METHODS OF TEACHING ADULT LEARNERS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN GHANA AND SOUTH AFRICA

by

DAVID ADDAE

submitted in accordance with the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in the subject

CURRICULUM STUDIES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF. VI MCKAY

CO-SUPERVISOR: PROF. KP QUAN-BAFFOUR

DECEMBER 2016

DECLARATION

Student Number: 5079980-0

I declare that the thesis entitled: **METHODS OF TEACHING ADULT LEARNERS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN GHANA AND SOUTH AFRICA** is my own work and that all the sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references and that this work was not previously submitted by me for any other degree at any university or institution.

……. …….

SIGNATURE DATE

(ADDAE DAVID)

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my dear mother, **Janet Osei-Asibey** who has been the foundation behind this pivotal achievement in my life. Mum, I love you and may the good Lord bless you abundantly.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this thesis represents a momentous milestone in my life. As a child, I dreamed of one day being a part of the many intellectuals all over the world who are helping to shape our world in their own small way. It gives me great joy to mention that the successful completion of this work was made possible through the help and cooperation I received from different people. First of all, my utmost gratitude goes to Professor KP Quan-Baffour of the Department of Adult Education and Training and Youth Development for the fatherly love, comfort, and encouragement he provided me throughout my stay in South Africa. I also thank Professor Quan-Baffour for his extensive, constructive and imaginative comments which were invaluable in the writing of this thesis.

I owe a great gratitude to Prof. VI Mckay, Dean of the College of Education, University of South Africa, for her patience and suggestions that enabled me to complete the study successfully. I am also indebted to all lecturers of the Department of Adult Education and Youth Development for their encouragement and direction that saw me through the entire programme. I single out praise for Prof Akwasi Arko-Achemfuor who made various important contributions to this work. I am highly grateful, sir. I want to express my appreciation to my dear daughter, Ama Pokua Addae, for her continuous love and affection. And also to my siblings, Sarfowaa and Nii, for their encouragement and support throughout my studies.

I also extend a heartfelt gratitude to all staff of the Department of Adult Education and Youth Development for their help. I say a big thank you to the educators/facilitators and learners in all the adult learning classes used for the study. This study would not have been possible without them.

Finally, to God be the glory great things He has done.

David Addae

ABSTRACT

The benefits of effective teaching methods have been well researched and documented. Salient amongst most literature on such benefits is their ability to promote learners' subject-matter comprehension and their active participation in class activities. Subject-matter and learner participation can be considered key ingredients in promoting effective learning. In adult education, due to the unique characteristics that the learner brings to the learning situation, it behooves the educator to select appropriate methods in promoting learning. By employing appropriate teaching methods, the educator is able to help adult learners achieve the desired learning outcomes. This study therefore sought to comparatively examine the effectiveness of the various teaching methods used by educators in teaching learners in adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa. The study focused on the National Functional Literacy Programme of Ghana and the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Programme of South Africa.

The study was conducted using a qualitative research approach where the multiple case study design was employed. A purposive sample of 152 participants comprising 72 learners and 4 educators each from Ghana and South Africa were selected for the study. The interview schedule, focus group discussion guide and unstructured observation guides were used to elicit data from the participants. The study revealed, amongst other things, that some of the methods employed by the educators in the teaching and learning encounter were ineffective in promoting adult learning in both programmes. The study recommends that methods employed to teach adult learners should help them effectively to make meaning of the various information or events that they are presented with. As a result, teaching moves from the traditional view of transmission to helping learners to reexamine their meaning-making structures.

Key words: adult education; adult learner; Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign (KRG); literacy; National Functional Literacy Programme (NFLP); teaching methods

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACRONYMS

ABET	Adult Basic Education and Training
BECE	Basic Education Certificate
DoBE	Department of Basic Education
DOE	Department of Education
CPP	Convention People's Party
EFA	Education For All
ERP	Education Reform Programme
FET	Further Education and Training
IDA	International Development Agencies
KRG	Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign
MSLC	Middle School Leaving Certificate
NFED	Non-Formal Education Division
NFLP	National Functional Literacy Programme
NSC	National Senior Certificate
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
PHC	Population and Housing Census
PNDC	Provisional National Defence Council
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SDL	Self-Directed Learning
UCR	Unconditioned Response
UCS	Unconditioned Stimulus
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The ability of any country to achieve an appreciable level of development and to improve the quality of life of its citizens depends to a large extent on the provision of quality education at all levels to its people. Adult education has gained prominence in many countries as a tool for sustainable socio-economic growth. This is largely due to the fact that in Africa adult education can foster national unity, development; create opportunities for economic growth, and meet the basic needs of people especially in rural areas where majority of the population lives (Quan-Baffour, 2000:1). Many African countries have come to the realisation that adult education can play a significant role in their development aspirations and this has ultimately culminated in the formulation of policies aimed at making adult education accessible to the mass of their citizens who missed the opportunity for formal education. As a consequence, many African countries have embarked on massive adult literacy campaigns with the goal of reducing the high rates of illiteracy amongst their people.

Ghana and South Africa are two examples of African countries that have shown commitment to the provision of adult education (i.e. literacy, numeracy, vocational and technical skills, family education, and environmental education) to millions of illiterate adults. Much has been done in both countries over the years to arrest the problem of illiteracy, which has led to a significant reduction in illiteracy rates in both countries. In Ghana, the rate of literacy has increased dramatically from 54.1% in 2000 to 71.5% in 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012:7) while in South Africa the rate of literacy is estimated at 91.9% (Statistics South Africa, 2012:15). Literacy campaigns in both countries have received major support from government, non-governmental organisations, and corporate bodies.

One of the pillars for successful basic education implementation is qualified educators or facilitators. That is, if basic education programmes can be successful in achieving their goals of imparting knowledge, skills, and attitudes to learners, facilitators must be

equipped with the various strategies, methods, and techniques for teaching adults. This implies that facilitators must have formal training in the art of teaching adults. It is, however, unfortunate to note that in some cases some of the facilitators for both adult education programmes in both Ghana and South Africa are not professionally trained. Quan-Baffour (2000:8) contends that since most facilitators of Adult Basic Education and Training programmes were formally trained to teach children, they might lack the knowledge and skills for handling adult learners or classes. And by implementing teaching styles, behaviours, methods, and strategies which are not suitable for adult teaching/learning situations, educators might cause many of these "volunteers" of learning to abandon their studies altogether, resulting in non-achievement of teaching/learning goals (Quan-Baffour, 2000). In line with Quan-Baffour's reasoning, this study is premised on the assumption that the methods employed by educators in teaching adult learners can either promote or impede effective learning among such learners. This is because an educator's choice of teaching methods can facilitate or inhibit the achievement of learning goals.

This chapter therefore provides an overview of the problem under investigation. The chapter begins by giving a background to the study in which adult education is contextualised in order to provide an understanding of how adult education is practised in the two countries. The research problem and related research questions are also indicated in this chapter, as well as the objectives, delimitation and significance of the study. The various terms used in the study are explained in line with the focus of the study. Further the theoretical framework is discussed in order to put the study into proper perspective. Finally, an overview of the steps employed in conducting the empirical investigation is presented in this chapter.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

One of the most important concerns of adult educators is how best to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes to learners. As Sharma (2003:19) succinctly puts it, "the adult educator's job is to bring about some new and desired student behaviour". Sharma further notes that teaching involves making a variety of decisions in a variety of situations in the classroom. In the learning situation, educators formulate and implement various

strategies aimed ultimately at making comprehension and application of the subject matter on the part of learners possible. However, since the characteristics of learners (age, gender, intellectual abilities, etc.) are many and varied, adult educators must vary their styles of teaching in order to achieve desired results in all learners. Adult learners, due to their unique characteristics (age, different needs and experience), require unique methods of instruction. Adult educators apply different teaching methods aimed ultimately at enhancing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of adult learners.

South Africa has, since the constitutional change in 1994, shown its commitment to making education accessible to all her citizens. In realization that adult literacy can aid in the attainment of her developmental goals, the country is a signatory to the Dakar Declaration of 2000 which aims to achieve by 2015 acceptable primary education for all children, and a reduction of illiteracy by 50% (Nassimbeni & May, 2006:30). The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) requires education to be transformed and democratised in accordance with the values of human dignity, equality, human rights and freedom, non-racism and non-sexism. It guarantees access to basic education for all, with the provision that everyone has the right to basic education, including adult basic education. (Department of Basic Education (DoBE), 2010:9). Nassimbeni and May (2006:29) contend that, “while there is some dispute about numbers of people in South Africa without functional literacy skills, there is consensus that, whatever the precise dimensions of the problem, illiteracy levels are high and represent significant barriers to personal development and economic participation”.

According to the 2001 census, cited in Aitchison and Harley (2006:93) in real terms, just over 4.5 million (4,567,497) had no schooling, and just over 4 million (4,083,742) had some primary education. Thus about 8.6 million South Africa adults aged 20 years or older (over one third, or 33.9%) could be calculated to be functionally illiterate. The African National Congress (ANC) Policy Framework argues that “the separation of education and training has contributed significantly to the situation where most of our people are under-educated, under-skilled and under-prepared for full participation in social, economic and social life” (ANC, 1994:17). As a result, the policy framework stipulates that “all individuals should have access to life-long education and training irrespective of race, class, gender,

creed or age". The need for adults to gain adequate knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to enable them participate fully in development of the country, makes Basic Adult Education and Training (ABET) highly imperative. Basic adult education is a constitutional right for persons above the age of fifteen (15) years who have either missed the opportunity of formal education or were not able to complete Grade 9.

On 3 February 2006, the Minister of Education established a Ministerial Committee on Literacy (MCL), which was required, among other things, to develop a strategic plan for a mass literacy campaign in South Africa to enable about 4.7 million illiterates who had never been to school to achieve a level of basic literacy, and thereby enable South Africa fulfill its commitment made at Dakar in 2000 of reducing illiteracy by 50%. The work of the committee eventually led to the commencement of the Kha Ri Gude (KRG) Mass Literacy Campaign in 2008 (Department of Education, 2010:6). According to Mckay (2012:2), such a campaign was necessary because South Africa's system of Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) was not reducing the number of illiterates and functional illiterates, even though the right of all South Africans to basic education in their own language had been enshrined in the Constitution. Mckay (*ibid*.:5) further states that "it was decided that the campaign would target both the truly illiterate (the unschooled) and those who dropped out of school too early to have developed functional literacy". The goal is to make people literate and numerate in their first languages. The campaign relies heavily on volunteer facilitators, supervisors, and coordinators to donate their time to provide literacy classes.

Ghana, on the other hand, has over the years implemented many campaigns aimed at reducing illiteracy in the country. Realising the significance of non-formal education in the socio-economic development of the country, the government under the government of the Provisional National Defense Council (PNDC) created the Non-Formal Education Division in the Ministry of Education (NFED/MOE) in 1987 (Aya Aoki, 2005:65). The National Functional Literacy Programme (NFLP) was established amongst others to increase the number of functionally literate adults (1 million persons) particularly of women and rural poor; and to provide quality basic literacy services to new groups in reading, writing, numeracy in the 15 Ghanaian languages and English (Ministry of Education, Science and Sports, 2008:5). Motivation for the National Functional Literacy

Programme (NFLP) heightened after the 1989 census showed an adult illiteracy rate of 67% (The World Bank, 1998, cited in Aya Aoki, 2005:65). Article 25(1) of the 1992 Constitution states that "all persons shall have the right to equal educational opportunities and functional literacy shall be encouraged or intensified as far as possible", gives credence to the NFLP.

The NFLP is seen by government as the main tool to reduce the rate of illiteracy in the country. The NFLP is not a programme meant to educate illiterates to compete with formally-educated school children for white-collar jobs (Republic of Ghana, 2003:10). It is the expectation of government that through functional literacy, the country's drive towards development will be facilitated since literacy is in itself a *sine qua non* for development initiatives. The NFLP is organised at community level with the communities providing the volunteer facilitators and learners. The NFLP has trained over 3 million learners in literacy in 15 Ghanaian languages, numeracy, and functional knowledge and skills (Ghana Audit Service, 2010).

KRG and NFLP are essentially voluntary and individuals can choose either to participate in them or not. This means that learners' satisfaction must be ensured at all times. It appears that for both programmes to achieve their desired goal of promoting literacy skills among adults; the teaching strategies adopted by educators should be of paramount concern. According to Knowles (1980:47), educators are often of the assumption that adults learn in the same manner as children. As a result, the technique of teaching children (pedagogy) was essentially applied to the teaching of adults. Teaching adults using pedagogy is, however, bedeviled with many flaws. It can be said that adults unlike children come to the learning situation with a variety of life experiences; they have different beliefs, values, and needs. As a result, it appears that the techniques and strategies for teaching children cannot readily be applied to facilitating adult learning.

However, the views of Knowles have been challenged as failing to take sufficient notice of the differences between adults and their contexts, for being prescriptive, a set of normative humanistic values (Hanson, 1996, cited in Rogers, 2002:72). From the foregoing it can be said that some adult learners having being absent from school for some years have the expectation of being taught and directed like children. Rogers, in

contrast to the views of Hanson, contends that adult students may be happy for much of the time to be directed as if they were in school, but are likely to rebel against their teachers when the affront to their adulthood becomes too great. Even though some of the learning will require that learners be directed, educators must vary the methods used for teaching them.

Adult educators possess some skills that enable them to help adults to acquire new knowledge and skills. In the words of Galbraith (1990:4), being technically proficient in the content area in which the instruction is being directed is paramount, as are the abilities to plan and administer educational programmes. According to Knox (1980, cited in Galbraith, 1990:4) adult educators must possess three specific areas of knowledge: knowledge of content, knowledge of learners and knowledge of methods. The last, knowledge of methods of teaching adults is of significance to this study, even though some researchers have argued against the importance of teaching in adult learning (Rogers, 1969; Hirst and Peters, 1970). This is because it is the general belief that adult learners come to the learning situation with a variety of lived experiences which need to harnessed by the educator in order to promote effective learning. The educator's role in this sense therefore is to guide the entire learning process. As such, the adult educator plays a nominal role in the entire teaching and learning encounter.

The researcher however disagrees with this view and concurs with the view of Jarvis (2004:140) that "learning can and does occur without a teacher but teaching is one way in which learning is facilitated". One of the goals of education is to promote the independence of learners. However, in order for this goal to be achieved, the educator must create the necessary conditions for such change to take place. The researcher argues that without teaching, the goal of learning may not be achieved. Therefore, the educator serves as a partner in the entire adult teaching and learning exchange. While it is true that adult learners come to the learning situation with various experiences, the educator creates the conducive environment for such experiences to be meaningful in the lives of learners.

As Galbraith (1990) puts it, a clear indication is emerging from the research into educators' ways of teaching; it reinforces the need for educators to assess how they teach

and understand the implications for their learners in the classroom. In line with Galbraith's view, there is the need for both KRG and NFLP facilitators in both countries to re-examine how they teach their learners and to identify which methods best suits them.

1.2.1 Contextualising Adult Education in South Africa

Prior to the attainment of democracy and constitutional change in South Africa, there were many conscious efforts by successive governments to discourage the education and training of some sections of the population. This culminated in a situation where many of the people were functionally illiterate. In response to the high rate of illiteracy, political organisations, churches, and non-governmental organisations established night schools and literacy classes in many parts of the country (Sibiya, 2005:2). However, attempts by such organisations to provide adult literacy programmes for black people was often met with stiff opposition from the government. The National Party government saw black people as a source of cheap labour and therefore did not see the need to provide them with education and training programmes. According to Bhola (2004:77), black people who were illiterate and untrained were kept on the lowest rungs of the economy.

Due to such marginalization of this section of the population, upon assumption of office in 1994, the government of National Unity was impelled to make all levels of education accessible to all people in accordance with their electioneering promises. Such a move was necessitated due to the need to promote swift socio-economic development in many parts the country. The government of National Unity inherited a country with a high rate of illiteracy especially amongst black people. There was therefore the need for government to take immediate and effective action to remedy the situation. A policy for basic education was enacted and implemented as a strategy to ensure equitable access to basic education for all people. As part of the implementation plan, the Department of Education established the Directorate for Adult Basic Education in 1995 to show government's commitment to the provision of adult education (SAQA, 1997a). The directorate was tasked with the coordination of adult basic education activities in the country.

The directorate has now metamorphosed into the Directorate for Adult Basic Education and Training in order to merge Adult Basic Education with training in the Further Education and Training (FET) band (DoE, 1997:27). This was partly due to the fact that previous campaigns which focused primarily on literacy were inadequate in bringing about significant transformations in the lives of uneducated people in the country. As such, the integration of adult education with training was considered as more appropriate in bringing about significant improvement in the quality of life among the mass of uneducated citizens.

The DoE in South Africa has reiterated its commitment to "improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognised and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in numeracy, literacy and life skills" (DoE, 2002:xiv). According to the DoE (2002:45):

> through the Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) Act, 2000, the Skills Development Act, 1998, and the Skills Development Levies Act, 1999, the Government has developed the basis for adult education and training provision which requires that government provides the necessary infrastructure that will allow adult learners to participate in lifelong learning in a non-discriminatory manner.

There has been a massive development of Adult Learning Centers in all provinces of the country.

It is important to note that education and training in the country is linked to the attainment of desired outcomes through the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) which relates learning achievement in the national education and training system through a system of common standards, as shown in the table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Levels of education in South Africa

NQF level	Description	Acronym	Years of schooling
NQF Level 1	General Education and Training	GET	9 years of formal education
	Adult Basic Education and Training	ABET	Equivalent to 9 years of formal education
NQF Level 2-4	Further Education and Training	FET	12 years of formal education
	Adult Education and Training	AET	Equivalent to 12 years of formal education
NQF Level 5 to 10	Higher Education and Training	HET	Post-school education

Source: (DOE, 2002:9, 45)

ABET is further classified into four levels shown in Table 1.2 which shows the levels of ABET and their equivalence to formal school grades.

Table 1.2: Equivalence of ABET levels to School Grades

ABET Level	Equivalent School Grades
Level 1	Grade 3
Level 2	Grade 5
Level 3	Grade 7
Level 4 (NQF level 1)	Grade 9

Source: South African Qualifications Authority (2000:5)

Literacy initiatives enable participation in ABET NQF Level 1 activities as they increase the number of people with basic education in a society and the average number of years of education and training in the population.

ABET is organised under six learning areas which are drawn from twelve learning fields and includes language, literacy and communication, mathematical literacy, mathematics

and mathematical sciences, human and social sciences, natural sciences, technology and economic management sciences (DoE, 1997a:30). Languages, mathematics, numeracy, business economics/economics, biology, accountancy, geography and history are some of the specific subjects that adult learners can choose from. The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) has also made the various levels of the ABET equivalent to the formal school system.

In line with such provisions, successive governments in the country have instituted many formal and non-formal adult education programmes. While ABET can be considered as the main framework for the provision of adult basic education in the country, many other programmes have been introduced by government and non-governmental organisations to help eradicate illiteracy in the country. One such initiative which is of particular importance to this study is the Kha Ri Gude (Let Us Learn) Mass Literacy Programme (KRG).

1.2.1.1 The Kha Ri Gude adult literacy programme

While the ABET system was meant to mitigate the rate of illiteracy in the country, Mckay (2012:1) contends that it had to some extent failed in reducing the number of illiterates even though the right of all South Africans to basic education in their own language had been enshrined in the Constitution. In order to sidestep this problem, the KRG was launched in 2008 as a national programme of government to end illiteracy among South African adults and to make it possible for all citizens to act on their right to get a basic education in the official language of their choice (Mckay, 2012). The programme is an integrated and multilingual mass adult literacy campaign which is being implemented across the entire country by the State through the Department of Basic Education (DBE) (Mckay, 2012:n.p.). The KRG programme is equivalent to ABET level 1. This suggests that the purpose of the campaign is to give participants basic skills in literacy and numeracy in order for them to function effectively in the socio-economic lives of their communities.

Target Group of the Programme

The programme was designed to help eradicate illiteracy among adult South Africans who had never been to school to achieve a level of basic literacy. The programme targeted individuals who had no formal education as well as those who could not complete primary education.

Aims and objectives of the programme

According to Mckay (2012:n.p.), the programme aimed to:

- enable 4.7 million functionally illiterate and semi-literate adults (aged above 15 years), including people living with disabilities, to become literate and numerate in one of the 11 official languages by 2012. This was intended to reduce the national rate of illiteracy by 50% by 2015 in line with the government's Education for All (EFA) commitment made in Dakar in 2000 as well as to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) on poverty reduction, women's empowerment, HIV and AIDS eradication, environmental protection and sustainable democratisation and peacebuilding;
- fulfil the constitutional right of all citizens to gain access to basic education in their own language (i.e. promote universal access to education);
- empower socially disadvantaged people to become self-reliant and to uplift their living standards (poverty reduction/alleviation);
- enable socially disadvantaged people to participate more effectively in national socio-economic development processes; and
- foster social transformation through enhanced civic or public awareness.

Programme implementation: Approaches and methodologies

The implementation of any literacy programme rests firmly on a partnership between programme funders, beneficiaries, coordinators, and facilitators. In the same vein, the KRG relies heavily on a synergy between the DBE**,** programme coordinators, supervisors, volunteer educators, and learners. Various communities in the country play a pivotal role in the implementation of programme by providing volunteer facilitators, learners, as well as learning facilities for the programme. As many as 35 000 community-based learning

sites have been established nationwide by the DBE (Mckay, 2012). The idea behind the establishment of such centres is to make them accessible to all learners.

Curriculum

It must be noted that teaching and learning is a complex process involving many interrelated activities. In the same vein, the ability of any educational programme to succeed in imparting the required knowledge, skills, and attitudes depends to a large extent on the quality of the programme's curriculum. In order to effectively address the particular and diverse learning needs of different groups of learners, the programme employs an integrated and multilingual approach to literacy skills training and, as such, the programme curriculum integrates basic literacy skills training in the learners' mother tongue with life skills training (Mckay, 2012:n.p.). According to Mckay (2015:370) "in the interest of directing its programme towards a developmental agenda, the Kha Ri Gude literacy campaign applies a thematic approach to the teaching of reading, writing and numeracy". Mckay further notes that "each of the pre-designed lessons aims to enhance learners' understanding of their rights and responsibilities while they learn the mechanics of reading, writing and numeracy. At the same time, the lessons are constructed to enable learners to become competent in the learning outcomes described and targeted in individual national Unit Standards." (Mckay, 2015:371)

Programme coordination

Coordinators, supervisors, and educators for this programme are members of the various communities who volunteer to help fellow illiterate/semi-literate community members acquire literacy and numeracy skills. In order to ensure that the core aim of the programme i.e. enabling 4.7 million functionally illiterate and semi-literate adults (aged above 15 years), including people living with disabilities, to become literate and numerate in one of the 11 official languages by 2012, the DBE recruited and trained about 75 000 community-based volunteer coordinators, supervisors and educators or literacy training facilitators, including 100 blind and 150 deaf educators who provide specialised instruction to their illiterate compatriots with disabilities (Mckay, 2012:n.p.).

Profile of facilitators

As has been noted, facilitators for the programme, referred to as volunteer educators, are individuals from the various communities in the country who offer to help their compatriots to acquire literacy and numeracy skills. These volunteer educators are community members with certain knowledge and skills pertinent to promoting learning amongst fellow community members. As such, the programme recruits individuals with qualifications ranging from National Senior Certificate (NSC), Diplomas and Bachelor's degrees in any field, as well as retired educators or any other individual with teaching skills. Volunteer educators are not regarded as salaried employees of the programme; however, they earn compensation in the form of a stipend. The researcher believes that not providing monthly salaries to the volunteer educators of the programme might compromise dedication and motivation since the remuneration is not enough to cater for their needs. In 2012, there were about 75 000 volunteers working as programme educators or facilitators of whom about 66% were under 35; 80% were women; 85% of them were unemployed and all were recruited from the same communities as the learners they served (Mckay, 2012:n.p.).

Recruitment of learners

To facilitate the recruitment of learners, the programme uses various media such community newspapers, radio stations, distribution of posters and pamphlets. Also meetings are held with various interest groups (women and youth groups, taxi organisations, trades unions, traditional leaders, and door-to-door visits) to solicit their participation. Again, funerals and community functions serve as avenues to disseminate information regarding the programme to community members.

Materials

In order to promote effective teaching and learning there is the need to develop teaching and learning materials which facilitate subject matter comprehension and learner participation in class activities. Materials for the programme follow an integrated approach to literacy acquisition drawing on the benefits of the language experience and whole word

approaches and teach the mechanics of reading, paying explicit attention to enhancing learners' perceptual and visual literacy skills, and systematically introducing phoneme/graphemes (from high frequency to low frequency) according to linguistic typologies developed for each language (Mckay, 2012: n.p.). The materials are designed to enhance the social, economic and developmental opportunities that comes with literacy acquisition by ensuring that Millennium Development Goal (MDG)-related issues are infused into the curriculum with lessons specifically addressing life skills concerning health, hygiene, nutrition, entrepreneurship, HIV/AIDS, gender, democracy, human rights and environmental awareness (United Nations, 2000 in Mckay, 2015:370-371). Learning materials are distributed without a fee to the learners. This demonstrates government's commitment to eradicating illiteracy in South Africa.

1.2.2 Contextualising Adult Education in Ghana

Illiteracy is one of the major problems that affect the socio-economic development of Ghana. The effective participation of citizens in the socio-economic, political, and infrastructural development depends on their acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Illiteracy and its concomitant problems are visible in all aspects of the Ghanaian economy. There has been a significant improvement in the rate of literacy in Ghana in recent years due mainly to the desire of successive governments to promote equal access to education for all citizens. According to the Population and Housing Census (PHC) (2010), 28.5 percent of the population can be considered as functionally illiterate compared to 45.9 percent in the 2000 census. Even though there has been some improvement in the situation, illiteracy is still very high for a country that achieved political independence more than half a century ago.

Eradication of illiteracy in Ghana is therefore considered by many as a strategy for sustainable development through empowering people to develop themselves, participate meaningfully in the process of development and enjoy the benefits thereof (Aryeetey & Kwakye, 2005:5). Since independence in 1957, successive governments have designed and implemented many policies, laws, and programmes aimed at eradicating illiteracy among the mass of the populace. According to UNESCO (2008), there were many non-formal adult literacy activities in Ghana even before independence in 1948 when the

British colonial administration introduced adult education in southern Ghana. The government of the Convention People's Party (CPP) (1957-1966) made mass adult literacy an integral component of its governance. Literacy committees were established all over the country to mobilise learners and recruit voluntary instructors (Amedzro, 2005:90). However, with the overthrow of the government in 1966, literacy activities in the country declined significantly. There have been several other efforts by successive governments to promote non-formal education activities in the country.

In realizing the essential role of non-formal education in the human and national development**,** the government made provision for it in the Education Reform Programme (ERP) of 1986 (Amedzro, 2005:91). This culminated in the establishment of the Non-Formal Education Division (NFED) to coordinate the provision of non-formal education initiatives in the country. The main objective of the NFED was to provide opportunities for people, especially, the poor and women in communities to benefit from functional literacy programmes to improve their livelihoods and participate in community development activities (NFED, 1999a:2).

1.2.2.1 National functional literacy programme

The National Functional Literacy Programme (NFLP), which is the brainchild of NFED, was therefore implemented in response to the need to eradicate illiteracy and its concomitant problems amongst the people. The NFED is the main implementing organisation responsible for policy formulation, programme coordination, programme design and development, materials design and production, radio programme development and general supervision of programme implementation, evaluation and monitoring of the NFLP (Aryeetey & Kwakye, 2005).

Programme objectives

The programme is designed to achieve the following specific objectives:

- to enable participants to better meet their personal and social needs through enhancing their abilities to deal competently with everyday life in literate community;

- to equip learners with the knowledge, attitudes and skills that will enable them to raise the quality of life in their communities;
- to enable learners to improve upon their occupational skills through functional literacy; and
- to broaden the reading interests of learners and establish an attitude of reading for pleasure through the provision of follow-up supplementary reading materials (NFED, 1999:n.p).

If these objectives are adequately realised, the researcher is of the view that beneficiaries/participants would be equipped with skills and knowledge that would make them able to function meaningfully in their societies.

Programme funding

The functional literacy programme in Ghana today is mainly state-funded with some support from non-governmental agencies. Even though, the government has reiterated its profound commitment to the provision of literacy programmes in the country, government only provides about 20% of the total funding, with the rest coming from International Development Agencies (IDA). Despite the seemingly minimal funding provided by the government, the Department for International Development (2004:1) has noted that

> the impact of the national literacy programme has been very positive. In poor, remote areas, in badly-lit buildings or in the open air, with limited resources, learners and volunteer facilitators meet on 3-4 evenings a week. The programme has stimulated strong demand for literacy, reintroduced large numbers of people to the educational process, and developed a strong community identity.

Target group

The programme broadly targets illiterates, but more specifically with an emphasis on the rural poor and women (Ghana Audit Service, 2003:9). The target group comprises those individuals who have had no formal education as well as those who could not complete primary education. The programme draws learners from the various communities in the country. As such, according to the Ghana Audit Service (2003:15):

learners are basically community members who have had no formal education or have dropped out of school. The majority of these are poor householders and self-employed who make their livelihood from small agricultural holdings and fishing. Learners volunteer to participate in the activities of the programme, i.e. to learn to read and write in their local languages and other functional skills.

Profile of facilitators

Facilitators for the programme are trained volunteers from the communities who teach the learners in the adult literacy classes (Ghana Audit Service, 2003:15). While some of the facilitators are retired professional educators in childhood and secondary education, others do not possess any teaching background. In order to sidestep the problem of unqualified teaching personnel, the NFED organises two weeks of intensive training on the correct methods of teaching illiterate adults including skills involved in the functional literacy programme (Ministry of Education, Science and Sports, 2008:23). However, it is the view of the researcher that the length of training of facilitators is inadequate given the fact that most of the facilitators are not professionally-trained adult educators. The researcher opines that training of facilitators should be an on-going activity throughout the entire duration of the literacy and numeracy teaching and learning process.

