research, development and capacity.

It is important that the research capacity be linked to areas within the economic development of the country, such as industry, since by its very nature, technikons must be vocational and relate to a specific occupation. As employers' bodies are the end-users of technikon products it is vital that their needs be addressed and it is through research of technikon courses that this can be assured (Pittendrigh 1988:230).

Education and the working world can no longer afford to exclude each other within modern society as education expects the working world to employ its trainees and the professional world is dependent on education to supply literate and learned people (Pretorius 1993:125).

Research at technikons should also have as its focus the intellectual, career and personal development of students as these students will form part of South Africa's economic sector and their overall well-being is essential for the country (Van Rensburg 1995:4). This emphasises the importance of technikons as institutions developing the human resources capacity of our society.

Independent or traditional research, which includes research towards technological excellence and overall human resources development, is not a high priority for many technikons currently as most are still focussing on research projects for higher

qualifications and indicates that these institutions are still in a phase of academic capacity building. There is a gradual shift towards research for ad hoc projects (Van Rensburg 1995:5; Moeti 1995:254).

The **assessment of technikon research** should lie in the practicality of the results. The criterion of assessment therefore should be based on whether the results can be implemented. This links technological research to the practical problems within the workplace which generally demands rapid solutions (Geldenhuis 1985:18). This form of assessment ensures that each and every lecturer is involved in research, by reading and researching development in his own subject area. It also ensures that students are well versed in the latest technology applicable to their field of study (Pittendrigh 1988:314).

A survey carried out by the Foundation For Research and Development (FRD) in 1994 indicated that a number of **factors prohibit the quality of research** at technikons. These include a lack of sufficient funds, incentives and facilities for research, as well as high teaching loads (Blankley & Van Vuuren 1995:75). Absence of research particularly at technikons, and specifically with regard to historically black institutions (HBIs) is a direct result of the inequalities in the SA higher education system (NCHE April 1996:18).

Other factors include an absence of research experience as well as inadequate and insufficient training in the field of research. These factors combined with an increase in the administrative tasks of lecturers contribute to the poor performance of technikons with regard to research (Pieterse 1995:90).

(c) *Access to higher institutions of learning*

As previously mentioned, access to higher institutions of learning entails (i) facilitating access to previously disadvantaged groups and (ii) forging partnerships with the relevant bodies who have an interest in education (paragraph 3.4.1.3).

Stemming from an apartheid past, the Higher Education sector does not reflect the racial diversity of the South African population. Indicators as quoted by Bunting (1994:45), excluding the calculations of the proportions for the black population in Bophutatswana, Ciskei, Transkei and Venda (TBVC), reflect the inequality of access to higher education.

HEAD COUNT ENROLMENTS AT TECHNIKONS IN THE RSA BY POPULATION GROUP

	1986	1992	Average annual increase
WHITE	35 047 (78%)	68 541 (60%)	+11,8%
COLOURED	3 297 (7%)	9 783 (9%)	+19,9%
INDIAN	3 545 (8%)	6 847 (6%)	+11,6%
BLACK	2 797 (6%)	28 900 (25%)	+47,6%
TOTAL	44 688 (100%)	114 071 (100%)	+16,9%

An analysis of these indicators reflects that these disproportions can be partially attributed to the major differences in drop-out rates in schools in South Africa. Thus in comparison to an 80% average of white pupils who enrol in sub-A in 1987 entering matric in 1991, for example, the percentage for black pupils drops to approximately 20% (Bunting 1994:40).

At Technikon South Africa (TSA) however, there are significant changes. There was a 51% registration of whites in 1996. In 1997 black students registered at a rate of 67,3%, whites at 23,5%, coloureds at 5,7% and Indians at 3,5% (Managing Information Services Statistical Review:1997).

Not only does there exist inequality in terms of access to black

population groups but in terms of gender as well. This problem is more serious in technikons where figures regarding first-time entering prediplomates by gender, as cited by Hendry and Bunting (1991:19) reflected an average enrolment of 65% for males in 1989 compared to 35% for females. By 1992 the figures had increased to an average of 70% for men as compared to 30% for women (Bunting 1994:45). Gender inequalities in terms of staff are also prominent and figures provided in a discussion document on the transformation of higher education (NCHE April 1996:16&17) indicate that fewer than 35% of the research/teaching staff employed at technikons are female.

* *Access to previous disadvantaged groups*

The need for the facilitation of access in terms of previously disadvantaged groups has partially been substantiated in previous paragraphs in terms of the inequality of the education system. Particularly within previously disadvantaged groups, there is a high demand for access and equity in the tertiary education system.

Figures quoted by Claassen (1995:480-481) indicate the extent of the problem with regard to racial imbalances in terms of the staffing patterns and student enrolments at South African tertiary institutions. The ratio of white university students to African university students is roughly 6:1, while the technikon

ratio is even more skewed 10:1 and it is clear that these balances need to be addressed in the democratic era.

Problems regarding access in terms of gender inequalities have also increased. Racial inequalities in terms of access also exist across the disciplines, especially at the senior levels of study where more than 80% of South Africa's present resources in the fields of business, computer science, agriculture, engineering and natural sciences are white (NCHE April 1996:13).

* *The role of technikons in facilitating access to previous disadvantaged groups*

The role of technikons in facilitating access to previously disadvantaged groups is addressed in the discussion document on education and training (ANC:1994a). Means of addressing access as suggested in the document include:

- . Changed admissions criteria and procedures: These will have to be developed in order to include formal school qualifications as well as to recognise and assess the potential of the disadvantaged student. Other factors which have to be assessed are the potential of mature applicants to succeed in Higher Education, including the recognition of appropriate prior learning and experience.

- . The introduction, where appropriate, of undergraduate formative degrees designed to provide an appropriate mix of science and arts/humanities-based subjects.
- . Offering of part-time and distance education particular through systems of open learning and multi-media.
- . The integration of academic development programmes with mainstream educational programmes, financed through the state subsidy, in order to prevent high failure and drop-out rates on the part of disadvantaged students.
- . Transformation of the teaching role, curriculum content and structure of degree and diploma programmes as a means of recognising the changing profile of the student body and of ensuring the quality of the qualifications concerned.
- . The development of human resources and changing of staff profiles in terms of race and gender through proactive staff development programmes (ANC 1994a:15).

Although these are relevant and achievable there are a number of inconsistencies within these roles which need to be addressed. Especially with regard to the concept of access with its emphasis on *equality of access*, an equal opportunity model is implied.

This means that although not every person may gain entry to higher education, equal opportunity in terms of competition for entry on equal terms will be ensured (Bunting 1994:242-244).

Within the discussion document (ANC 1994a:16), not only is the notion of an equal opportunities model introduced but also that of 'lifelong learning'. Bunting (1994:244) argues that there is a contradiction between the notion of an 'equal opportunities' model and one of 'life-long learning'. The 'lifelong learning' model which seeks flexibility within the entire educational framework is inconsistent with an equal opportunities model as it pertains to access to higher education and a clear indication should be given as to which one of the two should be employed in the development of access policies for higher education (Bunting 1994:245).

The National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI 1992) on post-secondary education (PSE) puts forth, analyses and discusses the consequences of the implementation of three options of access which need to be considered by policy makers. They are the 'equal for all' option, 'a modified equal-access' option and 'an equal opportunities' option.

In the NEPI discussion document (1993:103) it is acknowledged that there exists inequality in terms of access to institutions of higher education in general and to technikons in particular.

enhances the quality of education upon which the economic well-being and the vitality of a community depends (Pretorius 1993:130). As within all partnerships there are a number of **factors** which need to be carefully considered if the partnership is to be a positive one. These include:

- . The needs and expectations of the various parties involved.
- . Ways of involving the various parties in education.
- . The mechanisms/links which organise the relationships between education and the various partnerships.
- . Possible obstacles and ways of alleviating these between education and the various parties (Pretorius 1993:130-132).

Ways in which the various parties, especially **industry** can be involved can include among others:

- . Financing and maintenance of the technikon as a whole.
- . Donations in terms of money or apparatus or instruments.