In order to be selected as a facilitator, facilitators must first be nominated by their communities and must, according to the Ghana Audit Service (2003:16) satisfy the following criteria:

- must be at least 18 years old;
- able to read and write in the local languages in use in the community and in the literacy class;
- preferably be able to read and write in English;
- live in the community for a period of at least two years;
- live at most 2 kilometres from the community centre; and
- be a holder of the Middle School Living Certificate (MSLC) or Basic Education Certificate (BECE) or higher.

Curriculum

In order to provide an effective functional literacy programme that will succeed in reducing the rate of illiteracy among the mass of the adult population in the country, there was the need to develop a multifaceted and multi-purpose curriculum. Such a curriculum must, in effect, endeavour to provide individuals with knowledge and skills that will enable them to participate fully in socio-economic as well as political life. Essuman (2004) posits that the curriculum of the programme covers topics from all development sectors. The curriculum of the NFLP basically falls under three broad areas namely: social and health issues, income-generation/occupational activities, and civic awareness with literacy and numeracy being part and parcel of the broad areas.

The curriculum is sector-tailored which means that learners from different economic sectors acquire knowledge and skills that are relevant to their respective sectors. For instance, while farmers will be taught new and improved methods of farming, fishermen will receive training relevant to their occupation. The most useful aspect of the entire curriculum is that learners are taught in their mother-tongue. According to Aryeetey & Kwakye (2006) the programme uses the Frierian methodology of instruction which involves discussion of complex pictures, providing descriptions of objects or situations, stories, proverbs, role-plays and drama, sing-songs, and the use of syllabication to form expressive words and sentences.

Levels

The entire training process is divided into two main stages namely basic and post literacy. The basic literacy phase spans a period of 21 months during which learners are taught basic reading, writing, and numeracy. During this stage, facilitators employ the use of primers guided by the facilitator's manual to facilitate learning.

Materials

The programme comprises basic literacy (i.e., literacy in Ghanaian language) and post literacy (i.e., Basic English literacy) (Ghana Audit Service, 2003; Aryeetey & Kwakye, 2006; Owusu-Mensah, 2007). The teaching materials for this programme are primers

developed in all Ghanaian languages as well as the English language. Since this programme is fully funded by the government of Ghana with the support of other IDAs, learning materials are distributed to the learners without a fee.

Supervision and support

The success of any programme depends to some extent on the quality and frequency of supervision provided. Supervision and support forms an important part of the NFLP. As such supervisors are regularly engaged to help monitor the programme. According to the Report of the Auditor-General on Functional Literacy Programme (2005), each supervisor is supposed to be assigned 15 literacy classes, which constitute a zone. The report (*ibid*.:4) also stated that:

> in addition to general supervisory functions, supervisors are supposed to provide active support to the literacy classes. This is an important part of their work. Many supervisors, however, stated that they could not discharge their duties due to transportation constraints. The delay caused by the NFED to pay transport and other allowances affected supervisory visits to learning centres.

Such a challenge to a large extent affects the quality of programme delivery.

Programme impact

The programme has chalked up some successes. For example, a survey of 1 200 beneficiaries from two different batches (2000-2002 & 2003-2005) showed strong achievements in reading skills, with 80% scoring 21 to 30 on a 30-point scale (Aoki, 2004). An important aspect of the implementation of the NFLP was the cooperation the numerous providers of adult education in Ghana to ensure the success of the programme (Blunch & Portner, 2004). It is important to note that, apart from the effort of the government, many of the providers of non-formal education programmes in the country are non-governmental agencies and churches.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Jarvis (2010:141) contends that “adult education has tended to regard the teacher as an adjunct to learning, often necessary and frequently important but not always essential to it”. As such, it has been argued that adults can learn unaided by the educator (Jarvis,

2010). While this argument is partly true, the researcher argues that teaching is one of the ways through which adult learners can move from a state of not knowing to knowing. By employing appropriate teaching strategies, methods, and techniques, the educator is able to help adult learners achieve the desired learning outcomes. It can be said that in teaching adult learners, the educator is faced with a very fundamental but important question of what methods are effective in teaching adult learners. It is the argument of the researcher that the choice of teaching methods to be employed by the educator in the adult teaching and learning encounter constitutes one of the most important decisions in the entire encounter. The researcher further argues that adult learners, due to their unique characteristics (age, life experiences, and occupation) and goals, require methods different from what has conventionally been used in teaching young learners (Knowles, 1980). In the light of the above arguments, the study sought to answer the following question:

How effective are the methods used in facilitating learning among adults in the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Project (KRG) of South Africa and the National Functional Literacy Programme (NFLP) of Ghana?

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to compare the effectiveness of the various methods used in facilitating learning amongst adult learners in the KRG of South Africa and the NFLP of Ghana.

1.5 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The main aim of the study was to compare the effectiveness of the various methods employed by facilitators to teach adult learners in South Africa's KRG and Ghana's NFLP programmes.

The study was specifically designed to:

1. compare teaching methods used by educators in teaching adult learners in the NFLP and the KRG;

2. compare the effectiveness of teaching methods adopted by educators in both countries with regard to:
    i. Subject-matter comprehension; and
    ii. Level of learner participation;
3. compare the effectiveness of methods of assessment employed in judging learners' progress;
4. compare the nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to the learners after assessment; and

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To seek answers to the central research problem and, in line with the aims of the study, the researcher posed the following research questions:

1. What methods are adopted by educators in facilitating learning among adults in Ghana and South Africa?
2. How effective are the various teaching methods employed by educators in promoting comprehension of the subject-matter in both the KRG and NFLP?
3. How effective are the various teaching methods with regard to promoting learner participation in lessons in KRG and NFLP?
4. How effective are the methods of assessment employed in the teaching and learning encounter in both programmes?
5. What is the nature of feedback provided to adult learners after assessment in both programmes?
6. How effective is the feedback given to learners in the process of teaching adults?

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Adult learners require knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will enable them function effectively in both social and economic life. The adult educator serves as a vehicle to bring about such transformation. According to UNESCO (1998, cited in Mckay, 2007:295):

> the delivery of quality adult education depends on well-trained adult practitioners who play a pivotal role in addressing critical economic, political, and social

> problems specific to learners across a variety of contexts (e.g., health and HIV/AIDS, the environment, labor, etc.), as well as across a variety of societal contexts—urban, rural, informal, and so on. Well-trained practitioners can do much to enhance the quality of the learning experience for adults.

One way that educators can ensure success of KRG and NFLP programmes is through the use of effective teaching methods. To this end, there is the need to investigate and compare the effectiveness of the various methods of facilitating adult learning in the context of KRG and NFLP.

The study might serve to inform administrators of KRG and NFLP on the various methods used by educators to facilitate learning and also the effectiveness of such methods in addressing the needs of learners. This could help in the formulation of policies that might guide instruction in KRG and NFLP. Again the study might identify ways of enhancing the facilitation of adult learning in both countries. This might go a long way to informing the departments responsible for KRG and NFLP to put in place mechanisms to enable educators improve on their facilitation skills. This study has the potential to offer knowledge to practitioners and students in the field of adult education on the role of facilitators' methods of teaching adult learners to ensure the success of adult education programmes.

1.8 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This is a study of the effectiveness teaching methods in adult non-formal education programmes in South Africa and Ghana. Due to time and logistic constraints, this study was delimited to the Gauteng province of South Africa and the Greater Accra Region of Ghana respectively. The two areas were selected for the investigation because these are places where the researcher had a personal experience of adult non-formal education activities over the years. There have been serious adult education efforts in the two selected areas because of the specific need for literacy. For example, illiterate youth and adults from all over South Africa move to Gauteng to look for work. The same can be said for the Greater Accra region where many people of all ages migrate from all over the country in search of jobs in Accra. In both countries, such an exodus has created a situation of high unemployment rates coupled with an increase in social vices. In view of the above reasons, the researcher limited the present investigation to these areas on the

assumption that the methods of teaching adults in the two areas could be studied and compared.

1.9 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

The following terms are used in the study and are defined as follows:

- **Adult** as used in the study refers to any individual who is fifteen years and above. The word adult connotes different meanings in different countries. However, the definition of adult is normally associated with maturity in terms of chronological age. In this study an adult refers to any individual who is fifteen years and above.
- **Adult education** as used in this study will be defined according to what UNESCO (1976:2) describe as:

  > the entire body of organised educational process, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges, and universities as well as in apprenticeship whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in two-fold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic, and cultural development.

  Thus, in brief, adult education refers to all forms of educational activities organised to enable adults acquire knowledge, skills, and attitudes.
- **Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET)** is a term used to describe basic education for adults where education and training have been integrated and which comprises four levels and is equivalent to Grade 7 in the formal school system as obtains in the National Department of Education policy on ABET (Department of Education, 1997, cited in Quan-Baffour, 2000:14).
- **Adult teaching/facilitation** as used in the study refers to the act of helping adults to acquire skills, knowledge and attitudes. In other words, it refers to the act of teaching adults.
- **Adult educator** as used in the study refers to any individual who guides adults to learn. It also refers to any individual who is engaged in the education (teaching and facilitation) of adults.

- In this study, an **adult learner** refers to any individual above the age of fifteen (15) who is engaged in any form of educational programme.
- Attitude as used in the study can be described as a learned tendency to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner toward an object, event, information (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).
- **Functional literacy** as used in the study refers to the expansion of the frontiers of knowledge and skills acquisition to the less fortunate in society (Republic of Ghana, 2003). A functionally literate person is defined as "one who can engage in activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning of his/her group and community and also for enabling him/her to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his/her own and the community's development" (UNESCO, 1978 in Republic of Ghana, 2003).
- **Functional Literacy Programme** as used in the study refers to a non-formal educational plan designed to enable learners to acquire knowledge and skills that would make them function effectively in the larger socio-economic and political environment (Republic of Ghana, 2003).
- Knowledge as used in the study refers to the "representation of facts, procedures, principles and theories in a certain domain. Also, the information from observations, experiences, believes and prejudices in everyday life is referred to as knowledge" (Westera, 2001:75).
- **Literacy** as used in study refers to literacy is defined as the ability to read and write in the mother tongue, but sometimes literacy could be defined also as the ability to read and write in the national or even international language (Bhola, 1984:3). Literacy is a term used to describe the ability to read and write in a given language. According to Menkir (2002:15), to be literate has different levels: among literates, some could be able to read and write simple statements, while others have the skill of reading newspapers and other print materials.
- **Numeracy** as used in the study is a term used to describe the ability to comprehend and apply simple mathematical functions like addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

- **Methods of teaching adults** as used in the study refers to the planned and systematic way by which an adult educator imparts knowledge, skills, and attitudes to adult learners.
- **Effectiveness of teaching methods** as used in the study refers to the ability of teaching methods to effectively promote learners' comprehension of subject-matter, and their participation in the teaching-learning encounter.
- Skills "is used to refer to a level of performance, in the sense of accuracy and speed in performing particular tasks (skilled performance)" (Winterton, Delamare-Le Deist & Stringfellow, 2006:26).
- **Strategy** is a plan designed to achieve a particular long term aim (Oxford Dictionary of Current English, 2006:902). A strategy encompasses a set of steps designed to achieve a stated objective.
- **Teaching** as used in the study is operationally defined as a transaction between individuals whereby one party called the educator creates the conditions necessary for knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be acquired to the other party referred to as the learner. Teaching can also be defined as a transaction between two parties whereby one party, known as the teacher, presents a variety of stimuli with the intention of bringing about a change in the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the other party known as learners.

1.10 METHODOLOGY

The research problem was addressed by means of detailed literature review as well a comprehensive empirical investigation. The study is qualitative in nature and a multiple case-study by design since the main objective of the study was to solicit the experiences of both educators and learners about the effectiveness of teaching methods employed in the adult teaching and learning encounter in both South Africa and Ghana.

Qualitative data collection techniques were used to elicit information from the participants. An interview schedule (Appendix A), an unstructured observation guide (Appendix B) and a focus group discussion guide (Appendix C) were adopted for the purpose of data collection. The instruments were designed in line with the stated aims of the study.

1.10.1 Empirical Investigation

A brief synopsis of the empirical investigation is presented in this section. A detailed description of the methodology employed in the study is given in Chapter 4.

The researcher adopted the qualitative research approach for this study. The multiple-case study research design was adopted for this study. Multiple-case study is a comparative research design which according to Bryman (2012) represents the logic of comparison, in that it implies that we can understand social phenomena better when they are compared in relation to two or implicitly contrasting cases or situations. Therefore, in order to examine the effectiveness of the various methods employed in facilitating learning among adult learners, it is appropriate to make comparisons between two or more settings, hence Ghana and South Africa.

1.10.1.1 Population

The study sought to examine the effectiveness of the various methods of teaching adult learners in Ghana and South Africa. To this end, there was the need to clearly identify the population for the study. The population of the study is all individuals who facilitate adult learning as well as all adult learners in non-formal education programmes in South Africa and Ghana. There are many individuals who are involved in imparting knowledge and skills to adults in both countries.

1.10.1.2 Selection of participants

The respondents for the study were individuals who teach adult educators as well as adult learners in the NFLP and KRG programmes. A sample of 152 participants made up of 72 adult learners from each country and 4 adult educators each from Ghana and South Africa. The sample was chosen for the study because the researcher deemed it appropriate to provide the needed information to complete the study. In both countries, the researcher made use of the purposive sampling technique in selecting both the educators and learners. In South Africa, the researcher selected the participants from Kha Ri Gude learning sites. These participants were located through the Department of Basic Education. In Ghana, participants were chosen form the National Functional

Literacy Programme run by the Non-Formal Education Division (NFED) of the Ministry of Education. Letters of consent were sent to the prospective participants before the actual data collection process began.

1.10.1.3 Data Collection

The researcher used a combination of qualitative data collection techniques to solicit information from the respondents. According to Fine and Weis (1996:267), “methods are not passive strategies; they differently produce, reveal and enable the display of different kinds of identities”. In addition, the use of multiple data collection instruments greatly enhanced the dependability of the study. The instruments for data collection were used sequentially. The focus group discussion guide, unstructured observation, and interview guides were the instruments used for the study. The unstructured observation was issued in the initial stages to elicit live information about the phenomenon under investigation.

The focus group discussion guide was used in the latter stage of data collection to elicit in-depth information from the learners while the interview schedule was employed to generate data from the educators on the topic under study. All the instruments were designed in line with the objectives of the study.

1.10.1.4 Credibility, dependability, and transferability

There was the need to ensure credibility, dependability and transferability of the findings generated in this study. Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, and Spiers (2002:2) assert that “without rigor, research is worthless, becomes fiction, and loses its utility. Hence, a great deal of attention is applied to reliability and validity in all research methods”. In qualitative research, the researcher is concerned about the issues of credibility, dependability, and transferability.

Bryman (2012:390) states that:

> the significance of this stress on multiple accounts of social reality is especially evident in the trustworthiness criterion of credibility. After all, if there can be several possible accounts of an aspect of social reality, it is the feasibility or credibility of the account that a researcher arrives at that is going to determine its acceptability to others.

As such many steps were taken to ensure credibility of the study's findings. Notable among them is prolonged stay in the field in order to gain a better understanding the phenomenon under investigation. Also methodological triangulation was employed in the study. Triangulation requires the employment of multiple sources, including theory, methods, data collection strategies, or analytical techniques with the purpose of interrogating each type of resource (Andres, 2012:21). The use of different data collection instruments greatly helped to ensure the validity of the study. The researcher used an interview schedule, unstructured observation guide and focus group discussion guide in order to traingulate the results emanating from each instrument.

There was the need to ensure the transferability of the findings to other contexts. Bryman contends that

> because qualitative research typically entails the intensive study of a small group, or of individuals sharing certain characteristics (that is, depth rather that the breadth that is a preoccupation in quantitative research), qualitative findings tend to be oriented to the contextual uniqueness and significance of the aspect of the social world being studied.

Therefore, to ensure transferability of the findings, the researcher provided what Geertz (1973a) calls thick description. By thick description, the researcher provided rich and detailed accounts of events that took place in the field.

According to Jensen (2007:112), confirmability is often equated with reliability and objectivity in quantitative research. To explicate what confirmability entails, Bryman (2012:390) notes that confirmability:

> is concerned with ensuring that while recognising that complete objectivity is impossible in social research, the researcher can be shown to have acted in good faith; it should be apparent that he or she has not overtly allowed personal values or theoretical inclinations manifestly to sway the conduct of the research and the findings deriving from it.

In this study, in order to ensure confirmability the researcher relied on an independent reviewer to assess the research process employed in the conduct of the study. The comments from the independent reviewer helped in no small way to eliminate any researcher biases that may have occurred during the collection of data.

1.10.1.5 Ethical considerations

Many research undertakings require that data be collected from an identified sample for the purpose of understanding a social phenomenon. However, research can yield expected results if some ethical considerations regarding the subjects of the study and handling of data collected are not taken into account. To this end, the researcher sought ethical clearance from the ethics committee of University of South Africa before embarking on the study (Appendix H). When ethical clearance was given, the researcher sought the informed consent of the educators/facilitators of the learning sites where the study was to be carried out. According to Alderson and Goodey (1998, cited in Wiles et al., 2005), informed consent involves the provision of appropriate information to enable people make informed decisions about participation in a research project.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001:73) opine that the principle of informed consent arises from subjects' right to freedom and self-determination. To this end, the researcher provided prospective respondents with information relating to the purpose of the study and gave them the opportunity to decide whether to participate or not in the study. This was done by sending letters to the management and educators at the various centres requesting their participation in the study.

Another ethical consideration that was taken into account was the protection of the anonymity of the subjects. The right to anonymity was guaranteed so as not to reveal the identities of the respondents which might have negatively affected them in terms of their employment. Therefore, the research instruments were designed in a manner that did not reveal the identities of respondents. Again the researcher ensured that responses from the respondents were kept confidential. A response is said to be confidential when no third party has access to such responses.

The researcher also protected the right of the subjects to their privacy. The researcher endeavoured not to encroach on the rights of the respondents to their privacy. To this end, the researcher ensured that only times that were mutually agreed upon for the sake of data collection were honoured. The researcher also ensured respondents' right to freedom of choice and expression. The researcher desisted from asking leading

questions and whenever the researcher suspected that the respondents had been made to feel uncomfortable due to the line of questioning, the researcher halted the session, apologised to the respondent, and rescheduled the meeting.

1.10.1.6 Analysis of data

The descriptive narrative method was used to analyse the qualitative data obtained from the various instruments employed in the study. The responses from the participants were analysed by grouping them into themes and sub-themes.

Data obtained from the various qualitative instruments was transcribed into text analysis through coding and categorisation. This was done in order to identify commonalities, patterns, and differences across the data collected. In some instances, responses from the participants were quoted verbatim.

1.11 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

This research work consists of seven (7) chapters.

- Chapter 1: Orientation to the Study

Chapter 1 is the orientation to the study and provides the introduction, background to the study, and the statement of the problem. The aims of the study are also stated as well as the significance, delimitation, and limitations of the study. The chapter also contains a brief overview of the methodology employed in the study.

- Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework and Overview of Adult Learning

This chapter discusses the relevant literature related to the study. It reviews literature on learning in general and adult learning in particular.

- Chapter 3: Methods of Teaching Adults

This chapter discusses the various teaching methods suitable for adult learners. The chapter is also devoted to a review of literature on assessment and feedback in adult learning.

- Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology

This chapter gives a comprehensive description of the methodology employed in the study. The research approach, research design, sample and sampling procedures, data collection methods, and the method of data analysis are discussed in this chapter.

- Chapter 5: Presentation of Results

In this chapter, the results obtained from the field are presented.

- Chapter 6: Discussion of Results

The results obtained from the field are discussed in line with the stated objectives.

- Chapter 7: Synthesis, Conclusion, and Recommendations

This chapter presents the synthesis and conclusion of the entire study. The researcher also shares his thoughts on the how best to facilitate adult learning in the light of the literature reviewed and findings. A set of recommendations are made based on the findings for policy guidance. It further contains suggestions for future research.

1.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an orientation to the study. The background to the problem was discussed and the problem under investigation clearly delineated. The research aims were spelt out with the scope of the study demarcated. The key concepts used in the study were operationally defined. An overview of the research methodology describing how the problem was investigated was provided, and an indication of the various chapters in the thesis was also given. It is obvious from the discussion in this chapter that adult educators employ a variety of methods to teach adult learners. However, some of these methods are not very effective with the learners. There is therefore the need to investigate the effectiveness of the various methods of teaching adult learners.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND AN OVERVIEW OF ADULT LEARNING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the researcher discussed the setting, the research problem and provided the motivation for the study. This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section discusses the theoretical framework under which the study is subsumed and the implications of the theory for adult teaching and learning. The second section of the chapter is devoted to a discussion on the process of learning in general and adult learning in particular. The need to review literature on adult learning is particularly pertinent because any conversation about effective teaching must begin with a consideration of how students and for that matter adults learn (Ambrose, Bridges, DiPietro, Lovett & Norman, 2010: 1). An understanding of the various adult learning processes will set the tone for a firm understanding of how best to teach adult learners. The discussion on adult learning is organised under the following sub-themes:

- The concept of learning;
- Domains of learning;
- Principles of adult learning;
- Understanding the adult learner;
- Adult learning strategies;
- Perceived influences of the environment on adult learning;
- Promoting effective adult learning;
- Implications of adult learning processes on teaching; and
- Summary and conclusion.

2.2 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

This study sought to investigate the effectiveness of the various methods employed in teaching adult learners. The literature on psychology of learning is replete with different theories on how human beings learn. Each theory is dependent on the philosophical orientations of the theorists. The assumption has been made that adults due to their

unique biological, and socio-economic characteristics, learn differently from children (Knowles, 1980). The researcher concurs strongly with that view, in that; adults have gained considerable wealth of experience which can be appropriately harnessed by the adult educator to bring about learning.

The fact that adult learners have gained considerable lived experiences does not mean that such experiences are universal to all learners. Such experiences may have different meanings to different adult learners based on their respective socio-cultural contexts. As such meaning-making is derived from the individual's interaction with the social environment. It can therefore be inferred from the foregoing arguments that adult learners require learning situations that enable them to reflect on the various experiences acquired. Again, adult learners require learning situations which promote their active participation in lessons and gives them the chance to apply what they have learned. In this regard, the theory under which the study is subsumed is the constructivist learning theory.

2.2.1 Constructivist Learning Theory

Constructivism encompasses many related perspectives explaining how learning occurs. Constructivism originated from one of the two sets of views underlying human knowledge. Constructivism is a psychological and philosophical perspective contending that individuals form or construct much of what they learn and understand (Bruning, Schraw, Norby, & Ronning, 2004). Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007:291) assert that a constructivist stance maintains that learning is a process of constructing meaning; it is how people make sense of their experiences. In this respect, constructivism can help in understanding how people acquire, reflect, and shape their knowledge in order to conform to reality. Constructivism can also help to identify various methods for facilitating adult learning.

Constructivist learning theory has been influenced immensely by the works of John Dewey, Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky (Davis & Sumara, 2002; Henson, 2003; Huang, 2002; Merriam, et al., 2007). According to the constructivists, "knowledge is a working hypothesis. It is not imposed from outside people but rather formed inside them. A

person's constructions are true to that person, but not necessarily to anyone else" (Schunk, 2008:230). Cobb and Bowers (1999) argue that this is because people develop knowledge based on their values, beliefs, and experiences in situations which differ from person to person. As such, knowledge is not universal but subjective and personal. This suggests that the cultural structure of individuals plays a significant role in their meaning-making of events and ultimately on their knowledge. According to Cobb and Bowers (1999), constructivist theory explains the interaction of persons and situations in the acquisition and refinement of skills and knowledge. Knowledge is therefore inherent in the situation within which an event takes place.

Constructivists disagree on many of their philosophical assumptions. There is a modicum of agreement, however, around a differentiation between two forms of constructivism (Richardson, 2003:1624). Phillips describes these two forms of constructivism as radically different poles that serve to delineate the whole domain of constructivism. Differentiation can be made along sociological and psychological lines. Driver, Asoko, Leach, Mortimer, and Scott (1994) also frame the issue as one of personal versus social constructivism.

2.2.1.1 Personal/psychological constructivism

In the words of Richardson (2003), this approach relates to a developmental or learning theory that suggests that individual learners actively construct meaning around phenomena, and that these constructions are idiosyncratic, depending in part on the learners' background knowledge. Driver et al. (1994:6) contend that learning as an individual or personal activity involves a "progressive adaptation of an individual's cognitive schemes to the physical environment". As such, meaning is made by the individual and is dependent on the previous and current knowledge of the individual. A single event might yield different meaning to different individuals. Falzon (1998:38) provides a comprehensive explanation of how psychological constructivism occurs as follows:

> encountering the world … necessarily involves a process of ordering the world in terms of our categories, organising it and classifying it, actively bringing it under control in some way. We always bring some framework to bear on the world in our dealings with it. Without this organisational activity, we would be unable to make any sense of the world at all.

Richardson (2003) further contends that the development of meaning may take place within a social group that provides its members the opportunity to share and provide warrant for these meanings. Even though human beings belong to a society and are guided by its beliefs, values, norms, and worldview, meaning-making begins from an individual perspective before they relate it to shared knowledge.

2.2.1.2 Sociological/social constructivism

According to Phillips (2000:6), social constructivism is a theory that holds that bodies of knowledge or disciplines that have been built up are "human constructs and that the form that knowledge has taken in these fields have been determined by such things as politics, ideologies, values, the exertion of power and preservation of status, religious beliefs, and economic self-interest". According to Driver et al., (1994:7), the social constructivist view posits that knowledge is constructed when individuals engage socially in talk and activity about similar problems or tasks. Meaning making is thus a dialogic process involving individuals in a conversation, and learning is perceived as a process where individuals are introduced to a culture by more skilled members.

The socio-cultural context within which individuals find themselves in affects the way they form understanding of events. Jarvis (2009:25) makes the following observation about how human beings learn:

> …the fact that the individual is social is crucial to our understanding of learning, but so is the fact that the person is both mind and body. All of our experiences of our life-world begin with bodily sensations which occur at the intersection of the person and the life-world. These sensations initially have no meaning for us as this is the beginning of the learning process. Experience begins with disjuncture (the gap between our biography and our perception of our experience) or a sense of not-knowing, but in the first instance experience is a matter of the body receiving sensations, e.g. sound, sight, smell and so on, which appear to have no meaning. Thereafter, we transform these sensations into the language of our brains and minds and learn to make them meaningful to ourselves – this is the first stage in human learning. However, we cannot make this meaning alone; we are social human beings, always in relationship with us, and as we grow, we acquire a social language, so that nearly all the meanings will reflect the society into which we are born.

It can be deduced from the above that meaning-making is shared among members of a given society. Knowledge or meaning-making is highly influenced by the worldview of a society. This worldview is seen by members of society as reality, and, when confronted with new situations, individuals tend to reflect on their previous knowledge in relation to the new knowledge. The family serves as the first agent of socialisation. The individual gains an identity and learns about his/her social environment in the family. A social network grows from the family into other spheres of life (school, church, and peers). The individual internalises the values of the society to which he/she belongs by observing and imitating significant others. Knowledge is, therefore, the result of the interaction of the individual with other members of the society.

Schunk (2008:238) further distinguishes between three different perspectives on constructivism. The perspectives are equally relevant to understanding learning. He distinguishes between exogenous, endogenous, and dialectical constructivism.

2.2.1.3 Exogenous Constructivism

According to Schunk (*ibid*.), exogenous constructivism refers to the idea that the acquisition of knowledge embodies a reconstruction of structures that exist in the external world. This means that human beings' construction of knowledge is highly influenced by the external environment. The external environment affects beliefs through experiences. Knowledge is only true when there is a consistency between a set belief and reality.

2.2.1.4 Endogenous Constructivism

According to Schunk (*ibid*.), mental structures are developed from previous structures, not directly from environmental information; therefore, knowledge is not a mirror of the external world acquired through experiences, teaching, or social interaction. He further notes that knowledge develops through the cognitive activity of abstraction and follows a generally predictable sequence. This means that meaning-making is the product of internal mental processes which do not have any relationship with the external world. When human beings are confronted with a situation, many impressions are generated directly from the mind which produces meanings.

2.2.1.5 Dialectical/cognitive constructivism

Individuals are active participants in their environment, and as such knowledge is generated from an interaction between a person and his/her environment (Schunk, 2008:238). For Schunk, constructions are not perpetually bound to the external world, nor are they completely the product of workings of the mind; rather, they reflect the outcomes of mental inconsistencies that result from interactions with the environment. Meaning-making is therefore the result of mental processes and impressions from the external environment.

2.2.2 Basic Assumptions of Constructivist Learning Theory

Despite the identified variants of constructivism, the theory holds some general assumptions. A basic assumption of constructivism is that people are active learners who construct knowledge for themselves (Geary, 1995). As a result, "one learns through engaging, incorporating, and critically exploring the views of others, and new possibilities of interpretation are opened through the interaction (Gergen, 1995:34). Candy (1991:275), in discussing how this assumption relates to adult learning, posits that:

> becoming knowledgeable involves acquiring the symbolic meaning structures appropriate to one's society, and since knowledge is socially constructed, individual members of society may be able to add to or change the general pool of knowledge. Teaching and learning, especially for adults, is a process of negotiation, involving construction and exchange of personally relevant and viable meanings.

To clarify this assumption, it can be said that adult learners are active participants in their cultures. They acquire knowledge, beliefs and values from the society which becomes a frame of reference for future knowledge. The role of the adult educator is not to provide the learners with new knowledge. The adult educator should essentially present the opportunity for learners to reflect on such knowledge and beliefs and to identify the most feasible knowledge. Despite the different positions of the variants of constructivist views, Taber's (2006) analysis reveals the following:

- Knowledge is actively constructed by the learner, not passively received from the outside. Learning is something done by the learner, not something that is imposed on

the learner. Knowledge can only become true, when learners reflect meaningfully on it. By reflection, it is meant that learners compare what they already know and the new knowledge presented to them. The same situation will have different meanings for different learners.

- Learners come to the learning situation with existing ideas about many phenomena. Some of these ideas are ad hoc and unstable; others are more deeply rooted and well-developed. Due to their exposure to varying events, learners come to the learning situation with a wealth of experiences which have been accumulated over many years of participation in social activities. They come to the learning situation with some beliefs which have become well-established while others are not entrenched.
- Learners have individual ideas about the world, but there are also many similarities and common patterns in their ideas. Some of these ideas are socially and culturally accepted and shared, and they are often part of the language, supported by metaphors. They also often function well as tools to understand many phenomena. The experiences that learners bring to the learning situation are unique to each individual learner. Even though, in some instances, there might be some similarities among the various experiences, experiences of different learners are generally not the same.
- These ideas are often at odds with accepted scientific ideas, and some of them may be persistent and hard to change. Due to their cultural structures as well as the societal belief systems, learners have knowledge and beliefs that pertain to their respective societies. The knowledge and beliefs that learners possess are shaped by their belief systems which differ from one learner to the other.
- Teaching has to take learners' existing ideas seriously if they want to change or challenge these. Teaching/facilitation in the constructivist sense sees the learner as an active participant in the meaning-making process. The role of the teacher is to design learning encounters in such a way as to encourage learners to challenge their belief systems.
- Although knowledge in one sense is personal and individual, the learners construct their knowledge through their interaction with the physical world, collaboratively in social settings and in a cultural and linguistic environment.

One idea that has been endorsed by all constructivists is that of situated learning. Constructivism stresses contextual specificity and notes the importance of taking the context of learning environments into account in attempting to explain behaviour (Schunk, 2008:255). A basic premise of constructivism is that meaning-making is the product of the physical and social contexts as well as the ability of individuals to reflect on such contexts. The model of situated cognition is premised upon the notion that knowledge is contextually situated and is fundamentally influenced by the activity, context, and culture in which it is used (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989).

According to Greeno (1989, cited in Schunk, 2008:239), situated learning (cognition) involves relations between a person and a situation (social and physical contexts within which a phenomenon occurs); thus, cognitive processes do not reside solely in one's mind. In situated learning, "one cannot separate the learning process from the situation in which the learning is presented" (Merriam et al., 2007:178). Fenwick (2003:25) contends that "knowledge is part of the process of participation in the immediate situation". Many impressions are inherent in socio-cultural contexts. By their participation in such contexts, human beings acquire certain ideas which promote meaning-making. This means that if an adult educator employs specific methods in teaching learners how to effectively read a newspaper (for example, through simulation), learning is apt to become situated in this context. Even though learning is situated in the socio-cultural contexts, there is an element of reflection on the part of the learner. Reflection provides the opportunity for learners to understand the context and to refine their previously held views.

For learning to be effective, "there is the need for learners to practise what they have learned. Multiple practical experiences are a central feature of situated cognition, i.e. skills are honed through practice where the student moves towards increased autonomy" (McLellan, 1996:11). McLellan further notes that repeated practice serves to test, refine, and extend skills into a web of increasing expertise in a social context of collaboration and reflection. This implies that adult learners should be given the opportunity to practise the skills that have been imparted to them and to apply them in new and unfamiliar situations.

2.2.3 Implications of the Theory for Adult Teaching and Learning

Constructivism presents some implications for adult teaching and learning. Adult learners, as has been noted, have accumulated some relevant experiences which come to bear in any learning situation. However, since experiences (knowledge) are subjective in the constructivist sense, it implies that meaning-making is dependent on individual interpretations, and hence the notion that meaning-making is multiplicitous.

Roblyer (2006) summarises the views of constructivist theorists as follows:

- Knowledge is not transmitted but constructed through practical activities or personal experience which generates knowledge. Young (1993:45), in support of this view, states that

  > to meet the test of authenticity, situations must at least have some of the important attributes of real-life problem solving, including ill-structured complex goals, an opportunity for the detection of relevant versus irrelevant information, active/generative engagement in finding and defining problems as well as in solving them, involvement in the student's beliefs and values, and an opportunity to engage in collaborative interpersonal activities.

This means that learners require teaching methods that promote their ability to practice what they have learned. When learners practice what they have learned, they will be in a better position to reflect on new and already existing knowledge and to discern valid knowledge from them. Schunk (2008:241) advocates for teachers to involve students actively in their learning and to provide experiences that challenge their thinking and force them to rearrange their beliefs.

- Learning occurs through student centered activities rather than instructor led. A basic premise of constructivism is that individuals are active constructors of knowledge. Meaning making is an inherent process unique to human beings. Since learners construct their own knowledge, it is therefore important for adult educators to employ facilitation methods that seek the active participation of learners in the entire learning process. According to Jonassen, Davidson, Collins, Campbell and Bannan (1996), learner-centeredness is an approach to teaching that moves away from the concept of the teacher as the centre of instruction and refocuses attention on what the learner does, i.e. it focuses on the active role of the student in the learning process.

- Students must be allowed to exhibit what they have learned in different ways. Adult learners should be afforded the opportunity to transfer what they have learned to other situations. This will enable them to effectively apply what they have learned in relatively different environments and be in a position to solve real life problems.

Huang (2002) discusses some instructional principles that may be applied to adult learners engaged in the constructivist learning environment. These principles need consideration for both active and inactive learning environments in order to achieve maximum student learning. First, learning should be interactive since "learners do not learn in isolation from others … [rather,] people naturally learn and work collaboratively in their lives" (*ibid*.:32). Interaction can be facilitated through such things as group activities, class discussion, and interaction between learners and instructors. Second, collaborative learning should be facilitated in order to provide opportunities for reflective responses and collaborative construction of new knowledge. In addition, learners' social and interpersonal skills can be enhanced through effective collaborative learning.

Third, Huang (2002) echoes the writings of Henson (2003) and Spigner-Littles and Anderson (1999) by emphasising the need for facilitating learning in a safe environment that encourages sharing of ideas and asking of questions. Fourth, the need to provide authentic learning that will equip learners for similar real-life experiences can be facilitated through such learning experiences as case studies, or internships. Fifth, constructivism and the theory of andragogy both emphasize the need for learner-centered learning. Sixth, and last, constructivist learning provides the opportunity for high-quality learning that provides learning experiences closely aligned with the real world of adult learners (Huang, 2002).

Another important implication of constructivism to teaching and learning is that learning is a socially mediated process where there is a mutual relationship between learners and their social environments. According to Schunk (2008:253), “all learning is mediated by tools such as language, symbols, and signs. Individuals acquire these tools during their social interactions with others. They internalise these tools and then use them as mediators of more advanced learning”.

Therefore, the role of the adult educator is to guide this mediation process. Once adult learners have acquired basic concepts through the help of adult educators, they can move to advanced, independent learning. Adult educators must, therefore, guide learners to engage in discovery learning by helping them to acquire the tools that promote active learning. From the various implications discussed above, the following teaching methods can be suggested:

- Discovery learning: this will enable adult learners to discern 'valid' from 'invalid' knowledge. Bicknell-Holmes and Hoffman (2000) identify the three main attributes of discovery learning as follows: 1. exploring and problem-solving to create, integrate, and generalise knowledge, 2. Student-driven, interest-based activities in which the student determines the sequence and frequency, and 3. activities to encourage integration of new knowledge into the learner's existing knowledge base The adult educator should act as a guide during the process of discovery.
- Cooperative learning: This promotes the active interaction between learners in order to gain a better understanding of subject matter and to effectively practice the skills that have been imparted to them. According to Schunk (2008:271), "in cooperative learning, the objective is to develop, in students, the ability to work collaboratively with others".
- Simulation: This is where adult educator creates an imitation of real life situations in order for learners to solve real life problems. This gives learners the chance to engage in hands on activities. Practice is the essence of simulation and learners gain a better understanding of what they have learned.
- Coaching: This consists of observing students while they carry out a task, providing a guide on the side "… providing learners with opportunities for initiative and self-directed problem-solving" (McLellan, 1996:11). Since the objective of constructivism is meaning-making which is unique to individual learners, the adult educator should guide learners during tasks.
- Class discussion: This is useful when the objective is to acquire greater conceptual understanding or multiple views of a topic (Schunk, 2008). Discussions give learners the opportunity to express their views about the topic under consideration. This means

that learners are able to reflect on their experiences by relating the views of other learners to what they already know.

- Problem-based learning: Problem-based learning enables learners to apply their knowledge and skills in solving different problems. As learners work collaboratively in finding solutions to real-life situations, they test and refine their knowledge and identify new ways of doing things.

There are some basic commonalities among the methods identified above. Of particular importance, is the role of the adult educator in the entire learning process. The adult educator does not take centre stage in the learning encounter. The role of the educator is to create environments that promote the active participation of learners in the process. Again, learners collaborate with one another in the learning process. Finally, learning involves real life situations rather than abstract and less meaningful problems.

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF LEARNING

Educational theorists and psychologists have always sought to understand how human beings learn. This has led to the formulation of many and varied theories aimed at explaining the concept. People agree that learning is important, but they hold different views on the causes, processes, and consequences of learning (Schunk, 2012:3). Any set of learning principles is predicated on a definition of learning (Ambrose, et al., 2010:3). Shuell (1986, cited in Schunk, 2012:3) argues that there is no one universally accepted definition of learning. This is due to the fact that the various definitions of learning are greatly influenced by the orientation of respective theorists. Brown (2004: 6) opines that:

> for a strongly committed behaviourist, learning is the modification of behaviour brought about by experience. For most cognitive psychologists, learning is the study of how information is sensed, stored, elaborated and retrieved. Others would stress the importance of meta-cognition (learning to learn), or reflection on experience as well as experience *per se*. Humanistic psychologists are more likely to insist that personal growth and development are at the heart of learning, while constructivists argue that learning is primarily concerned with how people develop different conceptions and constructions of reality.

Rogers (1986: 42) argues that “in common parlance the word learning carries at least two meanings; the first a general one of some kind of change often in knowledge but also in

behaviour…but there is also a more intense sense of the verb 'to learn' meaning to memorise, or learn by heart". Most definitions of learning have focused on learning as change. Ambrose, et al. (2010: 3) who see learning as change, define learning as a process that leads to change, which occurs as a result of experience and increases the potential for improved performance and future learning. They further identify three critical components of the definition and explain them as follows:

1. Learning is a process, not a product. However, because this process takes place in the mind, we can only infer that it has occurred from students' products and performances.
2. Learning involves change in knowledge, beliefs, behaviours, and attitudes. This change unfolds over time; it is not fleeting but rather has a lasting impact on how students think and act.
3. Learning is not something done to students, but rather something that students themselves do. It is the direct result of how students interpret and respond to their experiences – conscious and unconscious, past and present.

Schunk (2012:3) offers another definition of learning which is of importance to the discussion. According to him, "learning is an enduring change in behaviour, or in the capacity to behave in a given fashion, which results from practice or other forms of experience." This definition brings to the fore the following key points:

1. Learning involves change in behaviour or in the capacity for behaviour. People learn when they become capable of doing something differently. At the same time, it must be noted that learning is inferential. We do not observe learning directly but rather its products or outcomes. Learning is assessed based on what people say, write and do.
2. Learning endures over time. This excludes temporary behavioural changes brought about by such factors as drugs, alcohol, and fatigue. Such changes are temporary because when the cause is removed, the behaviour returns to its original stage. But learning will not last forever because forgetting occurs.
3. Learning occurs through experience (practice, observation, and others). This criterion excludes behavioural changes that are primarily determined by heredity, such as

maturation changes in children (e.g., crawling, standing). Nonetheless the distinction between maturation and learning is not clear-cut.

Jarvis (2009a:25) offers a sociological definition of the term. In his words:

> learning is the combination of processes throughout a lifetime whereby the whole person – body (genetic, physical, and biological) and mind (knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, emotions, meanings, beliefs, and senses) – experiences social situations, the content of which is then transformed cognitively, emotively or practically (or through any combination) and integrated into the individual person's biography resulting in a continually changing (or more experienced) person.

Jarvis argues that while we live, our biography is an unfinished product constantly undergoing change and development – either through experiences that we self-initiate or else through experiences which are initiated by others. The researcher defines learning as the systematic process of acquiring, modifying, and acting on relevant information which ultimately results in change in knowledge and future behavioural patterns. It can be implied from the definitions given above that learning is a developmental process which essentially leads to change. Change means the ability of individuals to behave in a different manner, and such behaviour must essentially be relatively permanent. The question here is how long should a behavioural change last for it to be classified as learned. Many scholars agree that changes of short duration (few seconds or even minutes) do not qualify as learning (Schunk, 2012:4). Rogers agrees with Schunk when he makes a distinction between the forms of change. According to Rogers (1986: 43):

> learning as change takes two main forms: those more or less automatic responses to new information, perceptions or activities that result in change (which may be called incidental learning), and secondly those structured purposeful changes aimed at achieving mastery. What we usually mean by learning are those more or less permanent changes brought about voluntarily in one's patterns of acting, thinking, and feeling.

He further contends that there are at least two parts to the process: the reception of and engagement with new information, i.e. the development of new perceptions or the engaging in new forms of activity, and secondly the responses to this new information. This means that for change to occur, individuals must effectively receive new information/stimuli, understand such information/stimuli, and then respond meaningfully in the light of the information/stimuli presented.

Experience plays a crucial role in people's ability to learn effectively. In more recent years, the significance of learning from experience has been widely recognised, although it has mostly been seen in terms of experiences that are created by teachers so that learners can learn the practical side of some theoretical propositions (Jarvis, 2009:20). Learning can only occur when people make meaning of both past and present experiences and as such shape their future behavioural patterns based on such experiences. This means that individuals must essentially make connections between old and new information and where appropriate modify their already existing knowledge or behaviour to suit current situational expectations. Schunk (2012:346) agrees with this view in positing that learning begins with the knowledge and skills that learners bring to the situation which they expand and refine as a function of learning.

Illeris (2011: 47) posits that a fundamental aspect of learning is that it always includes two integrated but very different processes: the external interaction process between the learner and the social, cultural, and material environment; and the internal psychological processes of elaboration and acquisition in which new impulses are connected with the results of prior learning. Human beings are in constant interaction with their environment (social, cultural, technological) which enables them to acquire knowledge, skills, values, beliefs, and attitudes. The type and content of knowledge, skills, or attitudes acquired is highly dependent on the time and place. It can be said that the content of knowledge and skills that was deemed appropriate five decades ago will be fairly different from that needed in the present day where there have been considerable advancements in science and technology.

According to Illeris (2011:47), no matter how dominant or imperative the interaction process has become in learning there is always a process of individual acquisition in which the impulses from the interaction are incorporated. This means that the human brain always makes connections between new information and already acquired information. He further contends that the outcome of the individual acquisition process is always dependent on what has already been acquired and ultimately the criteria of this process are of a biological nature and determined by the extensive, but not infinite,

possibilities of the human brain and the central nervous system to cope with structure, retain and create meaning out of impressions as perceived by our senses.

Jarvis (2010:38) has noted that learning is an existential phenomenon – it is intrinsic to our being – and to a great extent experiential, although in pre-conscious learning, it is important to recognise that some of our experiences may be pre-cognitive or pre-conscious. He further contends that, at the same time, we have to recognise that learning is more than phenomenological since our experiences are affected by the experience we have; it is also affected by the social structures within which we exist, and so on. He places significance on the role of experience in the learning process. It is worth noting that the experiences of individuals are shaped to a large extent by the society to which they belong. As individuals go about their daily activities, they interact with other people and their environment. Social interaction is, therefore, an important source of rich experience for people.

2.4 PRINCIPLES OF ADULT LEARNING

Learning is a complex, multi-faceted, and dynamic process which occurs throughout life. The increasing rate of socio-economic as well as technological advancement in society has meant that individuals should always look for avenues that promote the acquisition of new knowledge and skills in order to remain relevant in the ever changing world. This makes lifelong learning a basic human need. The need for adults to learn stems from the demands of complex human society, where significant technological development is ubiquitous. Since the founding of the field of adult education, the task of explaining how adult learners learn has been a major concern for both researchers and practitioners (Merriam, 2004).

According to Brookfield (1996), despite the many journals, books, and research conferences devoted to adult learning across the world, there is no universal understanding of this process. He further contends that “adult learning is often spoken of by adult educators as if it were an entirely discrete domain, having no connection with learning in childhood or adolescence”. While some adult educators see no difference between adult and childhood learning, others have argued that adults, due to their unique

characteristics, learn differently from children. A firm understanding of adult learning is not clear-cut. As Merriam (2011: 29 citing Jarvis, 1992: 11) succinctly puts it:

> Adult learning is a phenomenon at once deceptively simple, yet enormously complex. It is simple because we know that learning "is the essence of everyday living and of conscious experience; it the process of transforming that experience into knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs and values". However, it is also complex because there is no one definition, model or theory that explains how adults learn, why adults learn, and how best to facilitate the process.

In order to fully comprehend the concept of adult learning, it is imperative to distinguish it from child learning. According to Cranton (2011:53), "throughout the 1970s and 1980s considerable effort was put into describing adult learning as a distinctive process- different from children's learning in important ways". For instance, Tough (1979) conducted a survey in which he found that the majority of adults engage in some form of sustained independent learning. Illeris (2010: 49) makes the following observation about learning in childhood:

> In general, learning in childhood could be described as a continuous campaign to capture the world. The child is born into an unknown world and learning is about acquiring this world and learning to deal with it. In this connection, two learning-related features are prominent, especially for the small child: first learning is comprehensive and uncensored, the child learns within her grasp, throws herself into everything, and is limited only by her biological development and the nature of her surroundings. Second, the child places utter confidence in the adults around her, she has only those adults and the ways in which they behave to refer to.

From the above point, it can be concluded that the child depends on adults to make meaning of the world around him/her. The child is born into a society which has certain values, beliefs, norms and ways of life. The child, guided by members of the society and especially the family, essentially learns and adapts to the status quo. Although the difference between adult and childhood learning has been hotly contested by many theorists in adult education and psychology, it can be argued that adult learning is quite remote from childhood learning. An adult can be seen as an individual who is willing and able to take responsibility for his or her own actions (Illeris, 2011:49).

Adulthood is an ascribed role which is bestowed on an individual by the society to which he/she belongs. In many contexts, adulthood is defined in terms of age. In this sense

adulthood is a generic term that describes individuals who have reached a certain defined age and have assumed the responsibilities that comes with that age. Despite the generic definition of adulthood to cover a specified age group, there is marked “variability across the life span” (Galbraith, 1990:25). From the definitions given, it can be argued that adults take responsibility for their learning and participate meaningfully in the activity. Adults therefore learn what they see as crucial to improving their life circumstances. According to Cranton (1992), at least seven broad themes can be drawn from the research and theory on adult learning:

1. Adult learning is often described as voluntary in that individuals choose to become involved in informal and formal activities in order to develop personally or respond to a professional or practical need.
2. Based on Knowles’ influential work, adult learning is seen as self-directed. Cranton (1992, citing Knowles, 1980) views self-directed learning as a process by which people identify their learning needs, set goals, choose how to learn, gather materials, and evaluate their progress.
3. Adult learning is seen as practical or experiential in nature.
4. Adults are portrayed as preferring collaborative and participatory learning largely due to the influence of humanism on adult education practice.
5. Adults bring rich experiences and resources to their learning – one of Knowles’ (1980) defining characteristics of adult learning.
6. Since adults have often been away from formal schooling for some years (though this is less true today) and may have had negative early experiences with school, they are seen as reentering learning with anxiety and low self-esteem.
7. Adults have a variety of learning styles and preferences.

2.4.1 Theories of Adult Learning

Until about the 1950s, adult educators relied on research in psychology and educational psychology to explain adult learning (Merriam, 2004:202). The focus of such research was to explain learning from the perspective of children and adolescents. The need to professionalise the field of adult education as a distinct field from basic or secondary education meant that adult educators develop unique theories relevant to their field.

Merriam, et al. (2007:83) contend that attempts at codifying differences between adults and children as a set of principles, a model, or even a theory of adult learning have been, and continue to be pursued by adult educators. In their view, three major contributions – andragogy, self-directed learning, and transformational learning – form the cornerstone of adult learning theory today. Other theories – experiential learning, critical theory, and situated learning – have played a significant role in the development of adult learning theory. These theories are discussed in the following section.

2.4.1.1 Andragogy

As has already been noted, the need to delineate adult learning as being separate from that of children sparked considerable attempts to develop unique set of theories to explain how adult learn. Andragogy is perhaps the most widely known theory of adult learning in the field of adult education. According to Van Gent (1996: 114):

> the term andragogy is used in a variety of ways. To some it is a word for the education of adults, just as "pedagogy" may stand for the education of children. To others the word andragogy denotes a specific approach to the teaching of adults that is considered essentially different from the teaching of children. To still others the concept of andragogy includes not only adult education but also social work, personnel management, and community organisation.

Knowles (1984:7) contends that clearly by 1970 – certainly by 1980 – there was a substantial enough body of knowledge about adult learners and their learning to warrant attempts to organise it into a systematic framework of assumptions, principles, and strategies. Andragogy evolved as a set of assumptions about adult learning which sets it apart from children's learning. The European concept of andragogy was introduced by Knowles (1968:351) as "a new label and a new technology" distinguishing adult learning from children's learning or pedagogy (Merriam, 2004:29). Andragogy is based on a number of assumptions about the adult learner. Knowles (1980:44) originally advanced the following assumptions:

1. As a person matures his or her self-concept moves from that of a dependent personality toward one of a self-directing human being. Adults, by virtue of their age and social roles, do not want to be treated as children in the learning situation. They want to be active participants in the learning encounter. In essence, adults want to

participate in deciding what will be learned, identifying their learning needs, setting learning goals and activities, as well as evaluating such activities.

2. An adult accumulates a growing reservoir of experience, which is a rich resource for learning. This means that adults, by virtue of their age and participation in a wide variety of activities (social, economic and political), accumulate vast life experiences. These experiences become crucial in adult learning encounters. As such, the role of the adult educator is to cultivate the experiences of learners and to make it possible for learners to transfer such experiences to other related situations.
3. The readiness of an adult to learn is closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role. Adults play different socio-economic roles in society. Since conditions in society are not static, but changing with the passage of time, individuals must constantly acquire knowledge and skills in order to remain relevant. For example, the dynamism in society as manifested in technological and socio-economic developments has meant that individuals constantly need to upgrade their knowledge and skills. Adults are, therefore, compelled to learn due to changing demands of the jobs and life situations.
4. There is a change in time perspective as people mature - from future application of knowledge to immediacy of application. Thus, an adult is more problem-centred than subject-centred in learning. Children go to school to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes which will be applicable in the future. Adults, on the other hand, require knowledge and skills which will be immediately applicable to their occupations. The urgency and immediacy of application of knowledge and skills means that the curriculum of adult education programmes should reflect the needs of adult learners.

Two additional assumptions were later added to the already existing ones. According to Knowles and Associates (1984:12):

5. The most potent motivations are internal rather than external.
6. Adults need to know why they need to learn something. This is somehow related to the fourth assumption. Most adults learn in order to bring about desired changes in their socio-economic conditions. In this regard, they must know in advance, why a

particular learning encounter is relevant and to what extent it will bring about the desired changes.

Knowles saw these assumptions as the basis to designing adult education programmes. According to Merriam et al. (2007) from each of these assumptions, Knowles (1984:84) indicates several implications for the design, implementation, and evaluation of learning activities with adults. For example, regarding the first assumption that as adults mature they move from a stage of dependency to that of self-directedness, Knowles (1980:47) argues that the classroom climate should make "adults to feel more accepted, respected, and supported; and there should exist a spirit of mutuality between teachers and students as equal enquirers".

Another aspect of Knowles' andragogical model is what he terms the andragogical process design, steps for creating adult learning experiences (1984a). This design was initially composed of seven steps; however, recently a further was added to make it eight steps (Knowles, 1995). These steps are as follows:

1. Preparing learners for the programme. Some adults have been away from the educational context for some time and may be unaware of the various intricacies in the teaching and learning experience. It is therefore the duty of the adult educator to provide some orientation for such learners to be aware of the various dynamics in the learning context.
2. Establishing a climate conducive for learning. The environment within which teaching and learning occurs is crucial to the success or otherwise of the learning process. Again, many adults possess physiological defects which reduce their speed of learning. Therefore, an unfavourable learning climate will make it utterly impossible for them to learn. As such, adult educators must pay particular attention to the various factors within the setting.
3. Involving learners in mutual planning. Planning is key to the success of any endeavour. In order for the learning encounter to yield the goals for which it was necessitated, there is the need to involve adult learners in the planning of the entire process. When adults actively participate in the planning process, their active participation in the learning process cannot be in doubt.

4. Involving participants in diagnosing their learning needs. Adults have a variety of needs which must be met through educational programmes. These needs should be the driving force behind any teaching and learning encounter. A need is seen as a gap between the current state of affairs and the ideal. Adult educators and, for that matter, adult education programmes should not predict the needs of learners and thus design programmes based on such predictions. For the active participation of adult learners to be achieved in educational programmes, they must be involved in diagnosing their needs.
5. Involving learners in forming their learning objectives. Achieving stated learning objectives is the essence of any learning encounter. These objectives are closely tied to the needs of adult learners. Adults must be involved in deciding which outcomes they wish to achieve by the end of the learning experiences.
6. Involving learners in designing learning plans. Learning plans have to do with specific learning experiences that should be incorporated into the teaching and learning encounter. The sequence of the learning experiences is key to achieving the stated learning outcomes. Therefore, adult learners must be actively involved in planning their own learning experiences.
7. Helping learners carry out their learning plans. Plans are just plans if they are not implemented. Since learning is a set of activities designed to bring about a change in knowledge, skills, and attitudes, there must be room to put these activities into practice. Again since adult learners have been part of the entire planning and designing stage, it is imperative to guide them in carry out their learning plans. (Knowles, 1984a:15-18)
8. Involving learners in evaluating the learning outcomes. At the end of the entire learning encounter, there is the need to evaluate whether the stated learning outcomes have been met. This is done to ensure that the desired learning has indeed occurred. Adult learners must be involved in evaluating their own learning, whether they have been able to achieve the desired objectives or not. (Knowles, 1995)

Learning from this perspective is therefore a transaction between the educator and learners where both parties reach consensus about how the entire learning process should be organised. Some empirical studies have been conducted on the relationship

between andragogical assumptions and instruction, which is of importance to this study. Beder and Darkenwald (1982) asked teachers who taught adults and pre-adults if their teaching behaviour differed according to the age of the students. Teachers reported viewing adult students differently and adopting more andragogical approaches. Also Rachal (2002) reviewed eighteen studies on andragogy conducted between 1984 and 2001, which attempted to assess the efficacy of an andragogical versus pedagogical instructional design. He found that these studies revealed mixed results due to the fact that most of the studies were biased and did not take into account other related factors.

According to Merriam, et al. (2007:92), although assessing the validity of andragogy directly may prove difficult to do, one could consider the extent to which a broader range of research in adult learning may or may not support the assumptions underlying andragogy. Andragogy has been criticised on many grounds. According to Elias (1979), the main point of contention was whether andragogy could be described as a theory of adult learning. Hartree (1984) questioned whether andragogy was indeed a theory at all, suggesting that andragogy prescribes "what the adult learner should be like" and as such constitutes principles of good practice. This view was echoed by Merriam (2011: 29) in asserting asserts that "probably the best-known set of principle or assumptions to guide adult learning practice, andragogy actually tells us more about the characteristics of adult learners than about the nature of learning itself".

Davenport and Davenport (1985:157) chronicled the debate, noting that andragogy has been classified as a theory of adult education, theory of adult learning, theory of technology of adult learning, method of adult education, technique of adult education, and a set of assumptions. Brookfield (1986:96), in assessing whether andragogy is indeed a proven theory, argues that three of the assumptions are problematic when deducing the implications for practice. According to him, the first assumption about self-direction is more a desired outcome than a given condition while the third and fourth assumptions, relating learning to particular social roles and focusing on immediate application, can lead to a narrow view of learning.

Others also question whether andragogy is indeed an alternative to pedagogy. The fundamental question here is that; is andragogy distinct from pedagogy in terms of

application and principles? Some adult educators who applied the principles of andragogy noticed that they were applicable to child learners. Knowles (1984:13) himself laid the matter to rest when he stated that, pedagogy-andragogy represents a continuum ranging from teacher-directed to learner-directed and that both approaches are appropriate with children and adults, depending on the context.

2.4.1.2 Self-Directed Learning theory (SDL)

According to Merriam (2001:8), about the same time that Knowles introduced andragogy to North American adult educators, self-directed learning (SDL) appeared as another model that helped define adult learners as different from children. He further notes that based on the pioneering work of Houle, Tough, and. Knowles, early research in self-directed learning was descriptive, verifying the widespread presence of self-directed learning among adults and documenting the process by which it occurred. From that period, self-directed learning has had a profound impact on the theory and practice of adult education. Although self-direction has been "... a recurring preoccupation of educators throughout the ages, it seems particularly to have dominated the thinking, and hence to have captured the imagination, of many adult educators in recent years" (Candy, 1991:5). Many adult education programmes around the world are founded on the principles of SDL.

At first glance, SDL seems self-explanatory and many people will claim to know it. However, "SDL is one of those amorphous terms that occurs in adult education literature but that lacks precise definition. … it is so broad as to be almost meaningless". (Jarvis, 1992a:130, 131). Candy (1991:411) concurs with the view of Jarvis when he states that:

> A versatile concept, it has been co-opted to every purpose that adult educators espouse and pursue. The consequence of this is that the literature on self-direction is extensive, but it is also confusing. The lack of internal consistency precludes the possibility of developing a coherent theory of self-direction, or even of self-directed learning, from within the literature itself.

Candy (1987) in Leach (2000:9) "identified at least 30 different terms being used interchangeably with self-direction. Some of the terms listed by Candy are auto-didaxy, autonomous learning, independent learning, learner-controlled/directed instruction, non-

traditional learning, open learning, participatory learning, self-directed learning, self-education, self-organised learning, self-planned learning, self-responsible learning, self-study and self-teaching".