- . Allocations of bursaries for particular fields of study.
- . Participation on advisory committees and councils.
- . Establishment of co-operative education links.
- . Inter- and intra-institutional links (Goodey 1988:150).

These partnerships make the higher education system responsible and accountable to a larger set of social and economic needs (NCHE 1996:47).

(d) *Conclusion with regard to the historical context of technikons*

Although it was the great need for technical and vocational education which led to the development of technikons in South Africa, they have not satisfactorily served the social and economic needs of the country. This can be attributed to a number of factors, the most important of which is the apartheid context within which these institutions operated.

Due to the recommendations of the De Vries and Goode committees respectively, a distinction was drawn between the functions of technikons, as applicators of knowledge, and universities, as

generators of knowledge. This led to the establishment of a 'trinary education system' with universities occupying the highest level in the hierarchy. This distinction greatly impeded progress at technikons, since they were not allowed to participate in research. Even when technikons were allowed to participate in research activities, it was prescribed as to which type of research was acceptable. This has led to a backlog in terms of the ability of technikons to become involved in research at a more advanced level, since these institutions are still mainly involved in research for the development of human resources. Many are therefore unable to offer any higher diplomas or Bachelor of Technology degrees, which would empower students to meet the more advanced technological demands of the country.

The apartheid system has caused vast imbalances in terms of access to black staff and students to tertiary institutions, more especially to technikons. Even though the problem is being addressed, the repercussions are great as it is still being debated as to which model of learning best facilitates access (cf paragraph 3.4.1.3.c). Thus the problem is twofold, simultaneously addressing access to disadvantaged groups as well as meeting the need for technologically skilled workers.

These problems have also forced other affected parties, such as industry, to forge partnerships with technikons. These

partnerships ensure that problems are minimised and that the needs of all those involved are met. It can only be an advantage if these ties are strengthened in the future as it will ensure that technikons continue to offer updated technological and vocational education in line with the demands of the country.

3.5 SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this chapter was to discuss the development, role and tasks of technikons in South Africa. Therefore various aspects, such as Afrikaner Nationalism (cf 3.2) and the Apartheid education model (cf 3.3), which influenced the development, role and tasks of technikons, were discussed. These discussions highlighted the plight of black education in South Africa as influenced by the Eiselen commission and the Bantu Education Act, as well as the evolution of technikons under the recommendations of the Van Wyk de Vries and Goode committees' respectively.

Throughout these discussions the imbalances within the education system and their effect on the role of technikons are integrated. It becomes clear that the main role of technikons is to aid in alleviating these imbalances in order to contribute positively towards the social and economic growth of the country. In order to do this technikons thus have to perform various tasks as discussed in the summary section of paragraph 3.4.1.

Yet, it is not only at the level of higher education that these inequalities have to be addressed. The entire education system is affected. There is a lesson however, which has to be cautiously considered by South Africa where education is now being viewed as a means of strengthening both human resources and economic growth. Education can increase the possibility of escaping an impoverished background but as found by the Australian Government Commission of Enquiry into poverty, success in school and the competition for rewarding careers is largely determined by such factors as social class, ethnic and geographical location. However, whatever the debate on education, it still provides the opportunity for the individual to liberate himself and to be part of the forces towards a changing society, to be an active participant rather than a passive recipient (Hartsthorne 1992:115).

Within the rural areas, such as Transkei, schooling alone cannot bring about improvement in life (Hartsthorne 1992:116; Betela 1990:264). The needs of adults in these communities are just as important. It is the adults within the community who are to encourage, stimulate and support their children and therefore literacy training for these adults is vital for the economic and social growth of their communities. Adult literacy skills allows for the linkage of education to other community developments, encouraging the participation, motivation and mobilization of local people, thereby empowering them to play an increasing part

in their own development (Hartsthorne 1992:116).

Therefore besides fulfilling the tasks as discussed in chapter three, technikons, especially the Eastern Cape Technikon as an institution serving a largely rural community, have an extended role in adult literacy training. Literacy training, as outlined in paragraph 1.1.2 forms part of adult basic education, which in turn is part of the more general category of adult education. Chapter four discusses the Eastern Cape Technikon and its role in this regard.

CHAPTER FOUR

EASTERN CAPE TECHNIKON IN RELATION TO SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC UPLIFTMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter one (cf 1.1.1.1) tables from a report by Project Literacy (1996:5-6) were cited which indicate a correlation between education levels of households and their economic level. These tables also illustrate that illiteracy affects the disposable incomes of households and impacts negatively on the economy of the country.

Furthermore, as mentioned in chapter one (cf 1.1) within the Transkei, as part of the Eastern Cape (which is at the bottom of the scale in terms of human development and has among the worst unemployment rates in the country) about 27% of the mostly rural community is illiterate and 71% underemployed. Social and economic conditions within the Transkei are deteriorating rapidly.

Although it can be argued that many other factors contribute to social and economic upliftment, the Border Kei Development Forum (1992:1) (cf 1.1.1.1) says that low productivity levels is a direct cause of high levels of functional illiteracy and poor

educational facilities. The link between improved levels of literacy in order to contribute to social and economic upliftment is further emphasised in paragraph 1.1.1.1 by examples quoted from Kassam (1978:2), Tveit (1991:251) and the DBSA (1995:51). This link is reiterated by Hartsthorne (1992:116) (cf 3.5) who says that literacy training for adults is vital for social and economic growth for their communities.

Given the high degree of illiteracy in the Transkei area, it is suggested that apart from the traditional role of technikons as discussed in chapter three, the Eastern Cape Technikon has a role to fulfil in social and economic upliftment of its surrounding community in terms of literacy training for adults, that is, by participating in adult basic education (ABE) (cf 1.1.3). As outlined in the aims of this study (cf 1.3) this chapter is thus an evaluation of the role that the Eastern Cape Technikon can possibly fulfil in meeting the social and economic needs of its particular community, especially with regard to its approach to illiteracy.

The methods of research (cf 1.5) include personal contact with persons at the Technikon, within industry and NGOs who are involved in the community as well as others who have a direct interest in ABE. Additional information was also obtained through the attendance of seminars, conferences and workshops, as well as a study of the relevant literature. Based on these

interviews conclusions are drawn with specific reference to the Technikon.

4.2 THE POSSIBILITY OF UTILIZING THE EASTERN CAPE TECHNIKON IN TERMS OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

In interviews with various persons, including Technikon personnel, industry and non-governmental organisations it was necessary to establish whether there was a need for and the possibility of utilising the Technikon in terms of ABE.

4.2.1 The critical need for adult basic education (ABE) in the Transkei towards social and economic upliftment

4.2.1.1 *The situational factors*

According to Christoffels, Special Assistant to the Rector, Eastern Cape Technikon (1995), the situational factors within the Transkei emphasise the need for adult basic education towards social and economic upliftment. These include:

- * It is one of the poorest sub-regions in terms of the per capita income. As indicated in chapter one (cf 1.1) 27% of the population in the Transkei is illiterate and 71% underemployed. As the majority of adults are not equipped with the basic literacy skills,

nor critical thinking skills, they find it extremely difficult to improve their situation.

- * It is largely rural with poor living conditions. As indicated in paragraph 1.1.1 due to the unavailability of data for the former Transkei, Bophutatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC) states, accurate figures regarding illiteracy within the Transkei cannot be given. Yet, due to its mostly rural nature, it can be deduced that the majority of the adults are illiterate.

Zulu, a lecturer in the Education Department, Eastern Cape Technikon (1996), agrees that the situational factors are a good motivation for ABE as a means towards social and economic upliftment. She further suggests that they be looked at within the general South African context:

- * Most adults in South Africa are functionally illiterate.
- * There is a lot of workplace illiteracy in South Africa.
- * The illiteracy rate per economic activity is very high.
- * The illiteracy rate within the black sector, especially the African groups, is particularly high.