Different perspectives have been presented by different scholars on this principle. Some theorists are of the view that SDL occurs when learning is done in isolation (Adekanmbi, 1990; Knowles, 1975). For example, Joblin (1988:123) sees self-directed learners as being "apt to close themselves off from others and/or the world outside themselves". Gibbs' definition of learner autonomy also suggests isolation. According to Gibbs (1979), the autonomous person refers to an independent agent, one who is in command of himself, the author of his own work, deeds and way of life, not subject to the authority of other persons or things.

Other theorists disagree with the 'learning in isolation' view and contend that learning should be done with others (Boud, 1981; Brookfield, 1981). According to Brookfield (1985:7), "it is evident that no act of learning can be self-directed if we understand self-direction as meaning the absence of external sources of assistance". Brockett and Hiemstra (1991:11), in support of this view, declare that "it is a mistake to automatically associate self-directed learning with learning in isolation or learning on an independent basis". Candy (1991:125) adds his voice to the debate when he argues that:

> … it is difficult, if not impossible, for a person to escape entirely the effects of socializing influences in determining his or her attitudes, habits, values, and beliefs. Accordingly … it is probably impossible for the majority of individuals to attain autonomy in the ideal or strongest sense.

It is a fact that many individuals make efforts whether consciously or unconsciously to learn. Adults, as has been noted earlier, are highly motivated individuals and as a result seek learning opportunities that will enable them to enhance their living conditions. In order to understand the basic tenets of SDL, some researchers have sought to identify its various goals (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991; Brookfield, 1986; Mezirow, 1985). Others have also sought to explain SDL through the development of different models. The latter has received great attention from researchers. However, the goals of SDL also help to illuminate the theory. Merriam, et al. (2007:107) lists the following as the goals of SDL:

1. To enhance the ability of adult learners to be self-directed in their learning. Within this goal the assumption is that part of the job of adult educators is to help learners whether they are learning on their own or in a formal learning programme, to be able to plan, carry out and evaluate their own learning.
2. To foster transformational learning as central to SDL. This goal draws heavily from the writings of Jack Mezirow. Mezirow (1985:27) contended that "there is probably no such thing as self-directed learner, except in the sense that there is a learner who can participate fully and freely in the dialogue through which we test our interests and perspectives against those of others and accordingly modify them according to our learning goals". This means that adults need to critically reflect on the socio-economic, political as well as historical background to their needs. And these needs must be the driving force behind any learning encounter.
3. To promote emancipatory learning and social action. The focus of self-directed learning should be the emancipation of learners from their unfavourable socio-economic and political conditions. Learners should be in a position to question the socio-economic assumptions that have guided their development and to take collective action to bring about change. Learners must therefore exercise control over the entire learning process.

From the above, it can be deduced that SDL should first of all promote a sense of autonomy in adult learners. Adult learners must initiate the learning process and should be responsible for the planning, implementation, and evaluation of the learning process. The desire of learners should be to bring about reflection on and a change in their perspectives on dominant ideologies. When there has been a perspective transformation, learners must be liberated from the oppression in their societies.

2.4.1.2.1 Models of SDL

Different models have been proposed by different scholars for SDL. The various models provide better insights into how SDL is conceived and its implication for adult education practice. Two models are of particular importance to this study, namely: Brockett and Hiemstra's model and Garrison's model.

- *Brockett and Hiemstra's Model*

Brockett and Hiemstra (1991:26) developed the Personal Responsibility Orientation (PRO) model which provides a framework for self-direction in learning and entails both instructional method processes (self-directed learning) and personality characteristics of the individual learner (learner self-direction). For them, personal responsibility is basic to understanding self-direction in learning. This is the focus of the instructional process dimension. Here, learners assume primary responsibility for planning, implementing and evaluating the learning process. They note that the role of an "educational agent" is to facilitate the entire learning process (*ibid*.:24). On the other hand, the personality characteristics of individual learners "centers on a learner's desire or preference for assuming responsibility for learning".

The notion of personal responsibility is at the core of their concept of self-direction in adult learning. Personal responsibility, according to Brockett and Hiemstra (*ibid*.:26) "refers to individuals assuming ownership for their own thoughts and actions". They note that even though the individual learner is at the central to the idea of self-direction, the social context within which learning takes place is also important. The interplay between the characteristics of the learner, instructional methods and the social context is depicted in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Personal Responsibility Orientation Model

Source: Brockett and Hiemstra (1991:25).

The role of the social context in the learning process cannot be underestimated. From Figure 2.1, the personal responsibility of the learner is reflected in the learner's characteristics and characteristics of the teaching and learning transactions. These two characteristics serve as a driving force in self-directed learning.

- *Garrison's Model*

Garrison (1997, cited in Merriam et al, 2007:114) is the most recent scholar to propose a multidimensional and interactive model of self-directed learning which is grounded in a collaborative constructivist view "integrates self-management (contextual control), self-monitoring (cognitive responsibility) and motivational (entering and task) dimensions to reflect a meaningful and worthwhile approach to self-directed learning" (Garrison, 1997:18). Self-management, the first dimension, acknowledges the social context within which learners interact, whether formal or informal, and involves taking control of and shaping the contextual conditions so that they can reach their stated goals and objectives (Merriam, et al., 2007:114). Self-management in an educational context refers to learners' ability to organise learning experiences and to use appropriate learning materials which promote effective communication.

According to Garrison (*ibid*.:24), the self-monitoring and motivational dimensions characterise the cognitive dimensions of self-directed learning. Self-monitoring refers to learners' ability to monitor their cognitive and metacognitve processes. In other words, self-monitoring describes the amount of responsibility learners take for constructing meaning for themselves from their learning experiences. Garrison (1997:24) posits that "self-monitoring is synonymous with responsibility to construct meaning … and is very much associated with the ability to be reflective and think critically". The motivation dimension, she argues, has an inescapable influence in self-directed learning, affecting both the decision to learn (entering motivation) and the effort required to continue with learning once started (task motivation) (Garrison, ibid in Leach, 2000). Garrison's model is depicted in Figure 2.2.

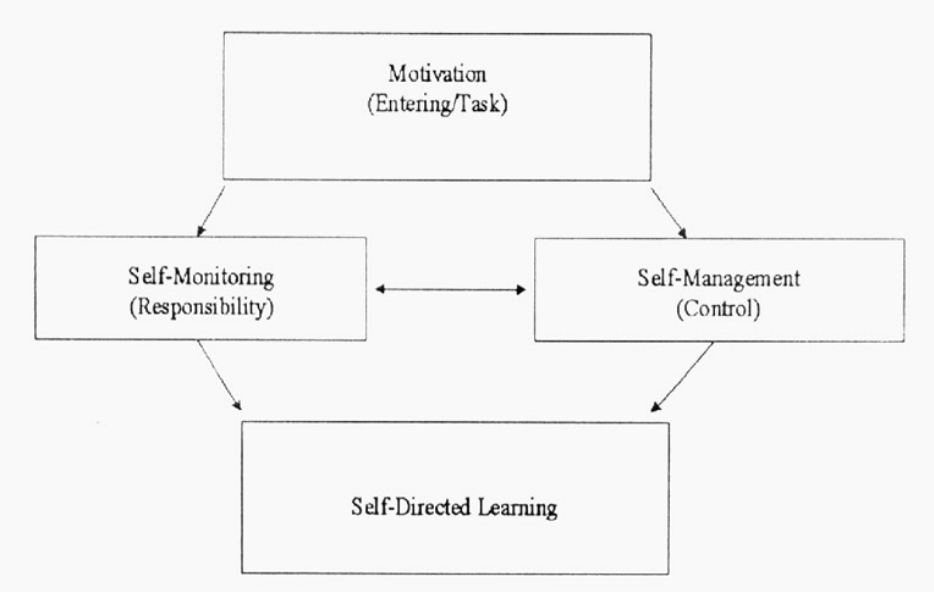


Figure 2.2: Dimensions of self-directed learning

Source: Garrison (1997, cited in Merriam, et al., 2007:115).

The fulcrum of Garrison's model is motivation in that "it affects the level of responsibility learners take for constructing meaning for themselves from their learning. It also affects the level of control they take over their learning – their responsibility of learning resources and support (self-management)" (Leach, 2000:43). This means that adult learners will only initiate any learning experience, sustain and effectively participate in it if, and only if, they are motivated to do so.

2.5 OTHER THEORIES OF ADULT LEARNING

In this section, the researcher discusses other theories of adult learning pertinent to this study. This is done to provide more insight into adult learning from different perspectives.

2.5.1 Critical Theory

The focus of critical theory is on the power structures that influence the process of learning. Learning is thus a product of the socio-economic context within which it occurs. Critical theory is greatly influenced by the works of Karl Marx who wrote extensively on class struggle. In the words of Rogers and Horrocks (2010:116), “critical theory explores the ways in which the values and assumptions of the powerful reach the less powerful through hegemony”. According to Collins (1994:100), “for a critical perspective on adult education the initial task is to identify social structures and practices which (mis)shape social learning processes and undermine capacities adults already possess to control their own education”. The structure of society has perpetuated the oppression of the mass of the population by some individuals.

The oppressed are alienated from participation in the decision-making processes of their societies, decisions that affect them in the long run. According to Freire (1970:61), those who are alienated are considered as “marginal”. This means that such people are considered as unimportant to the context of the wider society. Welton (1993:88) posits that “human beings as child-rearers, partners, workers, clients, citizens, and consumers struggle against the process of being turned into objects of corporate and state management. Systemic imperatives then threaten to disempower men and women who have the capacity to be empowered, reflective others”. Human beings are, therefore, part of a system that promotes and sustains their oppression, a system that hinders their human development and enhances their ignorance of the realities in their societies. As was succinctly put by Merriam, et al. (2007:253), the system in “critical theory analysis is an institution (such as government or education) that functions to reproduce the status quo, in particular the existing social class structure. Awareness of this oppression can lead to resistance and change”.

The aim of critical theory therefore is to “help people to stop being passive victims who collude, at least partly, in their domination by external forces. Critical theory’s liberating project is to name the enemies of human freedom and to point to the possibilities of freedom’s enlargement” (Welton, 1995:37). When the oppressed are aware of their status quo, they will be empowered to take action to bring about change. This was reechoed by Inglis (1997:4), when he notes that “empowerment involves people demanding capacities to act successfully within the existing systems and structures of power, while emancipation concerns critically analyzing, resisting and challenging structures of power”.

Brookfield (2001:20) opines that a “critical theory of adult learning should have at its core an understanding of how adults learn to recognise the predominance of ideology in their everyday thoughts and actions and in the institutions of civil society”. He therefore suggests seven learning tasks that are embedded in critical theory of learning. The researcher, however, adds one learning task. This is called awareness formation – which should form the basis of all learning in a critical sense. Here, individuals must be brought into consciousness of the realities of the unfair structure of society. This is done by helping individuals to identify various inconsistencies in their societies. Brookfield’s seven learning tasks are as follows:

1. Challenging ideology. This is the basic tool for helping adults learn to penetrate the givens of everyday realities to reveal the inequity and oppression that lurk beneath.
2. Contesting hegemony. Hegemony is the notion that people learn to accept as natural and in their best interest, a particular social order.
3. Unmasking power. Part of becoming adult is learning to recognise the play of power in our lives and ways it is used and abused.
4. Overcoming alienation. The removal of alienation allows for the possibility of freedom, for the unmanipulated exercise of one’s creative powers. As such, claiming freedom and overcoming alienation are inextricably intertwined.
5. Learning liberation. Adults need to learn to liberate themselves individually and collectively, from the dominant ideology. This can be achieved by acquiring relevant education and skills that puts adults in a better position to be liberated.

6. Reclaiming reason. A major concern of critical theory is to reclaim reason as something to be applied in all spheres of life, particularly in deciding values by which we should live, not just in areas where technical decisions are called for.
7. Practising democracy. Adults must learn to practice healthy democracy and to learn to accept that democracy is always a partially functioning ideal (Brookfield, 2005:42-65).

The role of the adult educator, in the critical sense, is to create situations where adults are able to identify the inequalities in society, challenge ideologies, and to become empowered to change their living conditions. Critical theory has received some attention from researchers in the field of adult education. The transformational learning theory by Mezirow has its roots in critical theory.

2.5.1.1 Transformational Learning theory

Jack Mezirow, (1978, cited in Newman 1999: 85), a leading academic in the field of adult education, was the first to attempt to theorise transformative learning as a distinct aspect of adult learning. The label transformation was first applied by Mezirow (1978a) in his study of U.S. women returning to postsecondary study or the workplace after an extended time of absence. In order to address the needs of these women, Mezirow (1978:6) conducted a qualitative study to identify factors that characteristically impede or facilitate women's progress in such re-entry activities.

Mezirow (2000:8) defines transformative learning as:

> …the process by which we transform our taken-far-granted frames of reference (meaning perspectives, habits of mind, mind-sets) to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, emotionally capable of change, and reflective so that they may generate beliefs and opinions that will prove more true or more justified to guide action.

All cultures present their members with certain beliefs, customs, practices, norms, and patterns of behaviour. These become a frame of reference for the group members. According to Mezirow (2009:92):

> Such frames are better because they are more likely to generate beliefs and opinions that will prove true or justified to guide action. Frames of reference are

> the structures of culture and language through which we construe meaning by attributing coherence and significance to our experience. They selectively shape and delimit our perception, cognition and feelings by predisposing our intentions, beliefs, expectations and purposes. These preconceptions set our 'line of action'. Once set or programmed, we automatically move from one specific mental or behavioural activity to another, and we have a strong tendency to reject ideas that fail to fit our preconceptions.

Mezirow (*ibid*.:96) further contends that, a frame of reference is composed of two dimensions: habits of the mind and resulting points of view. He asserts that "habits of mind are broad, abstract, orienting, habitual ways of thinking, feeling and acting, influenced by assumptions that constitute a set of codes". These codes could be the result of, and pervade all aspects of an individual's life and could be religious, social, cultural, or educational. Habits of the mind produce corresponding points of view, which Mezirow (*ibid*.) sees as the "the constellation of belief, memory, value judgement, attitude and feeling that shapes a particular interpretation". In other words, points of view refer to interpretation, idea, or understanding that results from one's beliefs, practices and norms. These can be negative or positive feelings that an individual develops towards a situation.

Mezirow (1981:6) theorises that transformative learning involves perspective transformation, which he defines as:

> ... the emancipatory process of becoming critically aware of how and why the structure of psycho-cultural assumptions has come to constrain the way we see ourselves and our relationships, reconstituting this structure to permit a more inclusive and discriminating integration of experience and acting upon these new understandings.

Individuals as social actors are confronted with different situations which are not in harmony with a habit of the mind. When this occurs, the individual will relate the new situation with the habit and as a result will develop points of view based on the nature of that situation. In this case, learning can occur in four ways: by elaborating existing frames of reference, by learning new frames of reference, by transforming points of view and by transforming habits of mind (Mezirow, 2000:19). The process of transformative learning therefore involves:

- reflecting critically on the source, nature and consequences of relevant assumptions – our own and those of others;

- determining that something is true (is as it is purported to be) by using empirical research methods;
- arriving at more justified beliefs by participating freely and fully in an informed continuing discourse;
- taking action on our transformed perspective – we make a decision and live what we have come to believe until we encounter new evidence, argument or a perspective that renders this orientation problematic and requires reassessment;
- acquiring a disposition – to become more critically reflective of our own assumptions and those of others, to seek validation of our transformative insights through more freely and fully participating in discourse and to follow through on our decision to act upon a transformed insight (Mezirow, 2009:93).

For transformative learning to occur, there must be a situation or event which conflicts with pre-existing beliefs or norms. This will trigger some form of confusion within the individual. Mezirow (1990:12) calls this trigger a “disorienting dilemma”. This means that when an old experience conflicts with a new one, a dilemma occurs. Cranton (1992: 148) offers an explanation of this view. According to her, a range of events can challenge a learner’s beliefs or assumptions. She suggests that crises are the typical trigger for transformative learning but other stimuli such as people, events, or changes in context which challenges a learner’s basic assumptions may also emit triggers.

According to Mezirow (2009:94), there are two major elements of transformative learning which are first, critical reflection or critical self-reflection on assumptions – critical assessment of the sources, nature and consequences of our habits of mind – and second, participating fully and freely in dialectical discourse to validate a best reflective judgement. King and Kitchener (1994:12) define the second element as the “process an individual evokes to monitor the epistemic nature of problems and the truth value of alternative solutions”. Critical self-reflection is personal and unique to an individual. This is where the individual is confronted with a dilemma and then takes the conflicting situations into careful and systematic thought. Here the individual compares the habits of the mind with the new situation. However, in order to confirm his point of view about the situation, the

individual forms and evaluates opposing points of view about the given situation. This view is shared by O'Sullivan, Morrell and O'Connor (2002:11) when they state that:

> Transformative learning involves experiencing a deep structural shift in the basic premises of thought, feeling and action. It is a shift of consciousness that dramatically and permanently alters our being in the world. Such a shift involves our understanding of ourselves and our self-locations; our relationships with other humans and the natural world; our understanding of the relations of power in interlocking structures of class, race and gender; our body awareness; our visions of alternative approaches to living; and our sense of the possibilities for social justice and peace and personal joy.

The goal of adult education should therefore be to promote triggers in adult learners to realise their current socio-economic and political situation. Again, that adult education should provide learners with knowledge, skills, and attitudes which will enable them to take action to bring about change. According to Mezirow (2009), transformative theory contends that the focus of adult education must be to effecting social change, to modifying oppressive systems, practices, norms, institutions and socio-economic structures in order to allow everyone to participate fully and freely in reflective discourse and to acquiring a critical disposition and reflective judgement.

Transformational learning theory has far reaching implications for adult facilitation and learning. Adult learning should bring about change in the socio-economic and political life of learners. Mezirow (1991:366) advocates for the use of critical pedagogy in facilitating adult learning. According to Mezirow, the role of the adult educator is to:

> … gently create dilemmas by encouraging learners to face up to contradictions between what they believe and what they do, disjunctures between espoused theory and actual practice, and discrepancies between a specific way of seeing, thinking, feeling and acting and other perspectives. As such the educator should create environments that enable adult learners to critically reflect on assumptions and ultimately bring about perspective transformation.

For Cranton (1992: 151), the role of the adult educator in the transformation sense includes: recognising the learner's assumptions; creating an environment to challenge those assumptions; assisting the learner to identify the assumptions and consider the consequences of the assumptions; providing psychological support to the learner as they revise assumptions; and supporting the learner to act on the revised assumptions. Others

see the educator's role as being as provocative one. According to Mezirow (1981:19), the rationale for this provocative role is that learners are either unaware of the discrepancies or the discrepancies are taken for granted. In the same vein, Horton (1990:131) in explaining the provocative role of the adult educator provides the following metaphor:

> I like to think that I have two eyes that I don't have to use the same way. When I do educational work with a group of people, I try to see with one eye where those people are as they perceive themselves to be ... Now my other eye ... I already have in mind a philosophy of where I'd like to see people moving. It's not a clear blueprint for the future but movement towards goals they don't conceive of at the time.

Horton is, therefore, calling on adult educators to bring together two lenses to the adult facilitation and learning situation, i.e. that of the facilitator and the learner. The adult educator should have a picture of where the learners should be after the learning encounter. His job is therefore to create situations where learners reflect on their belief systems and either validate or change such systems. Learning should lead to emancipation of the learner from their current unfavourable conditions. Mezirow, et al. (1990), in their study of the first graduate adult education programme designed to apply transformative learning principles, found that the methods that fostered critical self-reflection of assumptions and discourse include using critical incidents, life histories, journal writing, media analysis, repertory grids, metaphor analysis, conceptual mapping, action learning, collaborative learning and John Peters' 'Action-Reason-Thematic Technique' – some of which are discussed at length in the next chapter.

2.5.2 Experiential Learning

Adults have a wide range of life experiences. It appears that these experiences that individuals have acquired eventually lead them to learn. Dewey (1938, cited in Merriam et al., 2007:162) postulated that:

> All genuine education comes about through experience. However, this does not mean that all experiences are genuinely or equally educative… in fact some experiences mis-educate in that they actually distort growth … narrow the field of further experience … and place people in a groove or rut.

The major assumption of this theory is that the basis of learning is human experience. Human beings learn from experience in a myriad of ways namely: reliving past experience; association or collaboration with others; or through introspection (Fenwick, 2003). According to Boud and Miller (1996), experiential learning refers to the way in which current experiences create the learning need and previous experiences govern the learning changes made in response to current experience. The nature of experiential learning has however been the source of debate amongst theorists. Different theoretical viewpoints can be identified in experiential learning. Fenwick (2003:38) postulates five perspectives that "raise important questions about the nature of experience" which are:

1. reflecting on concrete experience (constructivist theory of learning);
2. participating in a community of practice (situative theory of learning);
3. getting in touch with unconscious desires and fears (psychoanalytic theory of learning);
4. resisting dominant social norms of experience (critical cultural theories);
5. exploring ecological relationships between cognition and experience (complexity theories applied to learning) (*ibid*.:22).

The constructivist view of learning posits that learning is a meaning-making process whereby people reflect on concrete experiences and as result construct new knowledge. Situative learning theorists disagree with this view as reflected in the words of Fenwick (2003:25): "learning is rooted in the situation in which the person participates, not in the head of that person as intellectual concepts produced by reflection". This means that meaning-making is not entirely about reflection, but also about the situation within which an event occurs. Individuals must also participate in the situation in order to learn. The outcome of experiential learning as participation is that the community refines its practices, develops new ones, or discards and changes practices that are harmful or dysfunctional (Fenwick, 2003:27). The psychoanalytic perspective, Merriam, et al. (2007:160) contend, sees our unconscious as interfering with our conscious experiences. The conflicting desires of individuals affect their ability to learn.

2.5.2.1 Kolb's experiential learning theory

"Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) provides a holistic model of the learning process and a multilinear model of adult development, both of which are consistent with what we know about how people learn, grow, and develop" (Kolb, Boyatzis & Mainemelis, 2000:2). Kolb (1984:41) defines learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience". Furthermore, Kolb (*ibid*.:27) notes that "learning is a continuous process grounded in experience. Knowledge is continuously derived and tested out in the experiences of the learner".

Kolb's ELT is built on six propositions (Kolb & Kolb, 2005:194) which are as follows:

1. Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes. To improve learning in higher education, the primary focus should be on engaging students in a process that best enhances their learning: a process that includes feedback on the effectiveness of their learning efforts.
2. All learning is relearning. Learning is best facilitated by a process that draws out the students' beliefs and ideas about a topic so that they can be examined, tested, and integrated with new, more refined ideas.
3. Learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world. Conflict, differences, and disagreement are what drive the learning process. In the process of learning, one is called upon to move back and forth between opposing modes of reflection and action and feeling and thinking.
4. Learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world and not just the result of cognition. Learning involves the integrated functioning of the total person thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving.
5. Learning results from synergetic transactions between the person and the environment.
6. Learning is the process of creating knowledge.

Kolb (1984) cited in Merriam et al. (2007:168) further postulated that learning from experience requires four different kinds of abilities namely:

1. An openness and willingness to involve oneself in new experiences (concrete experience);
2. Observational and reflective skills so these new experiences can be viewed from a variety of perspectives (reflective observation);
3. Analytical abilities so integrative ideas and concepts can be created from their observations (abstract conceptualisation);
4. Decision-making and problem-solving skills so these new ideas and concepts can be used in actual practice (active experimentation).

In explaining these abilities further Kolb, Baker and Jensen. (2002:52) state that:

> In grasping experience some of us perceive new information through experiencing the concrete, tangible, felt qualities of the world, relying on our senses and immersing ourselves in concrete reality. Others tend to perceive, grasp, or take hold of new information through symbolic representation or abstract conceptualization – thinking about, analyzing, or systematically planning, rather than using sensation as a guide. Similarly, in transforming or processing experience some of us tend to carefully watch others who are involved in the experience and reflect on what happens, while others choose to jump right in and start doing things. The watchers favor reflective observation, while the doers favor active experimentation.

Kolb and Kolb (2005:196-197) identify four different learning styles which are characteristic of all learners. A brief explanation of these learning styles is provided below:

1. Converging – Abstract conceptualization and abstract experimentation are dominant learning style abilities. Learners that prefer this style tend to excel at finding pragmatic mythologies of working with ideas and theories and are inclined to be good at problem solving and technical tasks,
2. Diverging – Concrete experience and reflective observation are dominant learning style abilities Learners that prefer this style tend perform well in situations that call for generation of ideas (brainstorming)
3. Assimilating – Abstract conceptualisation and reflective observation dominant learning abilities Learners that prefer this style tend to excel at understanding and organising a range of information and would often times rather work with concepts than people, and

4. Accommodating – Concrete experimentation and abstract experimentation are dominant learning abilities. Learners that prefer this style tend to excel at hands-on learning activities and enjoy completing new experiences and complex tasks.

Kolb's model of experiential learning has some implications for adult teaching and learning. Adult learners have different learning styles which require different teaching or facilitation approaches. While some adult learners may require methods which promote problem solving through abstract ideas, others may require situations where abstract ideas are put into practical use. Again learning should be the product of adult learners' experiences and should endeavour to build upon such experiences.

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher analysed learning in general and adult learning in particular. An analysis of learning and, for that matter, adult learning was needed in order to provide a foundation for understanding teaching methods and their effectiveness in the teaching and learning encounter. Various theories on both learning and adult learning were reviewed. It is apparent from the review of theories on adult learning that adults require teaching methods that promote their active participation in the entire learning process, draw on their experiences, and give them the opportunity to engage in practical activities.

In the next chapter, the researcher details the various methods employed in facilitating adult learning. The discussion begins with the theoretical foundations of teaching and a case for facilitation as a synonymous term with teaching is made. The approaches to teaching are analysed after which the various methods for facilitating adult learning are reviewed. The researcher then reviews the various teaching aids employed in adult teaching and learning encounter.

CHAPTER 3

TEACHING, ASSESSMENT AND FEEDBACK IN ADULT LEARNING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As has been noted in the previous chapter, an understanding of the various methods of teaching adults is premised on an understanding of the processes of adult learning. Consequently, the previous chapter elucidated the concept of learning in general and adult learning in particular and gave the theoretical perspectives underlying the term. This has laid a firm foundation for a critical exposition of teaching and the methods of teaching adult learners. The focus of the discussion in this chapter is on how adult educators or facilitators help adults to learn. According to Jarvis (2010:141), “adult learning has tended to emphasize the learner and learning more than the teacher and teaching and as a result adult education has mostly regarded the teacher as an adjunct to learning, often necessary and frequently important but not always essential to it”. However, the adult educator has played and will continue to play a critical role in the success of the teaching and learning encounter. In the process of helping adults to learn adult educators employ a myriad of methods to facilitate adult learning.

This chapter therefore discusses the concept of teaching and the art of teaching adults, and then examines the various methods of teaching adult learners. An examination of the various methods for teaching adult learners will help to determine their effectiveness. The chapter is organised under the following sub-themes:

- The concept of teaching
- Types of teaching
- Teaching styles
- Understanding the adult learner
- Teaching adult learners
- Methods of teaching
- Assessment of adult learning
- Feedback in adult learning

3.2 CONCEPT OF TEACHING

According to Jarvis (*ibid*:130), teaching remains at the heart of the educational process, and consideration, therefore, needs to be given to it. Even though teaching is a popular term which is sometimes used in common parlance, it does not have universally agreed-upon definition. Nzeneri (2002:84) notes that teaching tends to suggest facilitation of learning, propagation of doctrine or any activity people engage in with intent to change behaviour. One way to understand teaching is to identify the purpose of learning. Bown and Tomori (1979:101) have observed that:

> The purpose of learning is to bring about a desired change in the behaviour of the learner: therefore, all who engage in a learning activity are concerned that the learning should be as effective as possible, so that the objectives of the learning efforts may be achieved. In this regard, what the teacher does or does not do is of crucial importance. Educators are therefore concerned with questions as: how should a teacher or the leader of the learning activity conduct himself or herself in order to promote learning in all forms? And, which learning techniques are most effective in particular learning situations?

This observation is of particular importance to this study. This is because the study is premised on the assumption that the methods employed by the educator in teaching adult learners can affect the success or otherwise of the entire teaching and learning encounter. While it is the assumption of the study that teaching plays a significant role in the learning process, several theorists on the other hand have downplayed the significance of teaching in the learning process and in adult learning (Hirst & Peters, 1970:78). The researcher strongly argues that effective learning occurs with the aid of a teacher or facilitator. It is true that learners can acquire certain knowledge, skills, and attitudes unaided; however, teaching is “one way in which learning is facilitated” (Rogers, 2004:140).

According to Galbraith (2004:3), the purpose of teaching is to facilitate personal growth that impacts the professional, social, and political aspects of learners. Therefore, the teacher plays a significant role in the overall development of learners. In order to understand the role of teaching in the learning process, there is a need to provide an insight into the concept. Teaching can be seen as a transaction between individuals whereby one party, called the educator, creates the conditions necessary for knowledge,

skills, and attitudes to be transmitted to the other party, referred to as the learner. By conditions necessary for knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be transmitted, the researcher means that a conducive environment which promotes understanding of the subject-matter. Many researchers have sought to define the term teaching. For instance, Hirst and Peters (1970) define teaching as the intention to promote learning. Schunk (2008:222) also defines teaching (instruction) “as a set of external events designed to facilitate internal learning processes”.

For the purpose of this study, teaching is defined as a transaction between two parties whereby one party, known as the teacher, presents a variety of stimuli with the intention of bringing about a change in the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the other party, known as learners. From the definitions given, it can be argued that teachers employ a variety of methods/techniques/styles in order to bring about the desired knowledge, skills and attitudes in learners. Heimlich and Norland (1994:113) state that, teaching is a skill, and a gift, a talent and a technique. To be effective, the teacher must possess knowledge of the learners, content, and context within which learning will occur. Again the teacher must possess the skill of imparting knowledge and skills to learners. This sentiment is shared by Galbraith (2004a:4) when he states that “good teaching should be a balance of understanding one’s self as a teacher and knowing how to develop learning encounters that are meaningful and useful in the promotion personal and professional growth”.