The situational factors are a partial incentive towards the critical need for adult basic education, particularly literacy in the Transkei.

4.2.1.2 The reconstruction and development programme (RDP)

In an interview with Yako, the Public Relations Manager of the Eastern Cape Technikon (1995), a further motivational factor mentioned regarding the need for ABE towards social and economic upliftment, was ABE as a priority of the reconstruction and development programme (RDP) of the government. The RDP White Paper on Education (March 1995) highlights the importance of ABE since:

- * The black communities had been disadvantaged.
- * Basic education is a right.
- * National development requires an ever-increasing level of education and skill throughout society.
- * There is a strong link between ABET, social participation and economic development.

4.2.1.3 The education system

In interviews with the following staff of the Eastern Cape Technikon, Christoffels, special assistant to the Rector (1995), Yako, Public Relations Manager (1995), Reddy, Acting Dean of the Faculty of Applied Technology (1996) and Sarpong, Head of the Education Department (1996), the effect of primary and secondary education during the apartheid era (cf 3.3) was mentioned as additional motivation for the critical need for ABE towards social and economic upliftment. They are of the opinion that the National Party's apartheid ideology had led to an apartheid education system which had disastrous effects for Transkei, the black sector of the population in particular, and the South African economy as a whole. Their opinions are in line with the discussion of the apartheid education model in chapter three whose effects can be summarised as follows (cf 3.3):

- * High drop-out and failure rates.
- * Poor quality of education.
- * A huge discrepancy in school-going age of black as compared to white scholars.
- * Inequality in financing.

- * The inability of the curriculum to meet the needs of the students in general and the communities in particular.

- * The exacerbation of the afore-mentioned characteristics within the rural areas.

For the South African economy specifically, the effects of the system were devastating in that the need for skilled workers in particular, especially within the technological field, was not met. The effects are still visible today and although the education system is in a process of transformation, it will not succeed unless those who form part of our present work-force are offered the opportunity to improve themselves. This is emphasised in the comparative study of global education systems and their approach to illiteracy and in particular by Nyerere's statement (cf 2.5.1.1): "First we must educate adults. Our children will not have an impact on our economic development for five, ten or twenty years."

Furthermore, considering that 27% of approximately 1.5 million illiterate adults are based in the Transkei (Project literacy 1996:2; cf 1.1.1) the critical situation in the Transkei becomes evident.

4.2.1.4 *The 1980s' results on adult basic education (ABE)*

In discussions with the following staff members of the Eastern Cape Technikon; Yako, Public Relations Manager (1995), Christoffels, special assistant to the Rector (1995) and Sarpong, Head of the Education Department (1996), as well as informal discussions at an adult education conference (1995) hosted by the University of the Western Cape in conjunction with the Swedish University of Leipzig, it was established that based on the 1980's results on ABE, illiteracy was in fact on the increase.

Tabled statistics provided by French (1982:24) (cf 1.1.1) indicate that in the 1980s, none of Transkei's illiterate black adults were enrolled in literacy courses and that illiteracy rates are increasing.

As mentioned in chapter one (cf 1.1.1), the increasing illiteracy rate of the 1980s and the fact that Transkei had very little (if any) literacy training (no specific statistics are available) (DBSA 1995:18), is a motivational factor for ABE, especially literacy training, in the Transkei.

4.2.1.5 *The need for literacy in commerce and industry*

As far back as the 1970s the debate on the need for literacy in industry and commerce was prominent. Baucom (1978:27) spoke of

the educational needs within industry and commerce in South Africa, stating that the needs of the company and those of the employee were not conflicting but rather mutually reinforcing. The needs of the company centre primarily around profitable outcome whereas the employees' primary needs are related to self actualisation and self development, both requiring that the employee gains the job skills necessary at a particular time. He further argues that different levels of education is needed within various places in the company. In his experience Baucom (1978:27) argues that although various literacy programmes were offered by industry and commerce, employees did not respond well to them, indicating that the needs of the employees were not necessarily being met by the programmes.

Christoffels, special assistant to the Rector, Eastern Cape Technikon (1995) and Posthumus, Dean of the Faculty of Business Sciences, Eastern Cape Technikon (1996), indicated that they had been approached by various directors of companies within the Transkei region, particularly Butterworth, with requests for literacy training programmes by the Technikon, for part of their workforce. Many of the directors wished to improve the levels of productivity but found that due to the low levels of literacy of many of their workforce, this was an extremely difficult task.

The need for ABE, especially literacy, within commerce and industry within the Transkei was emphasised by Holbrook,

Executive Director of the Kei Chamber of Business (1996), who mentioned that many company directors recognised that a large number of their staff complement were illiterate, having only completed standard two, and that this hampered their performance in the workplace severely. Holbrook said that the issue of literacy was a fundamental manufacturing problem and that many companies were now concentrating on it. He said that most companies approached NGOs which were based outside the Transkei, since there were no such facilities within the area.

The problem of an illiterate workforce was emphasised by Campbell, Loss Control and Human Resources Director - Suntex (1996) and Van Zyl, Human Resources Director - Agrytex (1996), key members of textile industries situated within the Butterworth region. These companies had their workforces assessed and found that the level of literacy was very low. Suntex, for example, found that of a workforce of 250, thirty-five could only understand their mother-tongue, that is, Xhosa and that many were only at level one (standard two to four) in terms of education. This impeded their ability to comprehend instructions of any verbal nature and thus affected productivity negatively.

According to Van Zyl (Human Resources Director - Agrytex), of the 589 permanently employed staff, between 43 -46 per cent are totally illiterate. This percentage includes mother-tongue illiteracy. These persons therefore rely on the interpretation

of others with regard to any instructions and notices. This is a severe setback as the entire working environment depends on the ability of workers to read instructions. For example, all the machines have clear working instructions which have to be carefully followed.

In an interview with Tutshana (ABE facilitator) (1996) who had trained with Enter Education - private consultants, it was highlighted that South African Breweries in Butterworth recognised that there was an urgent need to invest in adult basic education for their employees as the level of literacy was very low and affected work performance. There was also a high rate of on-the-job injuries as workers were unable to follow instructions. Tutshana was employed in order to help improve levels of literacy, especially in terms of English Communication, within the workforce. He mentioned that because of the low levels of literacy within industry and commerce, productivity was often low and many employees were unable to improve themselves socially or economically. He indicated that he trained employees mainly at level two of the literacy scale, that is, the equivalent of standards two and three. Although employees acquired new levels in terms of literacy, they were frustrated with doing the same jobs. There was a need for upward mobility within the company as an incentive towards improved productivity.

Tutshana also agreed with the argument by Robertson and Robertson (1978:125) that the goals of literacy programmes in industry and commerce needed to concentrate on the overall development of the employee. Many programmes were ineffective because of the following:

- * The materials used were inappropriate and therefore ineffective.
- * Literacy training was given a low priority and did not have the full support of management.
- * Programmes were not well-designed, planned and evaluated.
- * There was no direct link between improved levels of literacy and promotions (Robertson & Robertson 1978:25).

Van Eyssen (Human Resources Director at the Eastern Cape Technikon) (1996), who has considerable experience in industry, found that programmes offered by ESKOM had positive outcomes for both the employers and employees. He stated that the manner in which ESKOM's literacy programmes were managed offered a holistic approach. However he agreed that the elements which Baucom (1978:27) and Robertson and Robertson cite (1978:25) as crucial

to successful literacy programmes were to a great extent incorporated in their programmes. Employers who reached the level of literacy equivalent to standard five (in the 1980s) were allowed to enter training programmes which would promote them to the level of semi-artisans or artisans.

A common problem with programmes offered by commerce and industry cited by Van Eyssen (Human Resources Director - Eastern Cape Technikon), Tutshana (ABE facilitator South African Breweries: Butterworth), and the Human Resources Directors of Agrytex and Suntex respectively, was that trainers from NGOs were usually employed to fulfil these tasks. Since the training offered by NGOs was not necessarily evaluated and accredited, companies could not be sure that their employees were receiving recognised, quality training. This view is supported by French (1992:72) who states that in the early 1980s literacy programmes in the industrial and commercial fields were run by Consulting Educators and Trainers (CET). In spite of the professionalism of their design, they had discouraging results with complex reasons for their failure, including:

- * The prevalence of structural methods, grammar and drill;
- * Failure to train instructors in nurturing learning (French 1992:72).

Although various NGOs offered literacy programmes to industry and commerce in the late 1980s, many major problems still prevailed, among them:

- * Lack of consultation with learners;
- * Management's ignorance about literacy issues, worker's learning needs, educational values, the nurturing of effective practices and their formative evaluation;
- * Quick-fix ideas about learning leading to failure of both the process and the product;
- * A tendency to abandon rather than to evaluate and improve failing programmes;
- * A disjunction between high-level management's distanced and idealised commitment to literacy projects and a lack of commitment, on the part of local and line management to the project.
- * A general failure to manage the 'ecology' of literacy by combating the disadvantages of the industrial setting for learning and fostering those factors which could enhance learning;

- * The sheer pressure of productivity in settings not designed for education (French 1992:74).

Tutshana (ABE facilitator at South African Breweries: Butterworth) and Grenfell (Regional Director of the Siyaphambili Institute - an NGO involved in ABE (1996), agree that these problems are still prevalent within industrial companies within the Transkei and are of the opinion that NGOs should offer ABE programmes in partnerships with tertiary institutions. This could lead to accredited programmes as well as enhance the quality of the training offered. Van Eyssen (Human Resources Director - Eastern Cape Technikon), too is of the opinion that industry in itself and NGOs who assist, are not able to successfully promote ABE and that there is a need for support and networking involving the Technikon particularly within the Transkei area.

The following staff members of the Eastern Cape Technikon; Reddy, Acting Dean of the Faculty of Applied Technology (1996), Zulu, (lecturer - Education Department) (1996) and Sarpong (Head of the Education Department) (1996), also share the view that the Technikon could play a role in assisting industry and commerce in evaluating programmes offered by various NGOs. This role is discussed further in paragraph 4.2.2.6 with specific reference to a consortium approach with industry, commerce and NGOs.

From the above it can be concluded that there is a critical need for ABE in industry and commerce and as a means of social and economic upliftment within the Transkei. Ways in which the Eastern Cape Technikon can be utilised in this regard is discussed in paragraph 4.2.2.3.

4.2.1.6 *The advantages of adult basic education (ABE)*

In discussions with the various persons mentioned in this chapter, the common reason cited for the need for ABE as a means of social and economic upliftment in the Transkei was the advantages of ABE (as mentioned in paragraph 1.1.1.1 of chapter 1).

The advantages of literacy mentioned by Van Eyssen (Director - Human Resources at the Eastern Cape Technikon) (1996), Tutshana (ABE facilitator at South African Breweries Butterworth) (1996), Zulu (lecturer within the Education Department at the Eastern Cape Technikon) (1996) and others mentioned within this chapter can be summarised in the following list:

- * Individual empowerment and growth.
- * Cement social connections.
- * Promotes rural/national self-reliance.

- * Changes thought processes.
- * Hastens modernisation.
- * Narrows the gap between rich and poor countries.
- * Makes individuals more confident, able and assertive.
- * Lends to democracy in organizations and communities
(Hutton 1992:17; Steinberg & Suttner 1991:15-20).

As many people in the Transkei area are unable to perform these, together with the tasks mentioned in paragraph 1.1.1.1, it can be concluded that the need for ABE as a means of social and economic upliftment within the Transkei is critical.

4.2.1.7 Conclusion with regard to the critical need for adult basic education as a means of social and economic upliftment in the Transkei

From the discussion, it can be concluded that there is a critical need for ABE, based on:

- * The situational factors;

- * The reconstruction and development programme
- * The education system;
- * The 1980s' results on adult basic education
- * The need for literacy in Commerce and Industry;
- * The advantages of adult basic education.

The question can now be posed as to how the Technikon can be utilised in order to fulfil the need for ABE. This is discussed in the following section.

4.2.2 The possibility of utilising the Eastern Cape Technikon in terms of adult basic education (ABE)

In order to establish possible ways in which the Technikon could be utilised in terms of adult basic education, interviews were held with various persons in industry, commerce, NGOs and at the Technikon. Possibilities as to how the Technikon can be utilised stem partially from the needs as discussed under paragraph 4.2 and will be discussed separately within this section. However, these points are integrated and interdependent. They should therefore not be viewed in isolation, instead the linkage and overlapping amongst them should constantly be borne in mind.

The development of ABE, as any other programmes offered by tertiary institutions, must be seen in the light of developments in the education dispensation in South Africa, such as the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF).

4.2.2.1 *The National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE), South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF)*

In order to rectify the injustices of the past education system (as discussed in 3.3) a framework for transformation is currently being introduced within institutions of higher education (cf 3.4.1.2). To facilitate this process the National Commission On Higher Education (NCHE) was established. The NCHE propose that a Single Qualifications Framework be developed for all higher education qualifications (NCHE discussion document 1996:72). Furthermore they propose that all higher education programmes be registered on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and that all qualification titles be recognised in terms of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act. The SAQA Act facilitates the establishment of structures responsible for monitoring and auditing the achievements of education providers in offering programmes that meet the standards and qualifications approved by the concerned National Standards Bodies. Its functions would include institutional auditing, programme

accreditation and quality promotion (NCHE Discussion Document 1996:71-72).

SAQA is responsible for the development of the NQF, a concept which originated from the labour movement and which was aimed at improving human resource development (NCHE Discussion Document 1996:1971). According to a report by Project Literacy (1996:41-42), in order to ensure that educational programmes are in line with the NQF, the following criteria have to be met:

- * Programmes must be designed on a modular/outcomes based approach.

- * The structure should be modular since:
 - it takes cognisance of life acquired learning
 - it allows maximum horizontal and vertical mobility between different levels and parts of the education and training system.
 - it allows learners to leave and re-enter the system as they desire and credits are given in terms of nationally agreed standards.

- * The assessment procedures should be clear and adequate.
Assessment should be in line with national qualification structures which reflect the

achievement of learning outcomes defined at different levels of learning.

Considering the standards as set out by the NCHE, SAQA and the NQF it is important that any programme offered by the Technikon meet these requirements. Therefore throughout the discussions on the facilitation of ABE by the Technikon these requirements should constantly be kept in mind.

4.2.2.2 *Training adult educators*

The term adult educators includes: those who provide direct guidance to learners; those who design and promote programmes; those who administer programmes; and those, such as research scholars and association leaders, who advance adult education as a field (Duke 1989:362). According to the NEPI report (1992:21-22 & 41) the training of adult educators has been fragmentary and unco-ordinated, the international experience being that the training of teaching personnel is a neglected aspect of ABE. This type of training commonly offered by NGOs, the state and industry has no sense of uniformity in standards.

Hutton (1992:261) says that the short training period for literacy teachers has resulted from the "myth that literacy is easy to teach". As training is usually offered by random organisations involved in ABE, not only do teachers receive

small-scale training, but their training is limited to being able to use a particular package rather than improving general teaching skills (NEPI 1992:20). A further constraint is that follow-up and support to these persons is either limited or non-existent and that those who are directly involved with the learners are mostly volunteers who are poorly qualified in the field of ABE and poorly paid (Lyster 1992:105; NEPI 1992:41).

Within the field of adult education there is thus little or no control over the quality or type of training received by this group or over the outcomes of the training they experience (Galbraith & Zelenak 1989:130). These views were also expressed in interviews, by Van Eyssen, Christoffels, Reddy and Sarpong, staff at the Eastern Cape Technikon. They are of the opinion that the Technikon as an academic institution has the necessary human resources who are equipped with specialised knowledge in adult education. The Technikon can therefore, in their opinion provide professional training in line with the NQF and SAQA principles.