Killen (2013:27), on the other hand, argues that to teach effectively one would need a deep understanding of four types of knowledge – knowledge of the subject; knowledge about how students learn; general pedagogical knowledge; and pedagogical content knowledge. In explaining these four types of knowledge, he asserts that the interaction between knowledge of the discipline (especially those things that are difficult to learn) and pedagogical knowledge will enable the teacher to teach in ways that reflect the structure and forms of inquiry of the discipline and make the subject readily understandable to others. He then proposes a model for teacher knowledge which depicts three main knowledge areas namely, knowledge about content, learning and teaching. In other words, the teacher must know the content of the subject to be taught to the learner, know how students learn, and how best to teach such students. The knowledge areas indicated

by Killen are particularly pertinent to the study. At this point, it is important to discuss the three main knowledge areas.

3.2.1 Knowledge of Content

Research on teacher's knowledge of content is replete. In decades past, there was the belief that knowledge of content was a consequence of teachers' level of education as reflected in the accumulation of certification. Many researchers challenged this position as being myopic. One such researcher is Shulman (1986:9), who argued that knowledge of content goes beyond the amount of information an educator has. He further contends that teachers need to have knowledge of content of the subject and its structure, and how the content fits together. The latter requires the teacher to know the interconnectedness of the various topics and concepts within the subject.

The teacher's knowledge of subject matter or content serves as an advantage not only to the teacher but also to the students. Commenting on the importance of the teacher's subject matter knowledge, Leinhardt, Zaslavsky, and Stein (1990:46) made the following observation:

> The teacher's subject matter knowledge empowers the teacher with the confidence and capability to make interconnections, build analogies, create examples, take intellectual excursions, and point toward future use and interrelationships… Limitations on subject matter knowledge, on the other hand, often reduce the flexibility and creativity of a teacher as well as create a kind of authoritarianism toward the subject and student that permits little or no exploration of ideas.

However, of particular importance to the researcher, is the educator's knowledge of teaching. This is because the ability of the teacher to effectively impart knowledge, skills and attitudes to the learner depends to a large extent on his/her knowledge of the content of the particular subject.

3.2.2 Knowledge of Learning

The educator's knowledge of learning and learners affects the success or otherwise of the teaching and learning encounter. It has been noted from the previous chapter that learning is a very complex activity. How individuals learn has been a pressing question to educational researchers and psychologists for many years. Knowledge of how best

learners learn would enable the educator to arrange activities in such a way as to promote effective learning. This involves research and critical reflection on the part of the educator. There is also the need for the educator to have a profile of the various learners in the classroom. Such a profile would enable the educator to know the habits, abilities, knowledge base, and other predispositions of the learners.

3.2.3 Knowledge of Teaching

The researcher is of the belief that the knowledge of content and learning can only become useful in the teaching and learning encounter if, and only if, the teacher has an adequate understanding of how best to impart knowledge, skill, and attitudes to the learners. An important aspect of the teacher's knowledge of teaching is his/her knowledge of the various methods of teaching and how best to employ them in the teaching and learning encounter. This brings to the fore his/her knowledge of the effectiveness of the various teaching methods, techniques and strategies. Also since teaching envelops a wide variety of activities, behaviours and attitudes intended to promote learning amongst individuals, knowledge of these activities would help the educator to employ appropriate behaviours and attitudes which enhance learning. The knowledge of the content and learning would also help in that regard.

3.3 APPROACHES TO TEACHING

In order to bring about the desired outcomes, teachers employ a number of approaches to facilitating learning amongst their learners. One's approach to teaching depends to a large extent on one's philosophical orientation, the curriculum, as well as the nature of learners. While some teachers prefer to focus on the transmission of subject matter content, others focus on the affective aspects of learning. Traditionally, teaching approaches have been identified either as learner-centred or teacher-centred teaching. In order to identify the differences between the two approaches, Weimer (2002:23) poses the following questions:

1. Who decides what (content) students learn in the course?
2. Who controls the pace (calendar) at which content is covered?

3. Who determines the structures (assignments, tests) through which the material will be mastered?
4. Who sets the conditions for learning (things like attendance policies and assignment deadlines)?
5. Who evaluates (grades) the quantity and quality of the learning that has occurred?
6. In the classroom itself, who controls and regulates the flow of communication, deciding who gets the opportunity to speak, when, and for how long?"

3.3.1 Teacher-Centred Approach to Teaching

Often referred to as the traditional approach to teaching, the teacher-centred approach involves the teacher taking centre-stage in the teaching and learning encounter. The teacher is seen as a repository of knowledge and as such is expected to transmit such knowledge to students. Hancock, Bray and Nason (2003, cited in Mascolo, 2009:4) define teacher-centred instruction as follows: The teacher (a) is the dominant leader who establishes and enforces rules in the classroom; (b) structures learning tasks and establishes the time and method for task completion; (c) states, explains and models the lesson objectives and actively maintains student on-task involvement; (d) responds to students through direct, right/wrong feedback, uses prompts and cues, and, if necessary, provides correct answers; (e) asks primarily direct, recall-recognition questions and few inferential questions; (f) summarises frequently during and at the conclusion of a lesson; and (g) signals transitions between lesson points and topic areas.

In criticising the use of teacher-centred approaches in teaching, Kember and Gow (1994, cited in Weimer, 2002:71) make the following statement:

> the methods of teaching adopted, the learning tasks set, the assessment demands made, and the workload specified are strongly influenced by the orientation to teaching. In departments where the knowledge transmission orientation predominates, the curriculum design and teaching methods are more likely to have undesirable influences on the learning approaches of students. . . Meaningful approaches to learning are discouraged when lecturers believe that their role is restricted to transferring the accumulated knowledge of their discipline to the minds of their students.

In the teacher-centred approach, the teacher is the dominant figure while the learner is seen as a passive object waiting to be filled with information. Mascolo (2009:6) provides a very detailed explanation of the passivity of the learner in the teacher-centred approach and the philosophical underpinnings behind it.

> Consistent with the empiricist model of knowledge in which knowledge has its origins in the senses, the teacher-centered approach begins with a body of knowledge that exists independent of the individual student. The teacher is viewed as the primary expert on the body of knowledge in question. Teaching occurs as the knowledge is transmitted from the teacher to the student. The conduit metaphor is often used to describe the practice of teacher-centered education. Like a conduit, the task of the teacher is to move a relatively fixed body of knowledge from the mind of the teacher (or text) to the mind of the student. From this view, to teach is to *give* (e.g., give a lecture); to learn is to *take* (e.g., take notes; acquire knowledge). A teacher has taught the course *material* if he or she has *given* the lecture; a student has *received* the material if he or she has *taken it in*. Because knowledge is viewed as being transmitted cumulatively from the teacher to the student, there is no need to take into consideration the knowledge structures of the individual student. The student simply receives the material transmitted by the teacher.

Therefore, the teacher is seen as the central figure in the learning process, effectively directing and coordinating all learning activities and shouldering the responsibility for promoting learning among learners. Knowledge, in this regard, is seen as a “property” owned by the teacher. The role of the teacher, therefore, is to present certain stimuli to the learners which should result in predetermined responses.

3.3.2 Learner-Centred Approach to Teaching

The learner-centred approach (LCA) to teaching is informed by many learning theories notable amongst them is constructivism. At the core of the approach is the need for learners to be active participants in all teaching and learning decisions. As the name implies, learner-centred approach entails putting the learner at the centre of the entire teaching and learning encounter. McCombs and Whistler (1997:9) define the learner-centred approach as:

> The perspective that couples a focus on individual learners…with a focus on learning (the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest levels of

> motivation, learning and achievement for all learners). This dual focus, then, informs and drives educational decision-making.

This definition places emphasis on the adoption of teaching practices that promote learner engagement, participation in decision-making and learner motivation. These three factors are of particular importance to the researcher and the current study as a whole. Collins and O'Brien (2003:388) give a more detailed explanation of the term. According to them:

> Student-centered instruction (SCI) is an instructional approach in which students influence the content, activities, materials, and pace of learning. This learning model places the student (learner) in the center of the learning process. The instructor provides students with opportunities to learn independently and from one another and coaches them in the skills they need to do so effectively. The SCI approach includes such techniques as substituting active learning experiences for lectures, assigning open-ended problems and problems requiring critical or creative thinking that cannot be solved by following text examples, involving students in simulations and role-plays, and using self-paced and/or cooperative (team-based) learning. Properly implemented SCI can lead to increased motivation to learn, greater retention of knowledge, deeper understanding, and more positive attitudes towards the subject being taught.

Jarvis (2010:165) also notes that, "…in student-centred teaching, the teacher is the facilitator of the learning rather than the source of knowledge, and whilst responsible for creating the learning situation, teachers do not control the learning outcomes." Such a view does not presuppose that the teacher assumes a more dormant role in the teaching and learning situation; instead, it behooves the teacher to provide avenues for learners to participate in the design and implementation of learning activities and their evaluation thereof. As such, the learner-centred approach to teaching helps to develop in the learner decision-making skills and autonomy.

Such autonomy and power, even though essential, must be guided in order not to obliterate the authority and role of the teacher in the teaching and learning encounter. Weimer (2002: 41) cautions teachers that:

> the amount of decision-making it takes to motivate students must be weighed against their intellectual maturity and ability to operate in conditions that give more freedom at the same time they also require more responsibility. Most students arrive in classrooms having made almost no decisions about learning.

Decision-making and autonomy are not characteristics of every learner; therefore, it is important for the educator to know the level of intellectual maturity of his/her learners before such responsibilities can be assigned to them.

Weimer (2002, cited in Gavrilla-Jic, 2013:207) suggests that

> in order to keep a balance of power, teachers could provide the students with a range of options from which they can choose. For example, concerning course content, we could offer them a list of possible topics from which they could pick those that they are most interested in. We could also let them decide the content of the review session and finally, concerning assessment, we could provide them with a list of possible assignments from which they could select those that most appeal to them.

In terms of instruction, Nason (2003:366) describes learner-centred teaching as follows:

> (a) teachers are a catalyst or helper to students who establish and enforce their own rules; (b) teachers respond to student work through neutral feedback and encourage students to provide alternative/additional responses, (c) teachers ask mostly divergent questions and few recall questions, (d) students are allowed to select the learning task and the manner and order in which it is completed, (e) students are presented with examples of the content to be learned and are encouraged to identify the rule of behavior embedded in the content. (f) students are encouraged to summarize and review important lesson objectives throughout the lesson and the conclusion of the activity; (g) students are encouraged to choose new activities in the session and select different topics for study, and (h) students signal their readiness for transition to the next learning set.

The various points listed by Nason highlight the centrality of the learner in the teaching and learning process. It does not, however, diminish the role of the teacher in the encounter. The teacher is expected to guide the learning process and to promote a conducive environment for the learner to achieve subject-matter comprehension and active participation in the lesson. Nason's views also brings the fore the significance of feedback in the process. Feedback, as discussed later in this chapter, plays a pivotal role in the attainment of learning outcomes.

3.4 TYPES OF TEACHING

Teaching takes many forms due to the different approaches employed and the orientation of the teacher to teaching. Jarvis (2010:141) distinguishes between four types of teaching: didactic, Socratic, facilitative, and experimental.

3.4.1 Didactic Teaching

Jarvis (2010:141) argues that teaching has traditionally been regarded as "the process of making a selection of knowledge and skills … from the cultural milieu", and transmitting them to the learners by the use of some skilled technique. "This type of teaching is somewhat a product of the teacher-directed teaching approach" (*ibid*.). Jarvis (*ibid*.) further notes that "it has been assumed that such rewards as the teacher's approval, good grades in assignments and successful examinations (all forms of conditioning) would ensure that the student learned and therefore was able to reproduce that selection of culture thereafter". This type of teaching relates to the behaviourist view of learning where the teaching is seen as a presentation of a myriad of stimuli which ideally must elicit a predetermined response.

3.4.2 Socratic Teaching

According to Jarvis (*ibid*.:144):

> this method introduces questioning into the teaching and learning process; it consists of the teacher directing a logical sequence of questions at the learners, so that they are enabled to respond and to express the knowledge they have, but which they may never have crystallised in their own mind. However, unless teachers are actually skillful in the use of questions and also perceptive in responding to the students, this approach is likely to result in an expression of knowledge reflecting the accepted body of cultural knowledge and therefore a type of conformity.

This type of teaching emphasises the use of questions as an ideal way to promote learning. Socratic teaching is highly influenced by the approach of the Greek classical philosopher, Socrates, who used questions and answers as means of gaining insight into a fundamental but often confusing topic.

3.4.3 Facilitative Teaching

Jarvis (*ibid*.:145) contends that:

> teachers of adults may not always want to employ teacher-centred techniques in the performance of their role. They may seek to create an awareness of a specific learning need in the student; to confront students with a problem requiring a solution; to provide students with an experience and encourage reflection on it. In

> all of these instances the outcome of the activity should be that learning has occurred, but teachers have performed their role differently: they have facilitated learning.

In facilitative teaching, the teacher serves as guide in the learning process. The teacher's role diminishes but is not relegated – his/her role is to create a conducive environment for learners to construct meaning from a wide variety of problems/contexts presented to the latter. In buttressing this point, Jarvis (*ibid*.) notes that

> teachers do have a role to play in the early stages of facilitative teaching and learning, but they cannot make the individual learn, and should play little part in the latter process; the creation of the autonomous learners is one of the aims of adult education.

3.4.4 Experiential Teaching

It has been noted in the previous chapter that experience cannot be removed from teaching and learning as it constitutes an important ingredient in effective learning. According to Jarvis (*ibid*.:147)

> a great deal of teaching involves providing a secondary experience through which learners acquire cognitive knowledge consciously and, perhaps, emotions pre-consciously. The situation of the learning – the classroom – is actually far removed from reality of practice and daily living. Consequently, there has been an increasing emphasis on having a primary experience – entering a practice situation and learning through the senses and so experiential teaching is becoming more popular.

This type of teaching makes learning more practical and reality-based. Theories and concepts are mere abstractions of reality which makes no real meaning to learners if it is left as such. The teacher must essentially find ways to enable learners to relate theories and concepts to real-life problems. In this way, learners are able to utilise their experiences to the maximum.

3.5 TEACHING STYLES

According to Galbraith (1990:80), a teaching style "refers to the distinct qualities displayed by a teacher that are persistent from situation to situation regardless of the content." Relying on Galbraith's definition, teaching style can also be defined as a unique and a

relatively immutable way by which a teacher imparts knowledge and skills to learners. Galbraith (*ibid*.) further notes that

> to identify one's teaching style, the total atmosphere created by the teacher's views on learning and the teacher's approach to teaching must be examined. Because teaching style is comprehensive and is the overt implementation of the teacher's beliefs about teaching, it's directly linked to the teacher's educational philosophy.

The same view is shared by Pratt (1998:11) when he writes that "If we wish to understand and influence peoples' teaching, we must go beneath the surface to consider the intentions and beliefs related to teaching and learning which inform their assumptions".

3.5.1 Pratt's Categorisation

Three key words emanate from Galbraith's stance, namely views, beliefs, and educational philosophy. These three words can be generalised into the teacher's orientation. Pratt (1998, cited in Larsen, 2012:6) categorises teaching into five main orientations/perspectives.

3.5.1.1 Transmission Orientation

"Transmission orientation concerns how the teacher plans, organises, and delivers content. It is paramount that the teachers consider themselves experts in their subject matter, and that they see their role in the teaching learning interaction as conveyors of content". This orientation makes the teacher the dominant force in the classroom. All learning is teacher-directed. As such, a teacher who has this orientation is likely to employ direct instruction where he is the only source of information. Presentation of information and questioning are likely to dominate in the classrooms of teachers with this orientation.

3.5.1.2 Apprenticeship orientation

In the apprenticeship orientation

> the teacher helps the learner not only to understand the content, but also to assume the role in which the content will be carried out. The teacher and content are closely linked to a particular context of practice. Teaching encompasses acting as a role model and demonstrating how content is used in a particular context" (Pratt, 1998, cited in Larsen, 2012:6).

This emphasises the importance of practice and contextualisation of knowledge and skills. Here the teacher is not only a presenter of information but also creates environments where learners will practically understand what has been learned. Demonstrations and role-plays are critical in this orientation.

3.5.1.3 Developmental orientation

The developmental orientation *"*concerns helping learners solve problems by using their prior knowledge to create new ways of thinking, and fostering the creation of meaning for the learner. Teaching from this orientation differs from the previous two in that it focuses on the learner" (Pratt, 1998, cited in Larsen, 2012:6). This involves creating an enabling environment where learners are able to incorporate their past experiences into the current learning. The learner is put at the centre of the learning and is seen as possessing a repertoire of knowledge and skills which can be harnessed strategically by the teacher. This is in direct contrast to the transmission and apprenticeship orientations which emphasise the interplay between the teacher and content as well as the centrality of the former in the entire teaching and learning encounter.

3.5.1.4 The nurturing orientation

Pratt (1998 cited in Larsen, 2012:6) also discusses the nurturing orientation which

> focuses on the relationship between the teacher and the learner. This relationship is critical in fostering the development of the learner's personal growth and self-esteem. The content is the vehicle through which this nurturing relationship is developed, and the connection between learner and teacher is paramount.

3.5.1.5 The social reform orientation

The social reform orientation*, "*… concerns the ideals of social change and social reform. The social agenda and the purpose of the educational offering are important here and the learners and content are less in focus" (Pratt, 1998, cited in Larsen, 2012:6).

3.5.2 Grasha's Teaching Styles

Based on the five orientations discussed, Grasha (1994:143) suggests the following teaching styles:

3.5.2.1 Expert

A teacher with this style possesses knowledge and expertise that students need and strives to maintain status as an expert among students by displaying detailed knowledge and by challenging students to enhance their competence. Grasha (*ibid*.) further notes that he /she is more concerned with transmitting information and ensuring that students are well-prepared. Teachers having the transmission orientation are likely to possess this teaching style.

3.5.2.2 Formal authority

A teacher with a formal authority style possesses status among students because of knowledge and role as teacher. He/she is concerned with providing positive and negative feedback, establishing learning goals, expectations, and rules of conduct for students. Grasha (*ibid*.) further opines that teachers with this style are concerned with the "correct, acceptable, and standard ways to do things."

3.5.2.3 Personal model

Here the teacher believes in "teaching by personal example" and establishes a prototype for how to think and behave and oversees, guides, and directs by showing how to do things, and encouraging students to observe and then to emulate the instructor's approach (Grasha, 1994:143).

3.5.2.4 Facilitator

According to Grasha (*ibid*.), this style emphasises the personal nature of teacher student interactions and guides students by asking questions, exploring options, suggesting alternatives, and encouraging learners to develop criteria to make informed choices. He argues that the overall goal is to develop in students the capacity for independent action and responsibility; the facilitator works with students on projects in a consultative fashion and provides support and encouragement.

3.5.2.5 Delegator

This style is concerned with developing students' capacity to function autonomously. Also learners work independently on projects or as a part of autonomous teams while the teacher is available at the request of learners as a resource person.

3.6 UNDERSTANDING THE ADULT LEARNER

In order for the educator to know how best to teach adult learners depends to some extent on his/her understanding of the learners. In the same vein, an understanding of the adult learner is premised on an understanding of the various developmental processes that adults go through. A characteristic of all human beings is the ability to grow. Growth is normally seen as being synonymous with change. Development has been defined as "systematic change within an individual or a group of individuals that results from a dynamic interaction of heredity and environmental influences" (Lerner, 1998, cited in Bee & Bjorkland, 2004:14).

Adulthood is a stage in life which comes with many physiological, psychological, and social changes. As a result of these changes, it has been argued that adults learn differently from children. The adult educator should, therefore, have knowledge of the various developmental changes that take place within their learners. This will enable the adult educator to adopt teaching methods that are suitable for adult learners. There have been attempts by researchers to explain how adult development takes place. Notably there have generally been three approaches to adult development, namely: biological, psychological, and socio-cultural.

As has been noted earlier, a major characteristic of human beings is the ability to grow. This comes about as a result of natural processes. According to Clark and Cafferella (1999:5), the biological approach acknowledges that human beings are "physical beings" and that change is our physical being can be attributed to "natural aging, the environment, our own health habits or by an accident or disease". Biological aging is a central idea in this approach. In terms of the psychological approach, Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007:305) assert that, "most of the work in adult development has been driven by the psychological tradition and focuses on the individual's internal process of

development". The crux of this approach is "on how we develop as individuals and examines primarily internal development processes" (Clark and Caffarella, 1999:5).

The socio-cultural contexts in which individuals find themselves may have some influence on their development. According to Miller (2002 cited in Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner, 2007:299), the socio-cultural approach posits that adult development cannot be understood without the historical context in which it occurs. This means that human development cannot be divorced from their sociocultural contexts.

3.7 Characteristics of Adult Learners

Adult learners are unique individuals. Their socio-economic roles and developmental stages set them apart from child and youth learners. Even though the term "adult" is generic and encompasses individuals who possess certain features, according to Gravett (2001:6), all adults do not necessarily possess the attributes or abilities ascribed to adulthood. However, Gravett (2001:7) concedes that there are some commonalities in the characteristics of adults namely; age, social status and educational background. Despite these commonalities, each adult learner is unique and brings distinct characteristics to the learning situation.

3.7.1 The Learner Role is Secondary for Adults

Adult have multiple social roles which tend to relegate the "learner role" to a secondary one, unlike traditional learners for whom the role of a learner is primary and dominant. The multiple roles of adults create conflicting demands which makes learning a not-too-important activity in their lives. Their social roles as father, mother, community leader or member, and their occupations tend to take much of their time and energy, and learning is, therefore, accorded less time and energy.

3.7.2 Many Adults lack Confidence in their Learning

Many adults, due to their participation in traditional schooling in times past, have some negative learning experiences. Because they do not want to relive their past experiences, they are less confident to enter into formal learning programmes. For a myriad of reasons,

they perceive that they possess inferior learning skills, and fear the humiliation that will result from their inability to progress in the learning programme.

3.7.3 Adults are Resistant to Change

Learning has been defined as a relatively permanent change in knowledge, skills, and attitudes due largely to experience. The goal of any learning encounter is to bring about change in the behaviour of learners. As has been noted, adults have accumulated a wealth of experiences which they bring to the learning situation. These experiences have been accumulated over many years of participation in the social, economic, and cultural life of their societies. They see the knowledge that these experiences bring as valid. Adults, therefore, tend to be somewhat resistant to change. They are likely not to accept new knowledge without evaluating it in the light of their prior knowledge.

3.7.4 Adults are Diverse

Adults possess different characteristics (age, social roles, and experiences) which makes them makes them different from children or youth. Such characteristics can be harnessed and can become a catalyst in the learning encounter. The goal of any learning encounter is to bring about change in attitudes, knowledge, and skills. And since the many adult learners in a given learning situation have unique experiences, their interaction can bring about a change in their beliefs. The adult educator can promote collaboration in small groups which can help adults to benefit from their variety of experiences. Through dialogue with other adults, learners can reflect on their experiences in relation to those of others and can, therefore, learn effectively.

3.7.5 Adults must Compensate for Aging in Learning

Aging connotes both physical and biological changes over the life span. These changes have some implications for adult learning efforts. According to Clark and Cafferella (1999:5), change in human beings can be “driven by natural aging, the environment, health habits or by accident or disease process”. As human beings age, they may experience health and physical problems which affect their ability to learn. Older adults may experience many physiological problems such as vision and hearing difficulties

which reduce their speed of learning, even though their depth of learning increases. These physiological problems become a barrier to adults' participation in educational programmes. Adult educators must therefore take cognisance of these problems and consequently organise the classroom in a way that will be conducive for adult learning.

3.7.6 Adults Generally Desire to take more Control over their Learning

This characteristic draws from the core principle of self-directed learning. Adults are self-directed individuals who require autonomy in their various activities including learning. They prefer to be active participants in the facilitation and learning encounter. Adults must be involved in planning, implementing, and evaluating learning experiences. To this end, facilitators must promote the active participation of adults in the entire learning process. With adulthood, comes a sense of responsibility and adults will resent situations where decisions are imposed on them.

3.7.6 Adults Draw upon their Experiences as a Resource in their Learning efforts

Knowles (1980), in his theory of andragogy, postulates that adults come to the learning situation with a rich store of experiences which becomes a rich resource for learning. Due to their interaction with the socio-cultural environment, adults have accumulated a reservoir of experience which they bring to the learning context. Even though not all life experiences are relevant to the facilitation and learning experience, most adults' life experiences promote learning. This is a critical distinction between adults and traditional learners (children and youth). Adults learn by linking prior experiences to new ones. This, adults do consciously or unconsciously. New experiences only become valid after they have been evaluated in the light of previous experiences.

3.7.7 Adults are more Pragmatic and Relevancy in Learning

Adults are likely to participate in any educational programme if the goals of the learning encounter are immediately applicable and relevant to their situation and needs. Adults have a number of goals which they want to be fulfilled through their participation in the learning encounter. According to Walklin (1990: 16), adult learners come to the learning environment with needs that vary considerably from those of children and young people.

Walklin further observes that, whereas the young will be dependent upon the teacher for guidance and control and are unlikely to be self-directing, the industrial or commercial experience of adults and their experience of living will tend to make them expect to be treated differently, so as to promote self-esteem and self-confidence. Adults possess a wealth of experience which has been gained from their engagement in social, cultural, economic, as well as political life of their societies. They do not want to learn for the sake of it. Learning, to adults, must bring have some relevance to their socio-economic as well as political life. They tend to be frustrated when what is learned is deferred for future application. As such, there is the need for the adult educator to involve adults in designing the various learning experiences that adults will have.

3.8 TEACHING ADULT LEARNERS

Discourses on lifelong learning may seem to be dismissive of learning from teaching; indeed, within adult and continuing education generally, learning is given much attention than teaching (Wilson, 2005, cited in Jarvis, 2010:214). This is largely due to the various assumptions that underlie adult learning. Even though adults are assumed to be active participants in the teaching and learning encounter and also learn at their own pace, the teacher's role in the whole encounter cannot be underestimated. Merriam, et al. (2006) contends that much of the theorising within adult learning is grounded in the developmental tasks of adulthood. Due to their multivariate roles, adults have accumulated a wealth of experiences. Even though such experiences are very useful in the context of learning, they are not at the core of adult learning processes. Brookfield (2009:219) makes the following argument:

> …a consequence of viewing experience naively is that we end up as educators regarding the celebration of our learners' experiences as the legitimate start and finish of adult education….but idealizing or romanticizing experience through an uncritical sharing is not, in and of itself, educational….we have to ask how that experience might be understood from different perspectives, what aspects of the experience need questioning and further enquiry, and what parts of the experience have been misapprehended, ignored or omitted in recollection.

Given this argument, the role of the adult educator therefore is to arrange learning objectives and activities in such a manner that the experiences of the learners are adequately utilised in order to achieve learning outcomes. Brookfield (2009:216) is of the

view that the teacher's responsibility is to create situations in which students are required to confront contradictions in their position, to respond to unexpected information and to resolve discrepancies of how they feel the world should be and how it actually operates.

3.9 METHODS OF TEACHING

According to Larsen (2012:2) "from the literature on teachers of adults and their strategies, we know that it is not unusual to consider general pedagogical and didactical approaches for adult learners". It has been argued by the researcher that adult learners require different approaches, strategies, methods, and techniques of teaching due mainly to the unique characteristics they bring to the teaching and learning situation. One of the major distinguishing characteristics between adult and child learners is that adult learners' "…life experiences, education, and personalities increase with age and shape their outlook on educational experiences, past and present. These experiences also influence their perspective on future educational events, including their motivation to engage in professional development activities" (Lawler, 2003, cited in Larsen, 2012:2). Andragogy (which has been discussed in the previous chapter) sought to amongst other things suggest some general characteristics of adult learners. The various characteristics indicated by Knowles (1980; 1984) have far reaching implications for how adult learners are taught.

Fry, Medsker and Bonner (1996, cited in Badu-Nyarko & Torto, 2014:226) are of the view that when selecting methods of teaching for adults one must take into consideration "adult learning theory, which emphasises involvement, interaction, facilitation and participation". They were, however, quick to add that there is a need for teaching methods to fit "specific content, objectives, audience and personal preferences". These views are crucial to the process of selecting appropriate teaching methods for adult learners. The content, objectives, audience, and the personal preferences of learners, serve as a guide to the educator in selecting the desired teaching method. The researcher is, however, of the view that in addition to the above factors, the educator should also bear in mind that teaching methods employed in adult learning contexts should promote learner participation and autonomy. These two factors, in the view of the researcher, the educator

should be taken into consideration when selecting appropriate methods for facilitating learning amongst adults.

At this juncture, it is important to state that research into teaching methods for adult learners is not conclusive on the most effective method for teaching adult learners. The choice of a specific teaching method is informed by the educator's orientation, teaching style, and the nature of the content to be taught, as well as the size of the class. In spite of these factors, Theall & Franklin (2001) assert that there is ample empirical evidence to suggest that students are the most qualified sources to report on the extent to which the learning experience was productive, informative, satisfying, or worthwhile. They further note that while opinions on these matters are not direct measures of instructor or course effectiveness, they are legitimate indicators of student satisfaction, and there is substantial research linking student satisfaction to effective teaching.

If these views are anything to go by, it means that learners must actively be involved in the planning of learning.

Stephens (1996, cited in Badu-Nyarko & Torto, 2014:226) grouped teaching methods into three: expository methods, directive methods and discovery methods. Expository methods refer to methods that seek to transmit the subject-matter content to learners. Examples of such methods are lectures, talks with group participation and demonstrations. On the contrary, the focus of directive methods is on structure and predetermined learning outcomes. The content is structured to an extent where learning outcomes are predetermined, for example, discussion methods, skill practice, role-play, group tasks and activities. Discovery methods refer to methods which provide opportunities for the learner to explore topics to be learned. This the learner does through self-direction, simulation and gaming.

There is an abundance of teaching methods available to teachers of adults. Some of these methods are the lecture, discussion, guided instruction, role-play, case study, debates and tutorials. Research has shown that all teaching methods have their strengths and weaknesses (Barnes & Blevins, 2003; Maphosa & Ndebele, 2014; Morgan, Whorton & Gunsalus, 2000). In the following sections, some selected teaching methods are

discussed in order to determine their relative effectiveness in adult teaching and learning contexts.