In terms of professional training, Grabowski (cited in Galbraith and Zelenak 1989:126), suggests that the competent adult educator should have the following abilities:

- * Understand and take into account the motivation and participation patterns of adult learners.

- * Understand and provide for the needs of adult learners.
- * Be knowledgeable in the field and practice of adult learners.
- * Know the community and its needs.
- * Know how to use various methods and techniques for instruction.
- * Possess communication and listening skills.
- * Know how to locate and use education materials.
- * Have an open mind and allow adults to pursue their own interests.
- * Continue his or her own education.
- * Be able to evaluate and appraise a programme.

The type of training envisaged at the Technikon by Zulu (1996), Sarpong (1996) (staff members of the Eastern Cape Technikon), Grenfell, Regional Director of the Siyaphambili Institute (1996) and Moodaley, Provincial Director of the National Literacy Campaign (NLC) (1996), should lead to the acquisition and

refinement of the above-mentioned abilities in the adult educator.

The Technikon can thus assist in ABE, since it has the ability to fulfil the role of training adult educators. It has the necessary human resources with specialised knowledge as well as facilities to fulfil this task.

4.2.2.3 *Evaluate and advise programmes*

According to research done by NEPI (1992:16&27) programmes currently being used by various bodies involved in ABE, are either pre-packaged (industry), self-designed and developed (DET), or consist of a number of methodologies (NGOs) and as such do not articulate with other systems or award nationally recognized certificates. Due to the lack of a national policy on ABE and its unco-ordinated nature, these programmes are implemented without being properly evaluated or advised. Thus, for example, in the case of industry, literacy is a low priority in training programmes and the companies from which the packages are bought, offer very little if any long-term back-up (French 1992:74; NEPI 1992:26). According to Holbrook, Executive Director - Kei Chamber of Business (1996), South African companies, including those in the Transkei, do not invest as much as they should in human resources development. This contributes to the ineffectiveness of the programmes in terms of developing

skills needed for further training and development, and ultimately fails to contribute to a more skilled and productive workforce (NEPI 1992:26).

Tutshana (facilitator - South African Breweries) (1996) and Saville (facilitator - Siyaphambili Institute) (1996) are of the opinion that literacy programmes should be evaluated and that if the Technikon has the relevant expertise, they should be able to advise programmes. Though, they are also of the opinion that NGOs might not be willing to have their programmes evaluated and advised by academic institutions as these NGOs might have the necessary experts.

However, Christoffels, Sarpong and Zulu, staff members of the Eastern Cape Technikon, disagree saying that the Technikon has the necessary accreditation to evaluate and advise programmes. This argument is strengthened in research done by NEPI (1992:23) which found that none of the currently available industry or NGO ABE programmes carry nationally recognised certification and that none articulate with any part of the formal system. In discussions held with Moodaley (Provincial Director of the National Literacy Campaign -NLC) (1996), and Grenfell (Regional Director - Siyaphambili Institute) (1996), they agreed that although they had the necessary expertise, technikons could offer an objective perspective and assist in the accreditation of their programmes.

It can therefore be concluded that as an accredited body the Technikon can fulfil a role in evaluating and advising programmes offered by bodies other than academic institutions, within the Transkei and surrounding regions. It could ensure that standards as set by SAQA and the NQF are met. With its resources and capacity for research (cf 4.2.2.5) the Technikon has the potential to evaluate and advise programmes and ensure that these embody a holistic approach.

4.2.2.4 *Developing relevant materials for adult basic education (ABE) programmes*

According to Hutton (1992:80) and French (1982:56), a common complaint concerning ABE is a lack of material, the limitations of materials and a lack of follow-up material. As part of this, for example, adults at beginner's levels have a severe disadvantage due to the inaccessibility or inappropriacy of easy reading material, that is, any reading matter in any language which makes concessions to a lack of proficiency in reading skills or to difficulties with mastering the language of the text (French 1992:239-241).

As previously mentioned (cf 4.2.2.3) and confirmed by Grenfell (Regional Director - Siyaphambili Institute), and Moodaley (Provincial Director - NLC), the development of most learning materials used in literacy programmes is fragmented and unco-

ordinated as the various bodies involved in ABE (NGOs, the state and industry, for example) develop their own packages in isolation to each other. Consequently, duplication of materials occur which is contrary to cost-effectiveness.

It was stated that as an academic institution the Technikon has the necessary resources and facilities to evaluate and advise programmes (cf 4.2.2.3). It is the view of Reddy, Sarpong and Zulu, staff members of the Eastern Cape Technikon, that the Technikon can fulfil the role of material development in conjunction with the various bodies who have an interest in ABE. This ensures uniformity in standards and can lead to the accreditation of ABE courses.

Material development entails amongst others, developing materials in terms of learning modules which could contain:

- * Goals for the unit and lesson plans for teachers to adapt and modify.
- * Codes and suggested questions for critical analysis.
- * Self-evaluation sheets and lesson or module evaluation sheets.
- * A selection of worksheets or learning tasks related to

the task at hand, which could be coded according to:

- level of difficulty;
- mode of learning (whole group, small groups, pairs, or individual);
- skill (listening, writing, etcetera, or a combination of these) (cf Clifford & Kerfoot 1992:210).

Considering the views of the various persons expressed, it can be concluded that the Technikon has the capacity to develop materials in conjunction with NGOs and Industry, ensuring uniformity in standards, preventing duplication of materials thereby contributing to cost-effectiveness. In order to assess the need for and evaluate the relevance of the material, this role would be integrated to a great extent with the role of research in adult education as discussed in paragraph 4.2.2.5.

4.2.2.5 Developing theory through research

The role of technikons with regard to research has been discussed in chapter three (cf 3.4.1.3) where it was established that technikons, as academic institutions can undertake research of an applied, developmental or problem-solving nature but that it does not have to be exclusively so. Although this paragraph deals specifically with research in relation to adult education, it forms part of the general research role discussed in the previous

chapter.

Up till World War Two comparatively little research had been undertaken in the field of adult education as the concept of this field as a distinctive sector of education was unknown in many countries (Titmus 1989:503; Deshler & Hagan 1989:147).

Although there has been an increase in research related to adult education since the 1970s, a clear criticism was that research was mostly of an atheoretical nature (Deshler & Hagan 1989:154). There has thus been an imbalance between the developmental nature of research, which concentrates on the development of programmes and/or instructional methods without critically analysing the prerequisites for developing adult education in a particular way (Rubenson 1989:508). For the person directly involved in the educating of adults, the practicability, and thus applied nature of research, outweighs the importance of practice- and discipline-oriented research. Yet, there is a need for both as is evident from the experiences of various countries as outlined in the summary of conclusions in chapter two (cf 2.6).

In an interview, Posthumus (Dean - Faculty of Business Sciences at the Eastern Cape Technikon), indicated that the Technikon by its very nature should be and has the ability to be involved in research of both an applied and theoretical nature. Rubenson (1989:508) says that the two are in fact inter-related; practice- and discipline-oriented research developing and testing theories

and laying the necessary foundation for applied research. The technikon as an integral part of Higher Education provides the opportunity for balance between the two research types.

Posthumus, Reddy and Sarpong (staff members of the Eastern Cape Technikon), agree that the Technikon can offer the opportunity for those directly involved in the training of adults to concentrate on applied research using the knowledge base provided by persons furthering their studies in adult education and who are most likely to be involved in practice- and discipline-oriented research.

The need for research in the field of adult basic education is acknowledged by Grenfell (Regional Director - Siyaphambili Institute) (1996) as well as Moodaley (Provincial Director - NLC) (1996). Both are of the opinion that there is a need to constantly update materials and training so as always to offer the best service possible in terms of ABE.

Holbrook (Executive Director - Kei Chamber of Business) (1996), Van Zyl (Human Resources Director - Agrytex) (1996), Campbell (Loss Control and Human Resources Director) (1996) and Tutshana (ABE facilitator - SAB) (1996), agree that the Technikon could play a role in providing industry with the latest findings regarding theory related to ABE, and in particular literacy, within industry.