3.9.1 Lecture Method

According to McKeachie and Svinicki (2006:57) “the lecture is probably the oldest teaching method and still the method most widely used in universities throughout the world”. It is one of the most widely used methods in teaching students at the higher education level. This view is buttressed by Hafezimoghadam, Farahmand, Farsi, Zare and Abbasi (2013: 60) when they argue that “lecturing is one of the primitive and maybe the oldest method of teaching, and it is currently the most conventional educational technique. According to Brown (1987, cited in Kaur, 2011:9), the term lecture was derived from the Medieval Latin “lecture” meaning to read aloud. Davies (2009:148) provides a somewhat detailed explanation of the lecture method. Davies contends that “the classroom lecture is a special form of communication in which voice, gesture, movement, facial expression, and eye contact can either complement or detract from the content”. A lecture has also been defined as a narrative technique of delivering verbally a body of knowledge according to pre-prepared scheme of action (International Dictionary of Education, 1991, cited in Rahman, Khalil, Jumani, Ajmal, Malik, &Sharif, 2011:85). The researcher defines lecture as an oral presentation of information to an audience.

As a method of instruction, the lecture method is informed by transmission models of instruction whose prime purpose is to transmit knowledge to students (Quinn, 2000, cited in Maphosa & Ndebele, 2014:543). According to Walker (2003, cited in Rahman et al., 2011:86), the lecture method is premised on certain psychological principles. These are:

1. The learner should meaningfully react to the stimuli of the teacher’s teaching so that learning takes place.
2. The teacher should be aware of the needs of the learner.
3. Since the attention span of students is not too long, the teacher should keep up the interest by injecting humorous comments, modulating his voice, and summarising the topic.

4. The teacher should have a realistic idea of his own teaching ability and the learning capacities of the students. Learning outcomes are essential for growth and progress in the lecturing process.
5. As it is an auditory medium, the concept is converted into mental pictures by the students and then understood. The teacher should take time to build these mental pictures, connecting the new concepts with the known, moving from simple to difficult ideas, banking on his communication ability.
6. The teacher uses an understandable language which depends on factors such as difficulty level of vocabulary, right examples, fluency, pronunciation of words, and rate of speaking.
7. The lecture method can be an effective method of instruction due to its versatility. It is virtually limitless in application, either to situation, subject matter, or student age and learning ability. At the same time, it can be one of the least effective methods if improperly used. The lecture method is more effective when visual aids, models, or some form of group participation are used. Similarly, the discussion along with learning material method, when properly used, can develop higher learning skills in the students. It can give the students increased capability for generalisation and transfer, a sense of the relevance of learning, and the ability to analyse, synthesise, and apply what is learned (Walker, 2003, cited in Rahman et al., 2011:86).

Maphosa and Ndebele (2014:543) provide an account of the role of the teacher and the learner when a lecture method is employed in the classroom. They state that “the lecturer is active and responsible for the transmission of a specified body of knowledge while students are active receivers of knowledge. Students’ understanding of internalised knowledge is judged by their internalising of the learnt content”. In this method, the teacher is seen as a sole repository of knowledge and, through oral presentation, he/she is able to transmit such knowledge to learners. Maphosa and Kalenga (2012, cited in Maphosa & Ndebele, 2014:544) contend that, to this end, assessment methods consistent with the transmission methods encourage students to cram what is learnt.

This observation about lecture as a method of teaching raises a number of concerns for adult educators. Adult learning is premised, amongst other things, on the element of

active participation of learners in the teaching and learning encounter; however, from the preceding discussion, it can be argued that the lecture method does not promote the active participation of adult learners in the teaching and learning encounter. It is not appropriate for higher levels of learning: comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill & Krathwohl, 1956), and creativity (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, cited in Cashin, 2010:2). Newble and Cannon (1994, cited in Maphosa & Ndebele, 2014:544) argue that lectures are not suited in instances where the intended learning outcomes require the students' application of knowledge and the development of critical thinking skills. Ebbinghaus (1913, cited in Maphosa & Ndebele, 2014: 544) also states that:

> The forgetting curve argues that human beings' memory retention declines with time to the extent of losing most of what is learnt in days unless the material leant is revised. The forgetting curve shows that within the first 24 hours, adults will remember less than 50 percent of what they would have learned within an hour of learning unless they have the opportunity to reinforce and practice it during or immediately afterwards.

Furthermore, this observation sums up the limitations of the lecture method of teaching. According to Cashin (2010:2):

> Perhaps equally limiting, in a traditional lecture, the students are mostly passive. This results in learners' attention waning quickly. If a lecture consists solely of the teacher talking, lack of student feedback can be a big problem. An added constraint is that, while the lecturer may assume students are relatively similar in important ways (rate of learning, cognitive skills, relevant background knowledge, interest in the subject matter), students may actually differ greatly in their level of understanding.

The lecture method is opposed to the constructivist view of learning which emphasis learners' meaning making. Learners should be allowed to construct meaning from the information presented to them in conjunction with their prior knowledge. However, the lecture method which subscribes to the "traditional passive view of learning involves situations where material is delivered to students using a lecture-based format. In contrast, a more modern view of learning is constructivism, where students are expected to be active in the learning process by participating in discussion and/or collaborative activities" (Fosnot, 1989, cited in Carpenter, 2006:14).

In spite of the many limitations of lecture as a method of teaching, it has inherent strengths. According to Cashin (2010:1):

> lectures can communicate the intrinsic interest of the subject matter, if the speaker lets his or her enthusiasm for the topic show… Lectures can show how experts in a field think, how they approach questions, and how they try to solve a problem. A lecture can summarize scattered material, or describe latest discoveries or issues".

In a study conducted by Badu-Nyarko and Torto (2014:230) about teaching methods preferred by part-time tertiary education students in Ghana:

> Students were of the view that the lecture method enabled lecturers to complete the syllabi on time taking into consideration the limited time of part-time learners. In addition, it gave extensive information on subjects taught and in the process gave students extensive knowledge and the opportunity to explore other areas of the subject. It also facilitated understanding and research.

According to Kumar (2003) and Lieux (1997, cited in Rahman, 2014:85), there are different types of lecture:

1. The expository lecture: It is what most students' think of when they hear that the teacher lectures a lot. The instructor does most of the talking and at times allows students to ask questions for clarification.
2. Illustrated lecture: It can take different forms for example; transparencies, filmstrips, slides, projected and non-projected pictures, diagrams, maps, charts, and blackboard writings. These are meant to catch the attention of the learners and must be prepared carefully. They must be visible to the audience and the audience should know the relevance of the illustration. Illustrations can effectively contribute to understanding when they are well-planned, well-prepared and well-presented.
3. The lecture – recitation: In this instance, the teacher does most of the talking, but often stops and asks students specific questions or requests students to read prepared material. In the lecture – recitation, the direction of interaction is either teacher to class, teacher to individual student, or individual student to teacher.
4. Lecture-cum-demonstration: This type of teaching serves a positive purpose as the students' keen observation during demonstration enables them in comprehension. Demonstrations are often useful when concepts are being developed. It is helpful in

teaching of skill-subjects, sciences and languages. Lecture-cum-demonstration is suited particularly to students who have limited ability to think abstractly.

5. The interactive lecture: It encourages student-to-student interaction. In this the instructor begins with a 15 to 25-minute mini-lecture and then asks the students to form learning groups and complete an assignment based on the mini-lecture.
6. Lecture-cum-buzz sessions: In this process the whole class is divided into small groups (five to ten students) after the lecture is delivered. For a few minutes (usually five minutes), a buzz session is organised on a particular aspect of the lecture. The groups' leaders then report back to the whole group. As the students are involved, the content of the lecture becomes more meaningful to the students.

From the foregoing Brown (1987, cited in Kaur, 2011:10) suggested the following as the process of lecturing:

1. Intention: The lecturer's intentions may be considered to provide coverage of a topic, to generate understanding and to stimulate interest. Consideration of these goals of lecturing as well as the knowledge of the earlier learning of the students are essential constituents of lecture preparation.
2. Transmission: A lecture sends a message verbally, extra verbally and nonverbally to the learners. The verbal messages may consist of definitions, descriptions, examples, explanations or comments. The 'extra verbal' components are the lecturer's vocal qualities, hesitations, errors and use of pauses and silence. The 'non-verbal' components consist of the teacher's gestures and facial expressions. All of these types of messages may be received by the students, and what they perceive as the important messages may be noted.
3. Receipt of Information: The information, meaning, and attitudes conveyed by the lecturer may or may not be perceived by the students. Attention fluctuates throughout the process of lecture. The attention of students can be increased if the lecture includes some short activities for students such as brief small-group discussions or simple problem solving. Any change of activity may renew attention. Therefore, the receipt of information is an important feature in the process of lecturing which has to be considered by the instructor.

4. Output: Any instructional strategy should lead directly to the objectives and interrelated goals for a course of study. So the student's response or "output" is essential in the process of lecturing and may be evidenced by immediate reactions to the lecture and the lecturer. But more important than the immediately observable responses in the lecture are the long-term changes in student. A lecture may change a student's perception of a problem or theory, it may increase a student's insight, and it may stimulate the student to read, think, and discuss ideas with others. The probabilities of these events depend upon the student's knowledge, attitudes, and motivation to learn and on the lecturer's preparation, lecture structure and presentation.

3.9.2 Discussion Method

Another method which is commonly used in teaching adult learners is discussion. According to Lowman (1995:159), "a useful classroom discussion...consists of student comments separated by frequent probes and clarifications by the teacher that facilitate involvement and development of thinking by the whole group." Svinicki and McKeachie (2011:36) define discussion "as two-way, spoken communication between the teacher and the students, and more importantly, among the students themselves." Discussion as the name implies refers to a form of communication between the teacher and learners and also amongst the learners where the views of all participants are regarded as equally important. In the words of Rahman, et al. (2011:86), "the discussion class is intended to be a free give-and-take between teacher and students and among students on the current topic of concern in the course. It is characterised by probing questions from the teacher designed to elicit student interpretations, opinions, and questions."

Commenting on the merits of the discussion method, Lowman (1995:164) states that, "in addition to clarifying content, teaching rational thinking, and highlighting affective judgments, discussion is particularly effective at increasing student involvement and active learning in classes". Discussion approaches are effective in developing students' thinking skills and higher-level learning such as application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Bloom et al., 1956), and also creativity (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001; Bligh,

2000, cited in Svinicki and McKeachie, 2011:1). Discussion also boosts the confidence of students and enhances their speaking and thinking skills.

According to Larson (2000:662),

> … teachers' conceptions of discussion often intersect with two purposes of discussion: (1) discussion as a method of instruction, where the purpose is to help engage students in a lesson by encouraging verbal interactions; and (2) discussion competence as the subject matter as the desired outcome of instruction and an end in itself. … Discussion is thought to be a useful teaching technique for developing higher-order thinking skills that enable students to interpret, analyze, and manipulate information. Students explain their ideas and thoughts, rather than merely recount or recite memorized facts and details. During discussion learners are not passive recipients of information that is transmitted from a teacher. Rather, learners are active participants.

It can be deduced from Larson's observation that the use of the discussion method in the classroom promotes learner participation and critical thinking. Learners have the opportunity to share their views on a given topic and can either agree or disagree with the views of their colleagues and even that of the teacher. Knowledge is, therefore, not the sole preserve of the teacher but of all participants in the discussion. Cadzen's (1988:55) comment on the shift from recitation to discussion is particularly pertinent at this moment.

> One important shift is from recitation to something closer to a real discussion…talk in which ideas are explored rather than answers to teacher's test questions are provided and evaluated; in which teachers talk less…and students talk correspondingly more; in which students themselves decide when to speak…; and in which students address each other directly.

This comment reveals not only a shift from recitation to discussion, but also a shift from the dominance of the teacher in the teaching and learning encounter to a more student-centred approach to teaching. Cashin (2011:1) on the other hand focuses attention on the skills that students acquire from the discussion method.

> Discussion can help students acquire better communication skills as they learn to present their ideas clearly and briefly; it also provides opportunities to practice listening to, and following what, others are saying. In addition, discussions can contribute to students' affective development by increasing their interest in a variety of subjects, helping to clarify their values, and aiding in recognising – and perhaps changing – some attitudes…As a teaching method, discussion permits students to be active in their own learning, which increases their motivation to learn and makes the process more interesting. And finally, discussion provides feedback

> to you about your students' acquisition of learning through questions, comments, elaborations, and justifications. These interactions allow you to plumb the depths of students' understanding.

The various strengths of the discussion method as highlighted above makes the method very desirable in adult learning where the learner's experiences and freedom of expression is paramount. This method, to a large extent, gives room for the learner's experiences to be brought to the fore through discussion. This means that learners are also given the opportunity to challenge conventional wisdom and suggest alternatives which significantly improves students' learning. This view is shared by Oyedeji (1996, cited in Abdu-Raheem, 2011:294) who noted that the discussion method works on the principle that the knowledge and ideas of several people are more likely to find solutions or answers to specified problems or topics. Discussion is therefore an interaction most importantly between students and also between students and the teacher who acts as a facilitator of the process. Wood and Wood (1988:295) give some insights into the uses of discussion in the classroom. Even though phrased mostly in questions, their insights provide a critical but yet informative view of how best to employ discussion in the classroom.

> And what is discussion anyway? A precise definition which we can all agree upon seems to be extremely elusive. Teachers, dissatisfied with the incessant 'chalk and talk' routine, have turned to more interactive modes of teaching for at least some of the day. If we could specify exactly what teachers hope to achieve in these sessions, then we might be able to devise evaluation procedures to measure how far these aims had in fact been fulfilled. How and why do teachers choose a discussion as opposed to paper and pencil tests, essays, lectures, or set reading, etc.?

Bridges (1988, cited in Abdu-Raheem, 2011:295) noted that discussion is concerned with the development of knowledge, understanding or judgment among those people taking part in it. He further notes that discussion is more serious than conversation because it requires to be both "mutually responsive" to the different views expressed. In order for discussions to achieve their intended purpose, i.e. promoting effective learning in students, there should be sustained interactions where students "support their ideas with evidence, where their opinions are subject to challenge by their peers as well as the

teacher, and where the teacher's ideas are equally open to criticism" (Engle & Ochoa, 1988:47).

In a study conducted by Abdu-Raheem (2011) on the effects on discussion method on secondary school students' achievement and retention in social studies in Nigeria, it was revealed that the discussion method enhanced the achievement and retention levels of the students in social studies. The findings from study, even though applicable to students in secondary/high school has far reaching implications for adult learners. Of particular importance to this study is that discussion promotes better understanding of the topics of interest since all learners are given an equal opportunity to express their views on the topic. As such, adult learners get a diverse and well-informed view of the topic. This leads to retention and ultimately enhances the performance of learners in the classroom.

3.9.3 Role-Play Method

It has been noted in previous sections that learner participation and autonomy are the backbone of any successful adult learning programme. Adult educators can achieve these goals through a variety of teaching methods. One of such methods is the role-play teaching method. As has been noted by Yardley-Matwiejczuk (1997, cited in Mogra, 2012:6), role-play is a term which describes a range of activities characterised by involving participants in 'as-if' actions. Mogra (*ibid*.) contends that "this could be achieved by creating hypothetical situations and circumstances expressed practically in a classroom which facilitate the combination of theory and practice". It is also a planned learning activity where participants take on the role of individuals representing different perspectives to meet specific learning objectives, such as to promote empathy or to expose participants to a scenario in which they might participate in future (Fry, Ketteridge & Marshall, 1999:439).

Using the techniques of drama, role-play teaching is a holistic teaching method that inculcates the process of critical thinking, instigates emotions and moral values, and informs about factual data (Bhattacharjee & Ghosh, 2013). In actual fact, role-play is a teaching method in which students act out a given real or imagined life situation.

Commenting on the origins of role-play as a teaching method, Bhattacharjee and Ghosh (2013) state that:

> It is based on the constructivist learning paradigm where learning is considered as the constructs of understanding developed by the learner through student centered learning. Learning has been defined as a process where knowledge is gained through acquiring information and facts that can be retained and used as necessary. Effective learning extends beyond the traditional exercises of reading and memorizing facts and requires abstracting meaning and gaining a deeper insight of events and situations. Utilization of drama becomes effective in this situation. Through the use of drama and dramatic conventions, a teacher not only conveys the facts and information of a subject, but can also portray a more vivid image of the reality.

The significance of drama in any learning situation cannot be discounted as, in the view of the researcher, it promotes retention. Role-play brings the element of reality and fun into the teaching and learning process. The reality aspect, even though dramatic in nature enables students to put themselves in the shoes of the actors and hence students' interest in the lesson is stimulated. This view is shared by Poorman (2002:32) when he posits that "integrating experiential learning activities in the classroom increases interest in the subject matter and understanding of course content." Students' interest in a lesson is crucial to effective learning in that self-motivation on the part of students promotes sustainability in learning. During role-play, as the students acquire knowledge through problem-solving of a realistic scenario, it is more likely that the students will be able to abstract the meaning and implement it in professional career when needed (McKeachie, 2003 cited in Bhattacharjee & Ghosh, 2013).

Yardley-Matwiejczuk (1997, cited in Mogra, 2012:6) argues that role-play equally embraces conventional and nonconventional paradigms and applications. He further posits that role-play offers a unique potential with respect to the enhancement of subjectivists, deconstructionists and contextualised approaches to the gathering of knowledge, and to the generation of action. Mogra (2012:6), in support of this view, contends that role-play offers huge potential mainly because of its flexibility with respect to a variety of contexts and complexity of foci. Indeed, it is commonly used to train therapists, counsellors, social workers and teachers (Yardley-Matwiejczuk, 1997, cited in

Mogra, 2012:6). In teaching adult learners, role-play has the potential to promote fun in learning which helps to enhance the interest of adult learners in the lesson.

Role-play belongs to the social family of models which are techniques highlighting the social nature of learning (Joyce, Calhoun & Hopkins, 2009:126). Human interactions and relationships in their natural environment provide a unique avenue for effective learning to take place. Therefore, by reconstructing the various events that take place in our societies in the classroom, the learner gets the opportunity to relive such situations. To some extent, this promotes problem-solving skills as learners are presented with reconstructed real life problems. Mogra (2012:6), in giving another dimension to the benefits of role-play, argues that students become initiators of their own learning as interaction with others is emphasised and dialogue becomes a vehicle for developing, sharing and considering ideas. Commenting on the cognitive growth, Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (2009, cited in Mogra, 2012:6) maintain that these models assist students to use the perspectives of others to clarify and expand their own thinking and conceptualisation of ideas.

Hafford-Letchfield (2010, cited in Mogra, 2012:7) examined the effectiveness of debate and role-play as pedagogical strategies when teaching complex ethical issues in law and ethics. As part of the dramatic and creative participative pedagogies, role-play enabled her students to develop a broader view transcending a narrower focus on teaching aspects of anti-discrimination legislation. McGregor (1993) investigated the effectiveness of role-play and anti-racist teaching in reducing students' prejudices. The study established that the role-play method of teaching helped to change and reduce racist attitudes amongst the students. Role-play tends to increase student participation in lessons. Fogg (2001) found that student involvement in his history class increased as a result of the introduction of role-play in lessons. Hitherto the students had reported that the history lessons were very boring and monotonous for them.

3.9.4 Case Study Method

According to Goodenough (1994:1), "teachers interested in involving their students more fully in classroom discussion have found that case studies can provide a rich basis for

developing students' problem solving and decision making skills." As the name implies, case studies offer the opportunity for teachers to introduce real life problems stated in a such a way that students can analyse and suggest possible solutions to them. Traditional case studies in fields such as economics, public policy, or international affairs can contain detailed historical information, including statistical data, relevant legal or governmental policy, and the arguments by various agencies for actions to be taken (*ibid*.). The same is true for the field of education in that students can be provided with educational or real life cases for them to explore.

A case study (also called a case, case method, or case study method) is usually a "description of an actual situation, commonly involving a decision, a challenge, an opportunity, a problem or an issue faced by a person or persons in an organisation" (Leenders et al., 2001 cited in Popil, 2011:205). According to Dowd and Davidhizar (1999, cited in Popil, 2011:205), cases do not give simple or explicit answers; rather, they provoke students' critical thinking, illustrate how to think professionally, and urge students to use theoretical concepts to highlight a practical problem. A common feature of the case study method of teaching is the aspect of promoting critical thinking in students. Since cases by design do not suggest any solutions, much rests on students to critically analyse the cases in relation to their prior knowledge and experiences.

Commenting on the usefulness of case studies in nursing education, Popil (2011:205) asserts that:

> Case studies incorporate ideas of experimental learning by providing student centered education and providing opportunities that will motivate students through active involvement. Case studies also provide an avenue for using problem solving skills and promote decision making in a non-threatening environment. Case studies allow students to "experience" real client situations that they may not have access to in a clinical setting. They promote development of critical thinking skills by offering the chance for direct data analysis that includes consideration of the outcomes. For example, by exposing student to a practical scenario in the classroom, we give him a "hands on" experience. They can read and examine real life data and attempt to resolve the situation, or at least find potential solutions to the situation without having to be in the situation at the moment.

In the same vein, Grupe and Jay (2000, cited in Popil, 2011: 205) assert that cases create the need to know, enhancing the listening and cooperative learning skills of the students;

building partnerships among learners and teachers; encouraging attention to and self-consciousness toward assumptions and conceptions; and helping students learn to monitor their own thinking, and promote thinking and brainstorming.

Case studies share some similarities with role-play, but in case studies, students do not act out a given role; instead they are given some narrative problem to solve.

> As with other teaching methods, the effective use of case studies requires instructors to determine the specific goals they hope to accomplish. In general terms, cases can assess the application of concepts to complex real world situations, including building analytic skills that distinguish high priority from low priority elements (Goodenough, 1994:2).

Popil (2011:205) identifies some features of case study method of teaching: "cases are based on real life scenarios, they provide supporting data and documents to be analyzed, and an open ended question or problem is presented for possible solution." In terms of audience suitable for case study he indicates that "case studies can be presented to individuals or groups; most commonly, however, they are worked on in groups that can brainstorm solutions to the problem/question presented" (*ibid*.).

In a survey of academics and students at Harvard Business School about the use of case studies in their lessons, Boehrer and Linsky (1990:45) found that

> a good case presents an interest provoking issue and promotes empathy with the central characters. It delineates their individual perspectives and personal circumstances well enough to enable students to understand the characters' experience of the issue. The importance of the compelling issue and the empathetic character reflects the fact that cases typically focus on the intersection between organisational or situational dynamics and individual perception, judgment, and action.

This observation is pertinent to adult education where adults require skills and knowledge that they can readily implement in their workplaces. They do not prefer deferred application of knowledge and skills acquired. As such, case studies present an excellent opportunity for adult learners to relate their individual decision-making processes and skills to perceived organisational or situational problems.

3.9.5 Demonstration Method

Imparting a skill or knowledge to individuals is an arduous task. Sometimes, the nature of the skill/knowledge to be imparted requires teachers to show and explain step-by-step how a given activity or work is accomplished. While learners look on as the teacher exhibits the skill, they internalise the various steps required in the performance of the activity. This, in a nutshell, is the demonstration method of teaching. Mundi (2006, cited in Ekeyi, 2013:2) describes it as a display or an exhibition usually done by the teacher while the students watch with keen interest. Similarly, Chamberlain and Kelly (1981, cited in Iline, 2013:49) stress that demonstrations are used to show procedures and to explain techniques. This means that students must be able to see what the teacher does and hear what the teacher says in relation to the technique/procedure being taught. It, therefore, calls for full concentration from the students.

It has often been argued that children learn better by imitation. Such an argument is also true for adult learners in a sense. Given the need for adults to regularly upgrade their knowledge and skills in order to stay relevant in the job market, it means that skill and knowledge acquisition is paramount to them. Again since adult learners want to immediately apply skills and knowledge that they have learned makes imitation and *ipso facto* demonstration important in adult learning. While it can be said that demonstrations promote effective transmission of skills, demonstration as a teaching method has many forms. Chikuni (2003, cited in Iline, 2013:50) distinguishes between two forms of demonstration: step-by-step and whole process. According to Chikuni, in the whole process demonstration, the teacher demonstrates the full process from the beginning to the end without interruption by learners' participation while, on the other hand, the step-by-step demonstration takes place when the process is presented in stages that are inter-spaced by learners‟ participation.

Demonstration provides many benefits in the teaching and learning encounter. Barton, Walton & Rowe. (1976: 157), for instance, assert that demonstration is an effective method of teaching for the following reasons:

1. Demonstrations attract and hold attention; they are interesting.

2. Demonstrations present subject matter in a way that can be understood easily.
3. They convince those who might otherwise doubt that a thing could be done, or that they themselves could do it.
4. The demonstration method is objective and concrete.
5. Demonstrations permit the teaching of theory along with practice.
6. Demonstrations yield a high rate of “take” to “exposures”.
7. They aid in developing local leadership.

Stimulating learner interest seems to be one of the key benefits of the demonstration teaching method. However, of particular importance is the aspect of serving as a tool to translate theory into practice since the focus of the study is adult learners. It has already been said that demonstrations provide a step-by-step explanation through the exhibition of the various processes involved in completing a task. Olaitan (1984) and Mundi (2006, cited in Ekeyi, 2013:2) also indicate the following as the benefits of demonstration as a teaching method: it saves time and facilitates material economy; the method is an attention-inducer and a powerful motivator in lesson delivery; students receive feedback immediately through their own products; students acquire skills in using tools and materials in real-life situations; it helps to motivate students when carried out by skilled teachers; and it is good in showing the appropriate ways of doing things. The focus is on student motivation as a major benefit accruing from demonstration in the teaching and learning encounter.

The researcher opines that while demonstration as a teaching method enhances the interest of students in a lesson, it is also an avenue to model certain behaviour patterns in students. The step-by-step procedures exhibited by the teacher enable the student to imitate such processes and eventually internalise the behaviour patterns exhibited by the teacher and they become very useful in the future. Such behaviour patterns define the very essence of the particular skill/occupation. For instance, after graduating from medical school, medical practitioners are expected to display certain desired behaviour patterns (those acquired during their training) in the conduct of the duties.

Demonstration teaching method has been proven to enhance students’ achievement levels. In a study conducted by Ekeyi (2013:5) on the effects of the demonstration

teaching method on students' achievement in agricultural science in Nigeria, it came to light that the students who were taught with the demonstration method had higher achievement scores in the Agricultural Science Achievement Test (ASAT) than their counterparts in the control group that were taught with the conventional lecture method of teaching.

3.9.6 Storytelling as a Teaching Method

Storytelling represents an indispensable part of human societies. It is one of the ways by which a people's culture is passed on from one generation to the next. As Eck (2006:19) succinctly puts it:

> storytelling and its role(s) in society predates written human history as oral storytelling was the only tool available to people to preserve and share cultural customs, beliefs and heritage…thus storytelling proved to be a highly effective way of coding knowledge in oral cultures because it made them more memorable and easily passed on to others.

This means that, even in human societies, storytelling served/serves as a tool for internalising the society's culture, values, norms, and expectations. It can therefore be said that, storytelling permeates all aspects of human life. Abrahamson (1998, cited in Eck, 2006:20), in support of this view, notes that storytelling continues to have a strong presence in all human institutions. In the light of these observations, one could ask, "can storytelling be employed in adult learning or any form of formal educational endeavour?"

In answering this question, Abrahamson (1998, cited in Eck, 2006:20) argues that storytelling forms the very foundation of the teaching profession. Eck (*ibid*.) is also of the view that

> although storytelling in education has primarily been associated with children in the lower grades, there is now greater evidence that the use of storytelling in higher education is being recognised as a powerful teaching and learning tool and one that has proven effective across all academic disciplines with adult learners.

Even though his emphasis was on students in higher education, the researcher opines that storytelling can also be employed to promote effective learning among adult learners in non-formal education programmes.

Labov (1972, cited in Andrews, Hull & Donahue, 2009:7) likens storytelling to a narrative which allows the listener to make meaning of the account. He defines a narrative "as one method of recapitulating past experiences by matching a verbal sequence of clauses to the sequence of events" and at a minimum a "sequence of two clauses which are temporally ordered". Heo (2003, cited in Eck, 2006:22) also sees story telling as narrative inquiry which involves the telling and retelling of stories as we reconstruct meaning from our experiences lived and then re-told. He further states that narrative is a means of making meaning out of bridging new and previously learned information and that individuals think, interpret, and make many decisions according to narrative structures and elements. A narrative is multifunctional in the sense that it attempts to appeal to emotions, as well as recount facts and events (Martin, 1986, cited in Andrews, Hull, and Donahue, 2009:9). In the words of Eck (2006:22), "a pervasive similarity in the analysis of the definition of storytelling among nearly all educational theorists and researchers on this topic is that storytelling is our fundamental human way of making meaning of our lives and experiences". Meaning-making is crucial in this study as the researcher sees it as an end in all adult learning endeavours. Therefore, the researcher opines that storytelling could be an effective method for teaching adult learners since it may promote effective learning amongst them. Intelligence itself appears to be grounded in the ability to comprehend the world around us and how past events and old knowledge can be bridged to new experiences and new knowledge (Abrahamson, 1998, cited in Eck, 2006:23).

Apart from meaning making, Andrews, Hull, and Donahue (2009) stress that a story, promotes instruction directly through verbal or linguistic means and indirectly by aiding in the mental construction of a sequence of events enacted for or by the learner. They further contend (*ibid*.) that the purpose of a story may range from entertainment to instruction, but all stories share a similar experiential or imaginary (as opposed to abstracted) approach to encapsulating information. According to Morgan and Dennehy (1997, cited in Eck, 2006:23), an effective story embraces five sequential components:

1. The setting: a description of the time, place, characters and context so you provide something the audience can mentally image and feel a part of.

2. Build up: a sequence of events that warns the listener that something (usually some type of conflict) is about to happen. This creates suspense, interest and attention.
3. Crisis: the climax or high point of the story. This is also the place to introduce a new element and/or a turning point.
4. Learning: point out what the central character(s) learned. Here lies the lesson of the story.
5. How change ensued in the character(s) behaviours, awareness, abilities: the storyteller focuses on the learning to be retained by the listener.

These components, when carefully applied, would aid the educator to elicit the interest of adult learners in a lesson which may enhance achievement levels of the learners. Again, storytelling has the tendency to motivate adult learners in their learning. This view is shared by Miller and Pennycuff (2008:37) when they state that “engaging in storytelling activities is a way to motivate even the most reluctant reader or writer”. Several studies have been conducted about the effectiveness of storytelling in the teaching and learning encounter. For instance, a study conducted by Isbell, et al. (2004 cited in Miller & Pennycuff, 2008:37), established the impact of storytelling and reading stories on the development of language and comprehension of children aged three to five. The participants were divided into two groups but the same twenty-four stories were heard by all students. The first group had the stories told to them. The second group listened to the stories as they were read from a book. The results showed that both groups benefited from their instruction. The group who heard the stories told experienced greater comprehension as demonstrated in their retelling of the stories.

Mello (2001, cited in Miller & Pennycuff, 2008:38) conducted a meta-analysis of eight studies regarding the use of storytelling as a pedagogical strategy in literacy education. The studies demonstrated that the literacy of the participants was enhanced in the academic areas of fluency, vocabulary acquisition, writing, and recall. The study also found that storytelling enhanced learners’ self-awareness, visual imagery, and cultural knowledge. In a related study conducted by Cliatt and Shaw (1988, cited in Miller & Pennycuff, 2008:38), it was found that storytelling not only helped participants enhance the language and logic skills of the children but also resulted in the development of

positive attitudes towards instruction. Even though Cliatt and Shaw's study focused on children, the findings have far-reaching implications for adult learners. This current study focuses on adult, non-formal education programmes in Ghana and South Africa, with the purpose of such programmes being to promote the literacy and numeracy skills in learners. Therefore, it can be argued that since many of the participants in such programmes are illiterate and semi-literate adults, the stages involved in teaching them literacy might be quite similar to that of children. Therefore, it is the belief of the researcher that storytelling can also enhance the logic and language skills of adult learners. It also has the tendency to stimulate the interest of adult learners in a lesson while promoting recollection of what has been learned.

3.9.7 Games as a Teaching Method

The main goal of teaching in any educational programme is to promote effective learning amongst learners. Some teachers make learning formal where the teacher is seen as the authority figure in the classroom while others make learning fun and interactive. It has earlier been noted that adult learners require learning situations which promote their active participation in class activities. It implies that teaching should promote interaction and should be less formalised. Games as a teaching method offer the learner the opportunity to have fun, interact with other learners and the teacher, and ultimately learn effectively. Hadfield (1990, cited in Deesri, 2002:1) sees a game as "an activity with rules, a goal and an element of fun." The element of rules means that the teacher still has a little control over the activities that are undertaken by learners. Commenting on the effectiveness of games in language learning, Aðalnámskrá (2007:12) opines that games can be a good teaching method and games, such as role-playing games, imitation games, theatrical expression and problem-solving activities are especially fitting for all stages of language learning.

According to Azriel, Ethal and Starr (2005:9), "regardless of age or economic, ethnic, or social background, people understand the language of play". This means that games can be very effective with adult learners. Gibbs (1978, cited in Rixon, 19993) notes that "games are activities carried out by cooperating or competing decision makers, seeking to achieve, within a set of rules, their objectives." Promoting cooperation and competing

ideas should be a goal of adult education. This is because, by cooperating and advancing different views, adult learners are able to understand various topics from a wider perspective. In explaining cooperation and competition as a characteristic of game, Yolageldili and Arikan (2011:220) note that:

> Competition, which is associated with games, plays a crucial role as for the nature of games requires. Learners are ex) cited by competition because the question of who will win or lose remains unanswered until the game is over. Similarly, games' making learning easier in an enjoyable way suggests that games are full of fun which leads to successful learning. In many games, learners are required to cooperate to achieve the goal and most learners enjoy cooperation and social interaction. It is believed that when cooperation and interaction are combined with fun, successful learning becomes more possible.

Shanahan, Hermans and Haytko (2006) assert that games provide the opportunity for immediate feedback to be given on student learning sufficiency prior to, rather than after, an exam. this assertion is crucial to effective learning since by providing immediate feedback to learners, teachers are able to put in place corrective measures before summative assessments take place. McCallum (1980:ix), on the other hand, indicates the role games play in stimulating learners' interest in a lesson. According to him, "games automatically stimulate student interest, a properly introduced game can be one of the highest motivating techniques." Stimulating learners' interest is pertinent in adult learning because the unique situations of the learners may make them preoccupied with other personal and social issues that make it difficult to concentrate fully in class. Therefore, the ability of games to arouse the interest of learners in a lesson makes it effective for adult learners.

To sum up the advantages of games, McCallum (1980:ix) indicates that games focus students' attention on specific structures, grammatical patterns, and vocabulary items; can function as reinforcement, review and enrichment; involve equal participation from both slow and fast learners; can be adjusted to suit the individual age and language levels of the students; contribute to an atmosphere of healthy competition, providing an outlet for the creative use of natural language in a non-stressful situation; can be used in any language teaching situation and with all skill areas (reading, writing, speaking or listening); provide immediate feedback for the teacher; ensure maximum student

participation for a minimum of teacher preparation. In terms of feedback, games provide feedback that is "(1) clear and unobtrusive, and (2) immediately responsive to the player's actions" (Rigby & Ryan, 2007:8).

In order to effectively use games in teaching students, Shanahan, et al. (2006) had the following to say:

1. The game must relate to the learning outcomes
2. Teacher and students must quickly understand how to play the game
3. The game must not become more important than the learning
4. The game must motivate students to perform better
5. Students must be able to provide feedback to the teacher on the game.

Games could be an integral activity in the teaching and learning encounter due to their ability to arouse student's interest and motivation. However, due to the nature of the method, many teachers are likely to employ games when the class becomes boring. Lee (1979:3) suggests that "games should not be regarded as a marginal activity, filling in odd moments when the teacher and class have nothing better to do." With this in mind, games should be put into the centre of classroom teaching and they should not be treated as merely a warm-up activity. Yolageldili and Arikan (2011:222) discuss the role of the teacher as well as some of the requirements for effective games. According to them:

> Teachers should be well aware of their roles while using games in their classes. Since it is rather difficult to find a game that meets all the needs of the learners, careful preparation of the teacher is necessary… The teacher may need some extra equipment or materials to play the game and most of the time these equipment and materials are not available in the classroom. Before explaining the rules to the class, the teacher should first understand how the game is played... After choosing the game, the teacher should explain its rules to the learners in a direct and non-complicated way… Therefore, demonstrations may be beneficial because they can help young learners understand the rules clearly and easily. Moreover, the teacher is not recommended to interrupt a game to correct the mistakes of young learners.

Games have received some attention amongst educational researchers as to their effectiveness in teaching students. For instance, in a study conducted by Yolageldili and Arikan (2011:225) on the effectiveness of using games in teaching grammar to young

learners, the study revealed that a great majority of EFL teachers believe in the pedagogical value of games in second-language teaching. Akinsola and Animasuhun (2007:117) found that a simulation game environment is an important method of teaching which affects students' achievement in and attitude towards mathematics. These findings have certain implications for adult teaching and learning using the game method. First of all, games have the potential to arouse the interest of adult learners in a lesson. For example, "ludu" (Snakes and ladders), which is an indigenous Ghanaian game, could be used by the educator to stimulate the interest of learners in a numeracy lesson. Secondly, games can help the educator to provide learners with immediate and corrective feedback. Last but not least; games can also promote the learners' motivation to learn as games form part of the day to day activities of human beings.

3.10 ASSESSMENT IN ADULT LEARNING

In any educational programme, it is imperative to know how learning outcomes have been achieved. In this regard, it is important to put in place measures/activities that reveal the extent to which knowledge, skills, and attitudes of learners have been enhanced. Teachers make professional judgements on learners' performance in every teaching and learning session undertaken, whether consciously or subconsciously (Jones, 2005:1). This makes assessment very important in any teaching and learning encounter. According to Kellaghan and Greaney (2001:19), "assessment may be used in education to refer to any procedure or activity that is designed to collect information about the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of a learner or group of learners".

Caffrey (2009:1) indicates that "educational assessment is a complex endeavor involving gathering and analyzing data to support decision-making about students and the evaluation of academic programs and policies". Assessment has been defined as "the process of obtaining information that is used to judge students, to give feedback to the student about his or her progress, strengths, and weaknesses, to judge instructional effectiveness, curricular adequacy and inform policy (AFT, NCME, NEA, 1990, cited in Kellaghan and Greaney, 2001:19). This means that assessment is not only for the purpose of judging student's performance but to provide information about the entire

educational programme. Therefore, assessment cannot be divorced from teaching and learning.

3.10.1 Purposes of Assessment

Assessment serves many purposes. Generally, assessments are designed with a specific purpose in mind, and the results should be used for the intended purpose (Caffrey, 2009:2). According to Caffrey, educational assessments serves four main purposes – instructional, predictive, diagnostic (identification), and evaluative. In addition:

> instructional assessments are used to modify and adapt instruction to meet students' needs. These assessments can be informal or formal and usually take place within the context of a classroom. Informal instructional assessments can include teacher questioning strategies or reviewing classroom work. A more formal instructional assessment could be a written pretest in which a teacher uses the results to analyze what the students already know before determining what to teach.

Instructional assessment therefore provides the teaching information about students' understanding of a given topic while teaching is still in place. As such, the teacher is able to reflect on his/her teaching approach, strategy, or method.

On the other hand, Caffrey (2009:2) contends that

> predictive assessments are used to determine the likelihood that a student or a school will meet a particular predetermined goal. One common type of predictive assessment used by schools and districts is a benchmark assessment, which is designed primarily to determine which students are on-track for meeting end-of-year achievement goals.

Another typical example of predictive assessment is mock examinations for High School students in Ghana. This examination is conducted prior to the commencement of the final national exam for Grade 12 students in order to determine whether students and, for that matter, the school are adequately prepared for the final exam.

In terms of diagnostic assessment, Caffrey (2009:3) states that they are "used to determine a student's academic, cognitive, or behavioral strengths and weaknesses. These assessments provide a comprehensive picture of a student's overall functioning and go beyond exclusively focusing on academic achievement". An example of diagnostic

assessment is the Test of English as a Foreign Language which is done to determine the strengths and weaknesses of a student in English language. Finally, Caffrey (*ibid*.) notes that

> evaluative assessments are used to determine the outcome of a particular curriculum, program, or policy. Results from evaluative assessments are often compared to some sort of predetermined goal or objective. These assessments, unlike instructional, predictive, or diagnostic assessments, are not necessarily designed to provide actionable information on students, schools, or districts.

The end of semester examinations conducted in most universities is a typical example of evaluative assessment. Here, the goal is to determine whether or not students have internalised the various topics that were taught during the course of the semester. Kellaghan and Greaney (2001: 20) summarise the purposes of assessment as follows:

> At the individual student level, it is used (a) to describe students' learning, to identify and diagnose learning problems, and to plan further teaching/learning; (b) to provide guidance for students in selecting further courses of study or in deciding on vocational options; (c) to motivate students by providing goals or targets, by clarifying the nature of learning tasks, and by letting students, and their teachers, know how they are progressing; (d) to certify that individuals have reached a certain level of competence; and (e) to select individuals for the next level of the education system or for a job.

The various purposes indicate that assessment is indispensable in the teaching and learning encounter. In adult education, assessment provides the educator and learners the opportunity to determine whether or not learning objectives have been achieved. Adults who enroll in non-formal education programmes where the focus is on providing numeracy and literacy as well as, in some cases, vocational skills to illiterate and semi-literate persons, need to know how well they are progressing with their studies. The teacher of adults should, therefore, regularly measure their performance. Assessment thus plays a pivotal role in adult education programmes.

3.10.2 Types of Assessment

The type of assessment that a teacher employs in a teaching and learning encounter is dependent on what he/she seeks to achieve with the assessment. In fact, the intended purpose of the particular assessment would determine which type of assessment would be used by the teacher. There are many types of assessment but for the purpose of this

study, three main types of assessment are distinguished – formative, diagnostic, and summative assessment.

3.10.2.1 Formative Assessment

One of the main purposes of assessment is to inform learners about their progress. Formative assessment serves this purpose by providing information about the progress of learners. According to Derrick and Ecclestone (2006:3), formative assessment is sometimes described as 'assessment for learning' as distinct from 'assessment of learning'. According to Jones (2005:5), "assessment for learning is all about informing learners of their progress to empower them to take the necessary action to improve their performance. Teachers need to create learning opportunities where learners can progress at their own pace and undertake consolidation activities where necessary". Black, et al. (2002, cited in Derrick and Ecclestone, 2006:3) reechoes the views of Jones when they assert that:

> Assessment for learning is any assessment for which the first priority in its design and practice is to serve the purpose of promoting students' learning. It thus differs from assessment designed primarily to serve the purposes of accountability, or of ranking, or of certifying competence. An assessment activity can help learning if it provides information to be used as feedback, by teachers, and by their students, in assessing themselves and each other, to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged. Such assessment becomes 'formative assessment' when the evidence is actually used to adapt the teaching work to meet learning need.

Formative assessment enables the teacher to put in place measures to deal with any poor performance on the part of students. This is because formative assessment is on-going and thus takes place throughout the course/programme. According to Assessment Reform Group (2002:n.p.), assessment for learning should:

1. be part of effective planning for teaching and learning so that learners and teachers should obtain and use information about progress towards learning goals; planning should include processes for feedback and engaging learners;
2. focus on how students learn; learners should become as aware of the 'how' of their learning as they are of the 'what';

3. be recognised as central to classroom practice, including demonstration, observation, feedback and questioning for diagnosis, reflection and dialogue;
4. be regarded as a key professional skill for teachers, requiring proper training and support in the diverse activities and processes that comprise assessment for learning;
5. should take account of the importance of learner motivation by emphasising progress and achievement rather than failure and by protecting learners' autonomy, offering some choice and feedback and the chance for self-direction;
6. promote commitment to learning goals and a shared understanding of the criteria by which they are being assessed, by enabling learners to have some part in deciding goals and identifying criteria for assessing progress;
7. enable learners to receive constructive feedback about how to improve, through information and guidance, constructive feedback on weaknesses and opportunities to practise improvements;
8. develop learners' capacity for self-assessment so that they become reflective and self-managing; and
9. recognise the full range of achievement of all learners.

Taking these views into account, formative assessment or assessment for learning is an essential part of the learning process because it not only enables the teacher to discover the weaknesses and strengths of students as evidenced in their performances, it also serves as an on-going mechanism for the teacher to reflect on his/her practice while teaching and learning is still taking place. In this way, the teacher is able to streamline his/her teaching to suit the needs of the learners.

3.10.2.2 Summative assessment

While formative assessment is on-going and takes place throughout the educational programme, summative assessment takes place at the end of the programme. According to Formative Assessment for Students and Teachers (FAST) (2012:6) "assessment referred to as summative is designed to provide information regarding the level of student, school, or program success at an end point in time". Such assessment provides a general picture of the student's performance as well as an indication of the performance of the

school and/or the educational programme. FAST further explains that summative assessment:

> can range from large-scale assessment systems, such as the annual assessments administered across states, to district-wide assessment systems or tests, to classroom summative tests created by teachers. In each instance, the assessments are designed to yield interpretations regarding students' achievement or program success up to that point in time.

Caffrey (2009:6) offers a description of summative assessment as follows: "summative assessments are tests given at the end of a lesson, semester, or school year to determine what has been learned. Summative assessments are used for diagnostic or evaluative purposes". From these views, it can be discerned that summative assessment enables the teacher to identify the strengths and weaknesses of students and also provides policy makers with an opportunity to evaluate the entire educational programme. Results from summative assessments are used to serve many functions. According to FAST (2012:6):

> the results are used to fulfill summative functions, such as to (1) reach an evaluative judgment about the effectiveness of a recently concluded educational program; (2) arrive at an inference about a student's mastery of the curricular aims sought during an in-class instructional sequence; (3) arrive at a grade; or (4) meet local, state, and federal accountability requirements.

It can be argued that summative assessment, amongst other things, ensures the sustainability of educational programmes since it offers the means through which successive levels of the educational system are filled by students. This is because it is through summative assessment that progression of students from one level to another is ensured.

3.10.2.3 Diagnostic assessment

It has been noted that one of the purposes of assessment is to identify areas of the curriculum where students have difficulties so as to find ways to rectify them. According to FAST (2012) diagnostic assessments are evidence-gathering strategies that give a sufficiently clear indication regarding which targeted subskills or bodies of enabling knowledge a student possesses or does not possess – and hence supplying the information needed by teachers when they decide how to most appropriately design or modify instructional activities. Effective teaching and learning relies not only on a good

curriculum but also on the ability of the teacher to identify areas in the curriculum where students have difficulties. As such the success of teaching and learning rests firmly on the ability of the teacher to diagnose challenges that confront students with regards the curriculum. FAST (*ibid*.:7), however, notes that "because of the time-intensive and specific nature of diagnostic assessments, they are only used for the subset of students identified as not making sufficient progress".

3.10.3 Selected Assessment Methods

This section tackles the various assessment tools available to the adult educator.

3.10.3.1 Questioning

According to Derrick and Ecclestone (2006:18), "classroom questioning extends teachers' understanding of the aims of diagnostic and formative assessment into an area that they usually construe as teaching". Questioning is an on-going assessment tool which helps the educator to identify gaps in students' learning. Alexander (2004, cited in Derrick & Ecclestone (2006:18) draws together a number of school-based studies which see questioning as integral to effective teaching and a key element of a 'dialogue of enquiry'. Dialogue of enquiry can be seen as a strategy that seeks to elicit answers from learners on questions posed to them whereby such answers serve as a basis for further reflection. In this case, the teacher is in constant dialogue with the learners and is not seen as a knowing all the answers to questions. In fact, questioning should evoke discussions from students and also should help tackle the problem at hand. Lindfors (1999, cited in Derrick & Ecclestone, 2006) brings out the need for the 'dialogue of enquiry' to encompass challenge and disagreement as well as consensus. The educator's role in this regard becomes more explicit, in that the educator is supposed to guide the entire process.

Asking questions is quite different from questioning. Hodgen and Wiliam (2006, cited in Derrick & Ecclestone, 2006:18) confirm this stance and discuss the difference as follows:

> …questioning is more complex than simply generating questions. Responsive questioning – responding in the moment to pupils' ideas – is very complex. There are no easy answers to this, but teachers in [our research project] found

> collaboration – sharing, talking about and reflecting upon questioning with other teachers – to be a very valuable way of increasing their repertoire of questions and their ability to use these questions in the classroom.

Breen (2001, cited in Derrick & Ecclestone, 2006:18) discourages the use of closed questioning in assessment in that it can foreclose learning. Breen analysed a range of feedback techniques and distinguishes between different kinds of classroom talk: between learner interactions in which their discourse is "woven into the teacher's text", (as in the case of questions to the whole group – an example of effective closed dialogue) and interactions in which learners frame their own discourse. He contends that supporting the capacity to develop this learner-centred discourse, for example about their learning, is a key element of effective language teaching. Closed questioning may include "what is", "mention", or "list". Questions framed in such ways leave the learners with little chance to explain or discuss issues. In the same vein, Rogers (2001, cited in Derrick & Ecclestone, 2006:18) also warns against closed questions, suggesting that questions beginning 'show me', or 'how', or 'why' are more likely to help assess whether the learner has absorbed the learning point. She suggests four types of questions to be avoided by teachers: double questions which confuse, leading questions which suggest the answer the teacher would like to hear, 'advice in disguise' questions which can prevent learning and create opposition in the student's mind, and rhetorical questions which imply contempt or ridicule towards any answer than the one implied.

3.10.3.2 Assignment

Jarvis (2010:170) notes that assignments are a common feature of most courses of teaching and learning, and may involve, for instance, writing an essay, a case study, or a research project. The Scottish Qualifications Authority (SQA) (2015:19) defines assignment as a problem-solving activity with clear guidelines, structure and specified length. The SQA further notes that assignments are particularly suited to the assessment of learning outcomes concerned with applying practical skills and related knowledge and understanding to a situation that involves task management. Assignments encompass a wide variety of activities which are undertaken by students to test their comprehension of a given subject in a written or practical manner. According to Jarvis (2010:170), "essays are perhaps the most frequently employed method, which may be because tutors

themselves were expected to write them, although projects and case studies are assuming a more important place in adult learning and teaching".

3.10.3.3 Portfolio

Hill (2012:40) contends that throughout the years, a number of professions have utilized a portfolio to collect, document, and present evidence of professional accomplishment and personal growth. This may be due to the uniqueness of portfolio as a tool for measuring students' performances. Based on the constructivist theories which advocate that learning has to be constructed by the learners themselves, rather than being imparted by the teachers, portfolio assessment requires students to provide selected evidence to show that learning relevant to the course objectives has taken place. Genesee and Upshur (1996:99) provide a definition for portfolio as follows:

> A portfolio is purposeful collection of students' work that demonstrates to the students and others their efforts, progress, and achievements in given areas. Student portfolios have been inspired by professionals such as photographers and architects as a means of keeping a record of their accomplishments to show to others… Students should have their own portfolios, which can be a conventional file folder, a small cardboard box, a section of a file drawer, or some other such receptacle.

This implies that a portfolio is not a once-off assessment tool but entails an assemblage of learners' work with the intention to depict his/her performance in the given subject. In the same vein, Birgin and Baki (2007:77) argue that:

> portfolios should be on going so that they show the students' efforts, progress, and achievement over a period of time. Portfolios should be on going so that they show the students' efforts, progress, and achievement over a period of time. When the descriptions stated above, portfolio is not either the arbitrary collections or observation of student's works to be filled haphazardly. It is important that the portfolio collections should be purposeful, systematic, the determined evaluation criteria, and take a period of time.

Paulson, Paulson and Mayer (1991, cited in Birgin & Baki, 2007:77) also define a portfolio as a purposeful collection of a student's work that shows his/her efforts, progress and achievement in one or more areas. An educational portfolio may contain a collection of items that demonstrate personal reflections, skills, knowledge, and accomplishments as evidence of a student's progress and learning (Nash & Sacre, 2009 cited in Hill,

2012:140). A portfolio as a summative assessment tool gives the student the opportunity to compile samples of his work as evidence of his/her performance. In support of this view, David, Davis, Harden, Howie, Ker and Pippard (2001) suggest that the portfolio provides the evaluator with an indication of student performance collected from an array of sources over a set period.

Different types of portfolio can be identified according to their purpose and the items to be collected in it. Haladyn (1997, cited in Birgin & Baki, 2007: 81) differentiates between five types of portfolios namely: ideal, showcase, documentation, evaluation, and class portfolio. The ideal portfolio contains the entirety of students' work. The purpose of such a portfolio is not to assign a grade to students' performance but to allow for students to assess their own portfolios and, as a consequence, their own performance. He notes that the showcase portfolio is composed only of students' best work. Here students are tasked with selecting their best work. The researcher contends that such a portfolio gives a biased impression of learners' work and is, therefore, an unreliable tool for assessment. On the other hand, he asserts that the documentation portfolio involves a collection of work over time showing growth and improvement reflecting students' learning of identified outcomes. This type of portfolio gives a depiction of qualitative and quantitative data on learners' performances. The fourth type, the evaluation portfolio, entails a standardised collection of students' work and could be determined by the teacher or, in some cases, by the student (Haladyn, 1997). Such a portfolio is suitable for purpose of grading students. The class portfolio contains students' grades, and the teacher's view and knowledge about students in the classroom.

While the purposes of the use of portfolios are explicit from the types discussed above, Friedman, Davis, Harden, Howie, Ker and Pippard (2001:6) summarise the purposes of portfolios as follows:

> the use of portfolios for students' assessment enables students and teachers to engage in a process of learning through assessment. This implies that the assessment procedure not only measures and reinforces the desired learning outcomes but rather enhances the development of strategies, attitudes, skills and cognitive processes essential for lifelong learning. Consequently, the use of portfolios not only broadens the scope of assessment but also introduces a number of educational benefits.

Portfolios provide both the educator and learner the opportunity to track and compare their performance overtime which is made possible through the purposeful collection of learners' work in the given learning area(s). This makes it possible for both educator and learners to reflect on the latter's performance in order to make improvements where necessary. Research on the effectiveness of portfolio as an assessment tool at all levels of the educational sector has been well-documented. In a study conducted by Sharifi and Hassaskhah (2011:218) on the role of portfolio assessment and reflection on process writing, it was found that the use of portfolio in assessment did help students to enhance their reflective skills and to develop a sense of responsibility for their own professional development. In addition, it was found that the majority (75%) of the respondents felt that portfolios helped them to become aware of their strengths and weaknesses, and that they helped them to become independent learners. In the same vein, the majority (80%) of the respondents indicated that portfolio helped to promote critical thinking, while 81% felt that portfolio helped them to improve their self-esteem. In another instance, researchers studying the effectiveness of portfolios found that when students choose work samples the result was a deeper understanding of content, a clearer focus, better understanding of quality product, and an ownership of the work that "… created a caring and an effort not present in other learning processes" (Gearhardt & Wolfe, 1995, cited in Davies & Le Maheu, 2003:10). Another study, conducted by Julius (2000, cited in Davies & Le Maheu, 2003:10) on elementary students' perception of portfolio as an assessment tool showed that "students used portfolios to monitor their progress, students made judgments based on physical features, choice was a factor in the portfolio process, and, instructional strategies supported higher order thinking" This ultimately enhances the reflective ability of students since they are able to take their work into critical thought processes.

3.10.3.4 Peer Assessment

Assessment is no longer only the prerogative of the educator. Learners are gradually becoming active participants in the assessment process. In some instances, learners are given the opportunity to assess each other's work. Peer assessment entails learners judging the progress of their fellow learners in a given course/subject. According to Boud

(1986), students can observe their peers throughout the learning process and often have a more detailed knowledge of the work of others than do their teachers.

Marshall and William (2006:19) contend that:

> Peer assessment is one of the main vehicles to promote self-assessment. Seeing how someone else has tackled the same assignment helps pupils reflect on their own performance. For this reason, it is fairly common practice in English and has been one of the main starting points of the English teachers with whom we have worked [in our research project], for adopting formative strategies in their classrooms. They become more systematic, however, and less ad hoc in the way in which they engaged pupils in peer assessment as a means of enhancing its impact.

In peer assessment, after learners have completed a test or assignment, the educator asks learners to exchange their work. The educator can then provide learners with a marking guide or could solve the given task on the board. Learners are then required to award marks to the work of their peers. The educator should essentially moderate the marks awarded in order to ensure reliability of the assessment.

3.10.3.5 Homework

In any educational programme, there is a need to know the extent to which learning outcomes have been or are being achieved. Assessment is a means through which an educator can judge learners' progress in achieving desired learning outcomes. In assessing learners, the educator faces the question as to how best to judge learners' progress. The use of homework is one method that has widely been used in many educational programmes as it gives learners the opportunity to answer questions in the comfort of their homes. Homework has been defined by Cooper (1989) tasks given to students by their teachers that are meant to be done during non-school hours. According to Carr (2013:169) "when utilized properly, homework can be a valuable tool for reinforcing learning that takes place in the classroom". This assertion is true given the fact that when learners are not constrained by a limited stipulated time-frame to do assessments, they are able to reflect on what was taught in the classroom and with the aid of reference materials, this can help them to fully comprehend the day's lesson.

There is extensive debate over the effectiveness of homework in the field of education (Carr, 2013). In a study conducted by Cooper, et al. (2006:1) on the effectiveness of homework, it was found that “generally consistent evidence for a positive influence of homework on achievement”. In another study conducted by Xu (2009:37), it was revealed that “specifically, compared with low-achieving students, high-achieving students reported more frequently working to manage their workspace, budget time, handle distractions, monitor motivation, and control emotion while doing homework”. This brings to the fore the ability of homework to promote a sense of autonomy on the part of learners. To sum up the discussion on the effectiveness of homework in promoting subject-matter comprehension, Carr (2013) asserts that research has demonstrated that homework can be an effective teaching tool for all types of students.

3.11 FEEDBACK IN ADULT LEARNING

It has been noted that the purpose of teaching is to promote effective learning among learners. This means that there must be a mechanism to determine whether learners were able to achieve the desired outcomes, i.e. assessment. After learners have been assessed, there must in turn be a mechanism to provide learners with information about the results of the assessment. This makes feedback crucial to teaching and learning. According to Hattie and Timperley (2007:81), “although it is often mentioned in articles about learning and teaching, surprisingly few recent studies have systematically investigated the meaning of feedback in classrooms.” However, there have been some attempts to define the term. Hattie and Timperley define feedback as “information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one’s performance or understanding”.

In the words of Price, Handley, Millar and O’Donovan (2010:278), feedback

> is a generic term which disguises multiple purposes which are often not explicitly acknowledged. The roles attributed to feedback fall broadly into five, but not entirely delineated discrete, categories: correction, reinforcement, forensic diagnosis, benchmarking and longitudinal development (feed-forward), the latter being differentiated by a temporal dimension of being forward-looking rather than concerned with work already carried out.

In explaining the various categories, Sadler (1989, cited in Price, et al., 2010:278) acknowledges that feedback must include identification of errors or misunderstanding, but highlights the forensic role of feedback, namely diagnosing problems with the work. This means feedback must not only give an indication of students' performance but also seek to fill the gap that was realised during assessment. In order to achieve this, Hattie and Timperley (2007:82) suggest that "it is useful to consider a continuum of instruction and feedback. At one end of the continuum is a clear distinction between providing instruction and providing feedback". In essence, instruction and feedback should be intertwined in such a manner that the latter should be an avenue for the teacher to provide further corrective, constructive and directive information about the given problem to the learner.