It can therefore be concluded that with regard to adult education, the Technikon can fulfil a research role, particularly of a developmental and applied nature in order to critically analyse the prerequisites for developing adult education in a particular manner.

4.2.2.6 *A consortium approach to adult education*

Throughout this chapter reference has been made to NGOs, the state and industry as active participants in ABE. It has been established through various interviews and discussions mentioned in this chapter that there are a number of organisations who are directly involved in ABE but due to the constant criticism that ABE is a fragmented and unco-ordinated field, it is suggested that the Technikon has a role to play by working together with other bodies in furthering the interests of adult education.

Throughout the discussions concerning the evaluation and advising of programmes (cf 4.2.2.2) and materials development (cf 4.2.2.4), a consortium approach has been implicated. This section provides a more in-depth discussion concerning the following sectors mentioned within these paragraphs:

- * Commerce and industry

- * NGOs

- * The community at large.

(a) *Commerce and Industry*

Chapter three (cf 3.4.1.3) discusses the role of technikons with regard to the provision of training in technology relevant to industry and commerce. Thus the partnership between the two bodies has already been established and ABE forms an expansion of this partnership.

Discussions with Tutshana (facilitator - SAB) (1996), Reddy, Zulu, van Eyssen and Sarpong, (staff members - Eastern Cape Technikon) (cf 4.2.1.5) indicate that there is tremendous scope for the Technikon to involve itself in ABE in relation to commerce and industry. They further suggest that the partnership could primarily be in the form of consultative work. This would entail working closely with these bodies and learning more about the needs of the employer as well as the employee and, through the provision of expertise and the Technikon facilities, contribute more positively to the success of ABE in this area.

In interviews, Van Zyl (Human Resources Director - Agrytex) (1996) and Holbrook (Executive Director - Kei Chamber of Commerce) (1996), said that Technikon employees could act as consultants for various companies, providing advice and support, training managers who provide ABE, offering short courses, developing

materials, and providing in-service training on an on-going basis for employees. This approach is favoured by Christoffels and Van Eysen (staff - Eastern Cape Technikon), who ultimately see the partnership as accrediting and certifying programmes according to the various levels attained in terms of the NQF and SAQA, leading to improved job status for the individual and a more skilled and productive workforce for the company.

(b) Non-governmental organisations (NGOs):

NGOs have played an important and extensive role in the provision of ABE. Their strengths are enormous in that they can be flexible and responsive to local needs and conditions and can effectively deliver services to remote and marginalized groups (NEPI 1992:36). Their success has been mostly on a small-scale but lack of resources has been a severe limitation (Lyster 1992:43). Furthermore, as previously mentioned (cf 4.2.2.3 & 4.2.2.4), a lack of co-ordination amongst them has caused duplication in terms of teacher training and material development, further depleting their limited funds.

Grenfell (Regional Director - Siyapambili Institute) (1996) indicated that although a number of NGOs are operative in the larger East London area, there are hardly any in the Transkei area. Those within the greater East London area include the Lilungelo Lethu, East London Adult Literacy Program, Berlin Adult

Literacy and Sached Trust, according to Zulu (staff member - Eastern Cape Technikon) (1996). Each of these, according to Grenfell (Regional Director - Siyapmabili Institute) and Moodaley (Provincial Director - NLC), develop their own material, train teachers and trainers and present literacy services within the community.

According to Christoffels (special assistant to the Rector - Eastern Cape Technikon), through the resources available at the Technikon much of this duplication can be eradicated, providing NGOs with the opportunity to do more in terms of providing direct services to the communities than is presently possible. The Technikon would thus work closely with NGOs encouraging them to network, training trainers and teachers, providing resource materials and advising and supporting them on an ongoing basis.

As the Siyaphambili Insitute is currently working in conjunction with Industry and the community at large, Grenfell (Regional Director) sees the possibilty of a partnership between the Technikon and the Institute in terms of:

- * Offering short courses
- * Facilitatng bridging programmes
- * Offering diploma courses
- * Using facilities for evening classes.

Sarpong (Head of the Education Department - Eastern Cape

Technikon) (1996) agrees that the Technikon could offer these facilities in conjunction with NGOs and suggests that the Institution can possibly establish a resource centre for adult education in the future, offering the facilities to the community at large.

(c) Community involvement:

As outlined in chapter one (cf 1.1), the Eastern Cape Technikon is geographically situated within a largely rural community where the level of literacy is very low. It is also argued that although education does not automatically lead to economic and social upliftment, it is an important means of empowering a community with the necessary tools for upliftment. Yet, as concluded in chapter two (cf 2.6), any literacy programmes introduced into a community will be unsuccessful unless the community is actively involved in its planning and implementation. The needs of the individual as well as the community as a whole need to be established and catered for, if the programme is to have any relevance and success. It is within the sphere of the community that NGOs in particular, have largely worked in terms of training and educating their own "front line workers" and the people within the community (Coombs 1989:59).

Van Eyssen, Christoffels, Sarpong, Zulu and Posthumus (staff members - Eastern Cape Technikon) are of the opinion that within

the community there is an opportunity for NGOs to work in close relation with the Technikon. The Technikon can offer the resources and facilities needed in order to ease their task. Moodaley (Provincial Director - NLC) and Grenfell (Regional Director - Siyaphambili Institute), as representatives of NGOs, agree that a large problem within communities is a lack of facilities and resources and that the Technikon can be used for these purposes. Furthermore, through links with the Technikon as an academic institution, people can be encouraged to continue their education as a means of uplifting themselves socially and economically.

All agree that an integrated approach is highly favourable in that the Technikon would be able to assist in the form of training and supporting high-level personnel and developing materials in consultation with the community and NGOs.

Furthermore, Tutshana (ABE facilitator - South African Breweries) says that the Technikon could offer training to other volunteers in the community, such as teachers, preachers or others who have attained a higher level of literacy and are willing to help their community. Within the Transkei, where there is a lack of NGOs, the Technikon could train teachers who would be directly involved with these communities and network with the existing NGOs in order to help them reach a wider community. Academic staff, such as Christoffels, Sarpong, Zulu and Reddy agree with this view.

In order to assist in the upliftment of the community the Technikon has already established a non-profitable organisation called KEITECH, as a means of practical implementation of the RDP programme (as discussed in 4.2.1.2). Within the Faculty of Engineering, under the auspices of Van der Walt (Head of the Building Department - Eastern Cape Technikon) (1995), this company has made considerable progress in the training of unemployed people in the Transkei region, making a positive contribution to social and economic upliftment in this regard.

Services are offered to the Department of Labour in training unemployed trainees for the Transkei Development Corporation at Qolora and New Horizon. Acting as consultants to the Zitumele Utility Housing Trust, the company also assisted in Career Management and in offering entrepreneurial courses to employees.

According to Van der Walt, the practical involvement of the Technikon within the community has already made steady progress but a major problem that hampers a faster pace of progress is that of illiteracy. Thus, he suggests that through the networking with adult education programmes, great benefit could be derived for both the institution and the community at large.

4.2.2.7 *Conclusion with regard to the possibility of utilising the Eastern Cape Technikon in terms of adult education*

It has been mentioned that in which ever way the Technikon is utilised as a centre for adult education, the requirements as set by SAQA and the NQF (cf 4.2.2.1) have to be met.

The central situation of the Technikon within the Transkei and surrounding areas provides an opportunity for the utilisation of the Institution in terms of ABE in the area. However, it is important that the Technikon operates in conjunction with NGOs, Industry and Commerce as well as the community and the state in offering the following facilities:

- * Training adult educators.
- * Evaluating and advising ABE programmes.
- * Developing relevant materials for ABE programmes.
- * Developing theory through research.

NGOs realise that partnerships can have positive outcomes in that it can be cost-effective (cf 4.2.2.4 & 4.2.2.5) and provide them with the necessary accreditation which they currently lack (cf 4.2.2.1).

The Technikon can therefore be utilised in terms of adult education, towards the social and economic upliftment of the community.