According to Hattie and Timperley (2007:86), "the main purpose of feedback is to reduce discrepancies between current understandings and performance and a goal". The idea behind teaching in any educational system is to promote the internalisation of aspects of a culture (contained in a curriculum) by students. As such, assessments are instituted to identify whether or not such a goal has been achieved. Given this situation, feedback should help students to reduce any difficulties that they may have with aspects of the curriculum. Hattie and Timperley (*ibid*.) make the following observation about the relationship between feedback and effective teaching and learning:

> Feedback has no effect in a vacuum; to be powerful in its effect, there must be a learning context to which feedback is addressed. It is but part of the teaching process and is that which happens second – after a student has responded to initial instruction – when information is provided regarding some aspect(s) of the student's task performance. It is most powerful when it addresses faulty interpretations, not a total lack of understanding. Under the latter circumstance, it may even be threatening to a student

Also commenting on the purpose of feedback to student teachers, Akkuzu (2014:38) notes that:

> feedback serves as a door for student teachers to open in order to obtain a variety of data about themselves through their own eyes and through the eyes of others. In essence, feedback involves making the experiences and actions of student teachers visible and comprehensible.

The type of information contained in feedback can either motivate or discourage learners. Rogers (2001:38) had something to say about the impact of feedback on adult learners. According to her:

> giving feedback and criticism, praising and commenting, … are all so important in learning that the topic deserves a whole chapter to itself. Teaching adults is enormously complicated by the difficulty of 'criticising' an equal. Not giving the right quantity or quality of feedback is one of the main reasons why adult learning fails….

It has been noted that adult learners possess unique characteristics (age, experience, socio-cultural background) different from those of child learners. Teachers of adults, therefore, need to take this into account when providing feedback. Rogers (*ibid*.) is of the view that while it is necessary to provide feedback in adult learning, the teacher must be cautious about the content of the feedback. This is because when adults perceive that their adulthood has been compromised in any way their participation in the educational programme may as well be hampered. In order to sidestep this problem, Derrick and Ecclestone (2006:17) suggest the following:

> Feedback should be prompt, encouraging, give clear reasons for success or failure and constructive, practical guidance about how to improve. It should mostly be given privately, at least at first. Feedback should offer facts and descriptions of the performance, not opinions about it. Teachers should not simply give qualitative comments, even if they are positive, and they should resist the temptation to correct the work themselves. Finally, the process of determining what needs to be done next, to build on success or to correct mistakes, should be agreed with the learner. This is partly to ensure that they understand the teacher's advice, not least so that feedback will affect future learning positively

In the same vein, Voerman, Meijer, Korthagen, and Simons (2012) argue that for feedback to be effective, it must ideally be specific. They are of the view that specific feedback make available information about the learning goal with reference to the task, the processing of the task, or self-regulation, while not being overly elaborate. This implies that specific feedback captures the precise corrective information about the task. This way, students are able to fully grasp what was expected of them.

The effectiveness of feedback in promoting learning has received some attention among educational researchers. For instance, Kluger and DeNisi (1996, cited in Voerman, et al., 2012) performed a meta-analysis of 131 studies on feedback, the majority of which were

not classroom-based. The study found that, for the most part, feedback interventions improved performance, but over one-third of feedback interventions decreased performance. To explain this, they state that the effectiveness of feedback interventions decreases if the feedback draws attention closer to the self, and away from the task. On the other hand, Shute (2008, cited in Voerman, et al., 2012) completed a review of approximately 100 articles, conference proceedings, books and book chapters, all centred on feedback. She found that the feedback that is generally effective in enhancing learning is specific but not too elaborate, and is presented in manageable units. Furthermore, effective feedback focuses on the task. Feedback that is not effective in enhancing learning clearly lacks these same characteristics. In agreement with the two review articles previously discussed in this section, Shute described that feedback concerning the "self" and praise seem to be ineffective in enhancing learning.

3.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher discussed the concept of teaching. The discussion on teaching as has been noted was premised on the belief that teaching is one of the ways to promote learning amongst adult learners. The chapter also discussed the approaches to teaching, types of teaching as well as the various teaching styles adopted by the teacher. The crux of the chapter was a review of various teaching methods employed by educators in teaching adult learners. Assessment which forms an integral part of the teaching and learning encounter was also reviewed where selected assessment tools were identified and discussed. Finally, the chapter reviewed literature on feedback as a mechanism for enhancing learning amongst students.

In the next chapter, the researcher explains the empirical procedures employed in conducting the study. The research approach and the philosophical considerations for the adopting the research approach are discussed while an indication of the research design, population, sample size and sampling technique are given. Also the data collection tools and procedures as well as issues of trustworthiness and credibility, ethical considerations and data analysis are discussed in the chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of the various methods employed in teaching adult learners in Ghana and South Africa. With this in mind, Chapter 2 focused on learning in general and adult learning in particular. Various theories on adult learning were reviewed so as to understand how adults effectively learn. Chapter 3 discussed the various approaches and methods employed in facilitating learning amongst adult learners.

This chapter focuses on the empirical process adopted in the conduct of the study. This chapter therefore discusses the research approach, design, population, sample and sampling technique. It further deliberates on the data collection instruments and procedure, reliability and validity of data collection instruments, and method of data analysis.

4.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

In order to understand social phenomena, researchers employ different approaches depending on the nature and purpose of the investigation. Pickard (2007, cited in Lor, 2011:5) echoes a fairly common standpoint that there are two basic methodologies: quantitative and qualitative; and for that matter the choice between these two is the highest level of methodological decision. The main aim of this study was to examine the effectiveness of the methods employed in teaching adult learners in adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa. As a result, the researcher sought to report on the lived experiences of the both adult educators and learners on the effectiveness of the methods employed in the teaching-learning encounter. Therefore, the qualitative research approach was adopted for this study.

Qualitative research refers to an “in-depth study using face-face or observation techniques to collect data from people in their natural settings” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:5). Given (2008:xxix) opines that qualitative research is designed to explore the

human elements of a given topic, where specific methods are used to examine how individuals see and experience the world. The researcher defines qualitative research as an in-depth investigation into a phenomenon whereby the researcher seeks to report on the lived experiences of the research participants. According to Creswell (2007:37):

> Qualitative research begins with assumptions, a worldview, and the possible use of a theoretical lens and the study of research problems inquiring into the meaning individuals or group ascribe to a social or human problem. To study this problem, qualitative researchers use an emerging qualitative approach to inquiry, the collection of data in a nature setting sensitive to the people and places under study, and data analysis that is inductive and establishes patterns or themes. The final written report or presentation includes the voices of participants, the reflectivity of the researcher, and a complex description and interpretation of the problem.

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) note that qualitative research studies investigate the quality of relationships, activities, situations, or materials. They further argue that this type of research differs from quantitative methodologies in that there is a greater emphasis on holistic description – that is, on describing in detail all of what goes on in a particular activity or situation rather than on comparing the effects of a particular treatment (as in experimental research), say, or on describing the attitudes or behaviors of people (as in survey research). Denzin and Lincoln (2005:3) offer an elaborate explanation of qualitative research. According to them:

> Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that makes the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

Qualitative research has some characteristics which differentiate it from other research approaches, i.e. quantitative and mixed methods research. McMillan and Schumacher (2014:345) suggest some prominent characteristics of qualitative research which are discussed below:

1. **Natural setting**: a distinguishing characteristic of qualitative research is that behaviour is studied as it occurs naturally. This means that the qualitative researcher

is interested in studying individuals and phenomena in their natural setting. McMillan and Schumacher (2014:345) contend that “there is no manipulation or control of behaviour or settings, or are there any externally imposed constraints”. Methods are, therefore, employed which enable the researcher to capture the unadulterated human behaviour or events.

2. **Context sensitivity**: it is important to note that human beings are influenced by their environments (natural or artificial). Therefore, qualitative researchers pay particular attention to the context of the phenomena which they study. McMillan and Schumacher (*ibid*.) note that it is assumed that an explanation of behaviour that does not take into account the context is incomplete.
3. **Direct data collection**: data collection represents an important stage in any scientific inquiry. One of the main goals of qualitative research is to report on the lived experiences of the researched. As such there is the need for qualitative researchers to generate rich data in order to understand the research problem. According to McMillan and Schumacher (*ibid*.), in qualitative studies, the researcher usually acts as an observer in the natural setting of the participants, either as an interviewer, observer, or the person who studies artifacts and documents.
4. **Rich narrative descriptions**: in the words of McMillan and Schumacher (2014:346) “qualitative researchers approach a situation with the assumption that nothing is trivial or unimportant. Every detail that is recorded is thought to contribute to a better understanding of behaviour”. The goal of qualitative researchers is to report on the lived experiences of the research participants. They must, therefore, capture live events in the natural setting. In order to make meaning of what has been captured, the researcher gives a detailed account of the behaviour, event, and phenomena of interest. Ideally the researcher must report verbatim on what has been observed.
5. **Process orientation**: according to McMillan and Schumacher (*ibid*.), qualitative researchers are interested in finding out how and why behaviour occurs. In actual fact, they are interested in explaining the process(es) by which a certain behaviour, event, or phenomena occurs. For instance, this study is interested in finding out how effective the various methods employed in teaching adult learners in Ghana and South Africa are. The researcher is, therefore, not interested in documenting the various methods

employed in teaching the learners. Instead the researcher focuses on how adult educators in two selected countries use various teaching methods to promote learning amongst learners and their effectiveness thereof.

6. **Inductive data analysis**: “qualitative researchers do not formulate hypotheses and gather data to prove or disprove them (deduction), rather, the data are gathered first and then synthesized inductively to generate generalisations” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:347). They are more interested in understanding and explaining a phenomenon based on the data generated. In order to accurately explain the phenomenon of interest, qualitative researchers have to piece together a variety of data collected through different instruments for the purpose of generating themes and sub-themes which concern a given issue.
7. **Participant perspectives**: in qualitative research the researcher is interested in reporting on the lived experiences of the participants. Participants’ perspectives which represent how those being studied perceive or experience reality takes centre stage in qualitative research. In the current study, the researcher sought to report on effectiveness of the various methods used in teaching adult learners from the perspective of both learners and educators.
8. **Complex understanding and explanation**: according to McMillan and Schumacher (2014:348), “central to qualitative research is the belief that the world is complex and that there are few simple explanations for human behaviour”. A single behaviour may have different interpretations and explanations. They further contend that it follows, then, that the methods of investigating behaviour and its subsequent explanations need to be complex to capture the true meaning of what is studied.

The characteristics discussed above were taken into consideration before opting to employ the qualitative research approach for this study. This research sought to study the participants in their natural environment i.e. their classroom. The teacher’s behaviour (in this case, teaching) was put under the spotlight. An understanding of the effectiveness of the methods employed by the teacher in promoting learning amongst the learners is premised upon the effect they have on the adult learners (in terms of promoting subject matter comprehension and eliciting the participation of learners in the lesson). Therefore, in order to understand how effective the teachers’ teaching methods are, the researcher

had to select both teachers and learners for the study. The idea behind such a selection was to gain a deeper and varied understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. This means that through the qualitative researcher's lens there is no single explanation for a phenomenon. Certain related and unrelated factors contribute to producing a phenomenon. The research also took into account the effect that the context in which teaching and learning occurs has on the teaching and learning encounter.

With a view to capturing live and authentic events in the field, the researcher did not seek to interfere with activities that took place within the classroom. In addition, the researcher did not have any pre-set ideas about the intended outcomes of the study. As such, this study did not begin with a design in mind. The research design developed as the study progressed through the various phases.

4.3 Philosophical Considerations for Choice of Research Approach

The choice of the qualitative research approach for this study was based on various paradigmatic arguments. According to Bryman (1988:4), a paradigm is "a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done, and how results should be interpreted". Paradigms thus define different views of the social world based upon different meta-theoretical assumptions with regard to the nature of science and society (Pansiri, 2005:192). Paradigms can be considered as philosophical perspectives that guide scholars and researchers in their work. As has been noted by Savin-Baden and Major (2013:18):

> without philosophical underpinning, technique can become an empty process, therefore, understanding the origins of and circumstances under which different philosophies developed can help researchers to ascertain which philosophies are compatible with their own, which in turn can help them to make better research choices and ultimately do better research.

This current study employed the qualitative research approach bearing in mind that the qualitative research approach has distinct underlying philosophies that makes it distinct from other approaches. In order to conduct a successful study, it behooves the researcher to understand the various philosophical arguments that inspire the said approach. The

choice of the qualitative research approach for this study was informed by the interpretive paradigm.

According to Bryman (2012:28), interpretivists share a view that the subject matter of the social sciences – people and their institutions – is fundamentally different from that of the natural sciences. This means that the study of social phenomena should not be done in a manner that depicts the social world as following a set of rules. This is because human beings are not objects and for that matter, do not respond to stimuli mechanically. They are conscious of the environment and make decisions based on mental processes. Therefore, in order to understand social phenomena, there is the need to understand the subjective meaning of human experience. The view of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:21) best describes the role of the researcher in the interpretive paradigm. They assert that:

> To retain the integrity of the phenomena being investigated, efforts are made to get inside the person and to understand from within. The imposition of external form and structure is resisted, since this reflects the viewpoint of the observer as opposed to that of the actor directly involved.

The above assertion brings to the fore the idea that the goal of interpretivism is to understand the meanings people give to objects, events in the environment and human behaviour. It is, however, important to stress that meaning-making is subjective and that different people will make different meanings of a particular social phenomena. This means that meaning-making is not universal but multiple. By multiple meaning-making, the researcher means that reality is informed by individual constructions that are varied and many.

Interpretivism falls under the qualitative research approach and entails an in-depth understanding of social phenomena in order to interpret how the people concerned make meaning of their experiences. This paradigm enabled the researcher to select and use multiple research methods. By multiple research methods, I mean that the qualitative research approach enabled me to select different data collection tools for this study as will be noted in subsequent paragraphs. This view is shared by Denzin and Lincoln (2005) when they assert that qualitative research embodies many things at the same time. It

encompasses different paradigmatic views and hence its practitioners make use of the multi-method approach.

The researcher sought to understand how the participants made meaning of the various teaching methods employed in the teaching and learning encounter in terms of their effectiveness. The researcher was aware of the fact that truth is not objective but subjective, and consequently each participant had his/her own impression of the effectiveness of the various teaching methods. Again, the researcher ensured that the subjective meanings of the participants were adequately reported.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study sought to compare the effectiveness of the various teaching methods employed in teaching adult learners who participate in the National Functional Literacy Programme of Ghana and the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy programme of South Africa. The two programmes constitute two different cases. The study thus adopted the multiple-case study research design. Multiple-case study design is a type of case study that seeks to compare two or more cases. In order to understand the idea behind multiple-case study design, there is the need to understand comparative research since this study essentially seeks to compare the effectiveness of the teaching methods employed by educators in teaching learners in adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa. According to Mills (2008:100):

> Comparative research is a broad term that refers to the evaluation of the similarities, differences, and associations between entities. Entities may be based on many lines such as statements from an interview or individual, symbols, case studies, social groups, geographical or political configurations, and cross-national comparisons. Comparative research is used within most qualitative approaches, such as comparisons by core emic categories in ethnographic studies, within-case comparisons in phenomenology, case study comparisons, comparative politics, and examination of contrasts in narrative and discourse analysis.

Bryman (2012:74) notes that when comparative research is applied to qualitative research, it occurs in the form of a multiple-case study hence the choice of the multiple-case study design for this study. According to Yin (2003, cited in Baxter & Jack, 2008:548)

> a multiple case study enables the researcher to explore differences within and between cases. The multiple-case study is a comparative research design that seeks to understand social phenomena by comparing cases. The goal is to compare findings across cases. Because comparisons will be drawn, it is imperative that the cases are chosen carefully so that the researcher can predict similar results across cases, or predict contrasting results based on a theory.

A distinction is necessary at this point between a single-case study and a multiple-case study. While the former is an approach to research that facilitates exploration of a phenomenon within its context using a variety of data sources, the latter involves studying two or more cases in order to allow the researcher to analyse data within each setting and across settings (Baxter & Jack, 2008:544). In other words, the single-case study offers the researcher the opportunity to study a unique case in-depth. A multiple-case study on the other hand enables the researcher to study different cases in order to understand the differences and similarities between the cases.

Pettigrew and Whipp's (1991) study of eight British companies (cited in Bryman, 2012:75) is a classic example of a multiple-case study. By strategically choosing companies, they were able to establish the common and differentiating factors that lay behind successful management of change. Comparative research has become popular among qualitative researchers perhaps because of its ability to provide a better understanding of social phenomena. Rihoux (2006: 680) speaks of the popularity and the motive behind conducting comparative research:

> …generally speaking the explicitly comparative design is gaining momentum. The choice of such a strategy often reflects the intention of scholars to meet two apparently contradictory goals. On the one hand, one seeks to gather in-depth insight in the different cases and capture the complexity of the cases – to gain intimacy with the cases…. On the other hand, one still wishes to produce some level of generalization…. Indeed, in empirical social science, both case-orientated work and techniques that allow one to generalize (typically quantitative, i.e. statistical, techniques) are useful.

The views of Rihoux suggest that in conducting multiple case studies both qualitative and quantitative data can be elicited. Multiple-case studies can be in the form of cross-societal studies. Ragin (1987:6) opines that "cross-societal similarities and differences... constitute the most significant feature of the social landscape, and, consequently, cross-societal researchers have an unmistakable preference for explanations that cite macro-

social phenomena...” Ragin (*ibid*.:35) commenting on the significance of case study research for the purpose of comparison asserted that:

> The goals of case-oriented investigation often are both historically interpretive and causally analytic. Interpretive work ... attempts to account for significant historical outcomes or sets of comparable outcomes or processes by piecing evidence together in a manner sensitive to historical chronology and offering limited historical generalizations which are sensitive to context. Thus, comparativists who use case-oriented strategies often want to understand or interpret specific cases because of their intrinsic value. Most, but not all, case-oriented work is also causal analytic. This companion goal is to produce limited generalizations concerning the causes of theoretically defined categories of empirical phenomena ... common to a set of cases.

The purpose of this study was to compare the effectiveness of the methods employed in teaching adult learners in the NFLP and the KRG programmes of Ghana and South Africa respectively. Therefore, in line with the view of Ragin (*ibid*.), the researcher opined that by studying the two cases, he would be able to understand the context as well as the motive behind the choice of the various teaching methods. The study areas selected for this study present different socio-economic contexts that have far-reaching implications for education and curriculum. As a result, the research sought to study each case in its own right. Therefore, the multiple-case study design was deemed appropriate for such purpose.

4.4.1 Basis for Selection of Cases

In order to effectively compare different programmes, there is the need to identify parallels between them. The researcher sought to compare the effectiveness of teaching methods employed in the KRG and NFLP programmes of South Africa and Ghana respectively. Therefore, there was need to identify the similarities between the programmes under study. The basis upon which the researcher sought to compare the KRG and NFLP rests on the following factors:

- Both programmes are mass functional literacy and numeracy initiatives aimed at reducing the rate of illiteracy among the populace. The purpose of both programmes is to give participants knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to be functional in their day-to-day activities.

- Both programmes attract huge numbers of participants who desire to enhance their literacy and numeracy skills.
- The participants in both programmes are adults.
- Both programmes rely on the services of volunteer facilitators, coordinators, and supervisors for their effective functioning.
- Both programmes are community-based in that they depend on learners from the various rural and urban communities.
- Both programmes are voluntary and participants (learners) are not compelled by any law to participate in them.
- Learners in both programmes are trained in the respective local languages and in the English language.

On the basis of the above similarities between the two programmes, the researcher was of the view that two programmes can be studied and compared in terms of the effectiveness of the various methods employed in facilitating learning amongst the participants (adult learners).

4.5 POPULATION

This is a comparative study of the effectiveness of methods used in teaching adult learners in adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa. Therefore, the researcher opined that, in order to conduct the empirical investigation successfully, it was necessary to know how both adult educators and learners evaluate the relative effectiveness of the teaching methods. As a result, the population for the study comprised of all adult educators and learners in the NFLP and KRG programmes of Ghana and South Africa respectively. In South Africa, in 2012, there were an estimated 665 134 adult learners and 38 469 volunteer facilitators in the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign (DoBE, 2012).

The NFLP of Ghana operates a batch system where learners are recruited to take part in the programme for a 21-month period. Upon completion, another set of learners are then recruited. In 2012, the programme recruited an estimated 51 257 adult learners and 2 056 facilitators nationwide to constitute Batch 18 (Ministry of Education, 2013:74).

4.6 SAMPLING

In order to conduct an empirical investigation, there is the need to elicit information from research participants. As a result, the researcher needs to select an appropriate sample for the purpose of data collection. Sampling can be defined as the selection of units from within a population. Again, sampling refers to the process of choosing a suitable number of representatives of a population. The sections that follow describe the sample and the technique employed in the process of sampling.

4.6.1 Sample size

Sample refers a part of a population that is selected for a study. In this study, a sample of 152 participants was selected. The sample consisted of 8 volunteer facilitators (educators) and 144 adult learners (participants in the KRG and NFLP). In each country, 4 facilitators and 72 adult learners were selected. Table 4.1 provides the breakdown of the sample.

Table 4.1: Breakdown of the sample selected for the study

Sample selected in the KRG (South Africa)			Sample Selected in the NFLP (Ghana)		
Classes	Number of facilitator(s) selected	Number of adult learners selected	Number of facilitator(s) selected	Number of adult learners selected	
A	1	18	1	18	
B	1	18	1	18	
C	1	18	1	18	
D	1	18	1	18	
Total	4	72	4	72	Total number of Participants = 152

4.6.2 Sampling Technique

The participants for this study were both volunteer facilitators (educators) and learners in the two selected programmes. In order to select a sample that would provide the researcher with the needed information for the study, the purposive sampling technique was employed. Bryman (2012:714) defines purposive sampling as "a form of non-probability sampling in which the researcher aims to sample cases/participants in a strategic way, so those sampled are relevant to the research questions that are being posed". The purpose of using purposive sampling technique is to select a sample that meets the needs of the study. In purposive sampling, "often (but by no means exclusively) a feature of qualitative research, researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:115).

The choice of the study areas, as well as participants for the study was done purposively. It was indicated in Chapter 1 that the researcher has had extensive experience of working with adult learners in the Greater Accra region of Ghana and the Gauteng Province of South Africa. The researcher initially identified 8 classes in both Ghana and South Africa where literacy instruction took place regularly. Upon several visits to those classes, it came to light that some of the classes shared similar characteristics in terms of size. In each country the researcher noted that four classes met the desired class size of 18. The purposive sampling and the eligibility to participate in the study was based on the following criteria:

- Participants should be enrolled on the National Functional Literacy Programme and Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign,
- Participants should be willing to participate in the study,
- Participants should be in a class taught by a particular volunteer facilitator/educator.

4.6.2.1 Sampling in Ghana

In order to arrive at the required sample for the study, the researcher purposively selected four classes where participants (learners) in the NFLP were taught. The basis for such

purposive selection was on the number of learners in the classroom. For the purpose of this study the researcher sought to select classes with a number of 18 learners. Therefore, in Ghana, 4 classes made up of 72 adult learners were selected for the study in Ghana. In each class the adult educator was also purposively selected to participate in the study.

4.6.2.2 Sampling in South Africa

In South Africa, the researcher purposively selected four classes where the promotion of learning amongst participants (learners) in the KRG took place. As in the case of Ghana, the researcher sought to select classes where the number of learners totalled 18. Therefore, in South Africa, 4 classes made up of 72 adult learners were selected for the study. In each class the adult educator was also purposively selected to participate in the study.

4.7 DATA COLLECTION

A basic tenet of social investigation is that information on the topic under investigation be collected from the research participants. Data collection is an essential stage in any research any research endeavour. Data collection provides the researcher with the opportunity to elicit relevant information on the topic under investigation. Data collection can simply be defined as the process of gathering information on a subject of interest. In the conduct of this study, two main data collection issues were considered namely the research instruments and the data collection procedure.

4.7.1 Use of assistants

Due to the nature of this study and the multiplicity of data collection tools, as well as the researcher's lack of familiarity with the local languages of the study sites, there was the need for the researcher to recruit two assistants, one in each country. The research assistants were responsible for aiding the researcher in the collection of data as well as serving as translators during the question and answer sessions in the data collection stage. The research assistants were employed for this study because of their knowledge and skills in the area of research. However, in order to ensure reliability of the data collected by the research assistants, the researcher embarked on series of training

sessions for the assistants in order to help them to understand clearly the problem under investigation as well as the data collection processes.

4.7.2 Research Instruments

This study employed the qualitative research approach. Three main data collection instruments were used to generate data from the participants in the study – interview schedule, focus-group discussion guide and the unstructured observation guide. The choice of the three instruments was informed by the desire of the researcher to elicit the in-depth information on the views and knowledge base of the respondents in order to gain a broader understanding of the problem under investigation.

4.7.1.1 Focus Groups

In this study, the participants were divided into a number of focus groups. Each class made up of 18 learners constituted a group for discussion. Even though this number is relatively high, Morgan (1998, cited in Bryman, 2012:507) recommends the use of large groups when involvement with a topic among participants is likely to be low or when the researcher wants to hear numerous brief suggestions. In support of this view, Seymour (2004:5) has also noted that some state-wide strategic planning initiatives for victim services have conducted focus groups with up to 20 participants.

4.7.1.2 Focus group interviews

Focus group interviews were employed to elicit information from the adult learners. According to Given and Saumure (2008:352) “focus groups are a form of qualitative interviewing that uses a researcher-led group discussion to generate data…the defining element of focus groups is the use of the participants’ discussion as a form of data collection”. McMillan and Schumacher (2014:389) assert that “focus-group interviews are used to obtain a better understanding of a problem or assessment of a problem, concern, new product, programme, or idea”. It was ideal to use focus group discussions in this study in order to elicit rich and diverse information from the adult learners. In this study, there were a total of 8 focus groups, 4 in each country. In each group there were 3 discussion sessions held. In this study, the focus-group discussion guide (Appendix C)

was designed in line with the objectives of the study. The guide was made up of questions which would generate in-depth discussions from the participants.

4.7.1.3 Interview Schedule

As has been noted above interview schedule was one of the instruments adopted for the study. The interview schedule was employed to generate data from the facilitators in both programmes. According to Bryman (2012), an interview schedule is a collection of questions designed to be asked by an interviewer. An interview schedule is always used in a structured or semi-structured interview. An interview schedule is used in structured interviewing where according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:355) the "sequence and wording of the questions are determined by means of a schedule and the interviewer is left little freedom to make modifications". An interview schedule can be employed in studies where the respondents do not have the capacity to answer the questions on their own. In this study, the researcher and the assistants administered the questions to the participants.

The interview schedule was designed in line with the aims of the study under three main sections. The first section of the interview schedule sought to elicit information on the various methods employed in teaching the adult learners. The second section focused on the effectiveness of the various teaching methods with regard to subject-matter matter comprehension and learners' feedback. The third section sought to generate data on the effectiveness of the methods employed in assessing learners. The final section of the instrument looked at the nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to learners after assessment. The interview schedule consisted of both closed and open ended questions (Appendix A). The closed-ended questions were designed to provide respondents the opportunity of selecting answers from available options, whereas the open-ended questions gave the participants the room to adequately express themselves.

4.7.1.4 Unstructured observation guide

The unstructured observation guide was employed as a means of eliciting first-hand information on the topic under study. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:396), "the distinctive feature of observation as a research process is that it offers

an investigator the opportunity to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring social situations. In this way, the researcher can look directly at what is taking place *in situ* rather than relying on second-hand accounts". Observation allows the researcher to report on many aspects of the phenomenon under investigation. Observations (Morrison, 1993, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:397) enable the researcher to elicit information on:

- the physical setting (e.g. the physical environment and its organisation);
- the human setting (e.g. the organisation of people, the characteristics and make-up of the groups or individuals being observed, for instance, gender, class);
- the interactional setting (e.g. the interactions that are taking place, formal, informal, planned, unplanned, verbal, non-verbal); and
- the programme setting (e.g. the resources and their organisation, pedagogic styles, curricula and their organisation).

In order to adequately observe social phenomena, researchers must make ample use of their senses. In addition to the focus-group interview guide, unstructured observation was used to elicit information about the teaching and learning encounter. There was the need for the researcher to corroborate the information gathered from the two other instruments (focus-group discussion guide and interview schedule). The focus of the observation was on the methods used in teaching adult learners, how effective such methods are in terms of subject-matter comprehension and learner participation. In addition, the researcher observed the methods of assessment used and the nature of feedback to the learners in the classroom setting. An observation guide (Appendix B) was designed to prompt the researcher to focus on relevant activities that could help answer the central research question.

4.7.2 Data Collection Procedure

As has been noted, data collection is an essential stage in any research endeavour. The research methods as well as the procedure for data collection encapsulate the entire data collection phase. The research methods have already been discussed in the preceding section. It must be noted that data was collected in two phases and in two different

countries. The researcher needed to be present in both countries, hence the need to conduct data collection sequentially.

4.7.2.1 Gaining entry

Gaining entry into any study area must be done tactfully. This is because negative reaction on the part of the participants to the researcher can adversely affect the study. Therefore, there was the need to create an awareness of the study amongst the study participants. As a result, permission was sought and granted by the principals and educators in each school to conduct the study (Appendix D and E). There was the need to agree on the timeframe for the collection of data in both countries. This is because the researcher did not want to conduct the study at the inconvenience of the participants. In both countries, the researcher suggested a suitable timeframe for data collection to the supervisors and facilitators/educators selected for the study. When an agreement was reached, the researcher had several discussions with the research assistants to ensure standardisation in the data collection process.

4.7.2.2 Administering the interview schedule

The focus-group interview guide was designed to elicit information from the adult learners. The interview schedule was researcher-administered. The researcher was of the view that by explaining each question in the schedule, the participants would be in a better position to answer the questions, hence, the need for the instrument to be researcher-administered.

4.7.2.3 Conducting the observation

The researcher and assistants made several visits to the sites in order to observe as many lessons as possible. Since the researcher did not seek to participate in or interfere with events in the setting, the researcher had to make the participants aware of his and the assistants' presence. The researcher and assistants sat at vantage points in the classrooms in order to be able to adequately observe events. Recording of data was done by writing down points in note books. Note-taking was done in an unobtrusive, discreet manner so that it did not distract the participants from the activities they were engaged in.

On occasion, the researcher and assistants had to leave the classrooms to further to develop the notes in private. The researcher was aware of the need to ensure accuracy of the notes taken; delays between observing and noting were minimised. This is because the longer the delay