4.3 CONCLUSION

As outlined in the introduction, the aim of chapter four was to establish the role of the Eastern Cape Technikon in relation to adult basic education, particularly literacy, as a means of social and economic upliftment of the community. The factors discussed in paragraph 4.2 clearly indicate that there is a need for the Technikon involving itself in ABE. The advantages of ABE (cf 4.2.1.6) as a potential means of an improved lifestyle for the socially and economically impoverished in this country is perhaps the most important motivational factor after the impoverished picture painted in the above paragraphs (cf 4.2).

Of undeniable importance is the evidence of the current lack of co-ordination within the adult education field, and thus the inability to effectively address the problems of ABE (cf 4.2.2.3). It is a clear criticism (cf 4.2.2.3) that various organisations involved in literacy programmes are not networking, thereby causing duplication of training and materials, depleting their already limited resources unnecessarily and as a result decreasing their effectiveness.

The various means of utilising the Technikon as discussed in paragraph 4.2 would ensure a holistic approach to adult education, an aspect which has been criticised as being lacking throughout current literacy programmes (cf 4.2.2.3). It would also ensure a longer training period for personnel within the field (cf 4.2.2.2) thereby producing more competent literacy teachers who can produce and use materials from various sources, (not just pre-packaged ones) as well as be effective co-ordinators of literacy programmes. Furthermore the service of on-going research would ensure an improved understanding of adult education leading to quality training, the effective evaluation and advising of programmes as well as both continuous updating of material and development of material for continual education.

Most importantly, the Technikon would ensure that the standards of all organisations involved in adult education, are in line with and recognised by SAQA and the NQF, ensuring that certificates granted are nationally recognised. This would enable the adult learner to have more choices within the education system and be more motivated to improve her/his economic and social well-being through the field of education. It would also encourage industry and commerce to participate more actively in the education field when they perceive it to be a contributing factor to a more effective workforce. Ultimately it would lead to the upliftment, economically and socially, of the community.

Based on the discussion in chapter four, together with those of the previous chapters, a synthesis of the significant findings, together with recommendations and conclusions are provided in chapter five.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 OVERVIEW OF THE INVESTIGATION

This study has aimed at examining the role of technikons, in particular, the Eastern Cape Technikon, in meeting the social and economic needs of the various South African communities. Within chapter one, a detailed outline of the problem regarding unemployment, lack of basic facilities and high crime rate within the rural area of Transkei (cf 1.1), has been provided in order to emphasise the intensity of Transkei's social and economic situation.

Further statistics with regard to the high level of illiteracy within the Transkeian population is provided in the first chapter (cf 1.1.1) so as to gauge the extent to which that particular population is able to improve their own living conditions. These statistics are provided as a background, emphasising the need for adult basic education as a means of empowering communities to uplift themselves socially and economically (cf 1.1.1.1).

As technikons are based within particular communities, the aim of the study is to gauge what role technikons in general, and the Eastern Cape Technikon in particular, play in addressing social

and economic upliftment. It is suggested that besides the traditional role of technikons (cf 3.4.1.2) towards social and economic upliftment, the Eastern Cape Technikon needs also to address the problem of illiteracy within the Transkei, due to the high correlation between literacy levels and social and economic status (cf 1.1.1.1).

One of the aims of this study was to examine the approach to illiteracy by global education systems (cf 1.3). In chapter two, a study of international practices in this regard was undertaken, in order to get a more broader view. The main method of research (cf 1.5) used within this chapter was case studies and literature review.

A further aim was to examine the traditional role of technikons so as to establish whether, and to what extent they are meeting the particular needs of the communities (cf 1.3). This was undertaken in chapter three using literature review as the main method of research (cf 1.5).

Another aim was to establish the role that the Eastern Cape Technikon could fulfil in meeting the social and economic need of its particular community as far as literacy is concerned (cf 1.3). This was examined in chapter four using a literature review, as well as informal discussions with educators and persons within non-governmental organisations, together with the

attendance of conferences, workshops and seminars as the methods of research (cf 1.5).

The last aim was to provide a set of guidelines in order to shape the approach to literacy with particular reference to the Eastern Cape Technikon. This was dealt with in chapter five (cf 5.2 and 5.3) in terms of the synthesis of significant findings and guidelines for designing literacy programmes.

Finally, themes for further research are suggested (cf 5.4) and conclusions with respect to the research problem are drawn (cf 5.6).

Although it has appeared that literacy is viewed as the means to improved social and economic conditions, in many countries it has fallen short of its expectations. None-the-less it has been found to be a source of inspiration and a tool towards economic empowerment and social upliftment (cf 2.3.1.1).

Many countries have adopted various approaches to illiteracy, and have made common errors as well as unique breakthroughs. These have become the learning ground for others who intend introducing literacy curricula within their education systems (cf 2.6).

5.2 SYNTHESIS OF SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

As the main concern of this study is the role of technikons with regard to the social and economic upliftment of communities, the following elements regarding technikons and their relation to society are of major importance:

5.2.1 Goals

As technikons form an integral part of our society, addressing vocational and technological needs, it is essential that the goals aimed at in education have the concerns of society in mind. This includes equipping the learner with the best tools needed to function within the community (cf 2.5.2; 2.5.3.1; 3.4.1.2; 4.1; 4.2.1.3 and 4.2.1.4).

5.2.2 Course contents and activities

In line with the goals (as outlined in 5.3.1), the course contents and activities of technikons should not only include empowering learners with the essential knowledge for technological and vocational careers but should include courses in the humanities which encourage critical thinking, democratic attitudes or behaviour and creativity (cf 2.4.5; 2.6; 3.5 and 4.2.2.2).

5.2.3 Research

Research forms a central function of technikons. It is a means of evaluating and ensuring that all activities undertaken are relevant and change with changing situational factors.

Furthermore, it helps determine whether the best methods and materials are used to enhance the quality of services as offered by these institutions (cf 3.4.1.3b; 4.2.2.5).

5.2.4 Partnerships

Partnerships between technikons and the broader community, including NGOs, commerce, industry and the government are an important source of finance as well as a means to ensure continued relevance of course contents and activities (2.5.1.1.a; 2.5.3.2; 3.4.1.3c; 4.2.2.6).

5.2.5 Access

As part of the higher education system, technikons are also undergoing a process of transformation. Part of this process entails being accessible to groups who were disadvantaged during the apartheid era. It is a means of addressing the injustices of the past as well as filling the gap within the technological sector of our economy (cf 3.4.1.2c; 3.4.1.3c).

5.2.6 Problems encountered

Education in itself has been viewed as a means of liberating communities from social and economic depression and many countries have embarked on educational campaigns with the hope of alleviating their problems. However, education in itself as a solution to economic and social problems has proved to be a myth. Factors, such as social class, ethnic and geographical location have been found to determine economic and social status within communities. However, education still provides persons with opportunities to liberate themselves and to be an active part of the forces towards a changing society (cf 2.4.5; 2.5.1.1a; 2.5.2; 3.5).

5.2.7 Crucial issues

Although political ideology influences the nature of educational programmes, it is essential that these programmes address the needs of the learners as well as those of the state. The learner's needs should not be compromised in favour of those of the government of the day (cf 2.3.1.1; 2.3.1.2; 3.2; 4.2.1.2).

5.3 GUIDELINES FOR LITERACY PROGRAMMES AT TECHNIKONS

From the research that has been conducted, the following guidelines would be suggested towards the offering of literacy

programmes at technikons, particularly the Eastern Cape Technikon:

5.3.1 Goal

Literacy programmes should not only be geared towards the learning of skills and knowledge for increased productivity and modernization within the urban areas; it should also improve the lifestyles of persons within the rural areas (cf 2.5.1.1a; 4.1; 4.2.1).

5.3.2 Centres for literacy

Technikons can be utilised as centres for adult basic education which could co-ordinate literacy programmes in conjunction with other organisations which have an interest in this field (cf 4.2.2.6).

5.3.3 Research

Part of the activities of technikons would be to develop theory on adult basic education; design, evaluate and advise literacy programmes, including the methods and materials used. It could also be a means of offering advice on teacher training within the sphere of adult basic education as well as of conducting research towards the designing of models for distance and life-

long learning. This research would be available to all who have an interest in literacy and are involved in research (cf 2.4.4; 3.4.1.3; 4.2.2.3; 4.2.2.4; 4.2.2.5).

5.3.4 Education policy and national certification

An education policy regarding adult basic education should be reviewed with input from all interested sectors of the community, including technikons. Requirements for the national recognition of certificates/diplomas/degrees should be clearly set out (cf 4.2.2.1).

5.3.5 Consortium approach

A consortium approach can ensure financial assistance from industry, commerce, businesses, and the state and any other organisations who have an interest in adult basic education. It would be a co-ordinated approach to literacy programmes, meeting the needs of all concerned, including those of local communities. It could determine the accreditation and national recognition of qualifications. It could also facilitate various points of access between various programmes allowing learners to continuously progress in their education (cf 2.5.3.1a; 3.4.1.3c; 4.2.2.6).

5.3.6 Relevant curriculum

The curriculum should be reviewed and changed in order to accommodate the process of modernization. Yet, a narrowly-useful curriculum which concentrates only on work-specific vocational skills should be guarded against. The objectives should not only be technically specific, but should include the humanities, which connects learners to experiences that enlighten them and enable them to transcend place, social circumstance, and cultural particularity. The religious and cultural dimension should be included within the curriculum and traditional knowledge and practices (such as the subordinate role of women in most societies) which condemn people to poverty, make them superstitious and perpetuate tyranny of certain customs, should be addressed (cf 2.5.1.2a; 2.5.3.1; 3.3.1.1a; 3.3.1.2a).

5.3.7 Development of materials

Materials to be used in literacy programmes should be modularised and user-friendly. They should be aimed at and meet the needs of the adult learner. When designing material the type of learner who would be using it should be kept in mind and the materials should be suited to the adult learner's abilities. Should it be aimed at a rural learner, it should be relevant to that learner; the same applies to material aimed at the urban learner. Materials should also enhance critical thinking abilities as well

as creativity and provide opportunity for self-evaluation. The goals and lesson plans for each unit should be clearly set out and worksheets should appear after each unit (cf 2.4.4; 2.5.1.1; 2.5.1.2; 4.2.2.4).

5.3.8 Adult education trainers

The training of adult education trainers should be regarded as the pivotal point of success around which literacy programmes are based and the following aspects should be emphasised:

- * Effective training is a continuous process which requires a reasonable period and cannot be completed over a short period of time (cf 2.5.1.1; 2.5.2).
- * The maturity of potential adult education trainers should be considered (cf 2.5.1.1a).
- * Training should include training in adult psychology in order to understand the needs and abilities of the adult learner (cf 2.4.3; 2.5.1.1; 2.5.2; 2.5.3.1).
- * Efficient training in adult education teaching methods and the most effective use of materials is essential. Trainers should be able to select methods and materials according to the abilities of the learners. They

should also be exposed to techniques which encourage the application of a more participative learning pedagogy (cf 2.4.3; 2.4.4; 2.5.1.1; 2.5.1.1a; 2.5.1.2a; 2.5.2; 2.6).

- * Trainers should be skilled in encouraging and stimulating critical thinking and creativity within the learner (cf 2.4.5).

- * Trainers should be able to train potential trainers (cf 2.5.1.1a; 2.6).

5.3.9 The adult learner

It is important to take cognisance of and acknowledge the needs and abilities of the adult learner if literacy programmes are to be successful. The perception of the utility of literacy classes between adult learners and the institution should not be different. Literacy programmes should be developed and implemented in consultation with the learners (cf 2.5.1.1; 2.5.3.1).

5.3.10 Follow-up literacy programmes

Literacy education should be a continuous process and follow-up programmes are vital in order to prevent neo-literates from

regressing into a state of relapse (cf 2.4.2; 2.5.1.1; 2.5.3.4.2.2.3).

5.3.11 Financing

There is an urgent need for the financing of literacy programmes, including short courses, follow-up programmes, materials development and training of adult educators (cf 2.5.1.1; 2.5.1.2a; 2.5.3.1; 4.2.2.2; 4.2.2.3; 4.2.2.4).

5.3.12 Community involvement

Members of the community, including teachers, nurses and preachers, can be trained to offer literacy programmes. The facilities within the communities can be utilised as venues for these programmes (cf 2.5.1.1a; 2.5.1.2a; 4.2.2.6).

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following guidelines are recommended for further research in this field:

- * There is a need for further research in implementing a co-ordinated approach to literacy programmes in South Africa.

- * A curriculum based on a modularised approach to literacy

programmes needs to be researched. It should take cognisance of distance learning as well as life-long learning.

- * A system of designing and evaluating materials suitable to literacy training is essential.

- * More effective teaching methods with a participative learning style with particular reference to the adult learner needs to be researched.

5.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken during the period 1994-1996, during which the process of transformation with regard to higher education was very much still in the discussion phase. It thus only takes cognisance of recommendations made by various organisations with an interest in education, including literacy training, none of which have been fully implemented. It was thus not possible to evaluate these recommendations within a practical situation.

Literature with regard to literacy campaigns undertaken in other countries is so abundantly available that only a representative selection of materials was included in the research. However, within the South African context, with regard to technikons, it

is still in the early phases of implementation and very little has been published on the subject.

Much more could have been incorporated to make this study more inclusive and complete, which would have made the dissertation too lengthy and unwieldy.

5.6 IN CONCLUSION

The high level of poverty and illiteracy within the Transkei is of grave concern and needs to be addressed by all. This study has attempted to examine the role of technikons with regard to social and economic upliftment of communities. One of the most important roles suggested, particularly with reference to the Eastern Cape Technikon, is the implementation of literacy programmes as a means of providing communities with the means of improving their lifestyles. It has been found that literacy can aid in doing so, but that literacy in itself is not the sole means to an improved society. Factors such as social class and culture play an undeniable role. Yet, through the literature study it has been concluded that education, and therefore literacy training is an essential means of liberating the individual, a step towards social and economic empowerment and upliftment.

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APPENDIX A: INTERVIEWS

1. Mr A.Christoffels, special assistant to the Rector, Eastern Cape Technikon. November 1995.
2. Ms N.Zulu, lecturer in the Department of Education, Eastern Cape Technikon. September 1996.
3. Mr M.Yako, Public Relations Manager, Eastern Cape Technikon. November 1995.
4. Mr K.Reddy, Acting Dean of the Faculty of Applied Technology, Eastern Cape Technikon. October 1996.
5. Mr E.Sarpong, Head of the Department of Education, Eastern Cape Technikon. September 1996.
6. Mr J.Posthumus, Dean of the Faculty of Business Sciences, Eastern Cape Technikon. October 1996.
7. Mr L.Holbrook, Executive Director of the Kei Chamber of Business. November 1996.
8. Mr G.Campbell, Loss Control and Human Resources Director, Suntex. November 1996.
9. Mr S.Tutshana, ABE facilitator, South African Breweries (SAB), Butterworth. November 1996.
10. Mr S.van Eyssen, Human Resources Director, Eastern Cape Technikon, October 1996.
11. Mr D.Grenfell, Regional Director of the Siyaphambili Institute. October 1996.
12. Mr R.Moodaley, Provincial Director of the National Literacy Campaign (NLC), October 1996.
13. Mr A.Saville, ABE facilitator at the Siyaphambili Institute. October 1996.
14. Mr P.van der Walt, Head of the Building Department, Eastern Cape Technikon. November 1995.

APPENDIX B: CONFERENCES ATTENDED

1. International conference: Technikon Research Development - The RDP Challenge. 26-27 June 1995. Organised by CSD, FRD and Technikons.
2. International conference: Adult Education and Training in Reconstruction and Development. 1-10 November 1995. Organised by CACE (University of the Western Cape), CAE (Linkopig University) and sponsored by Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA).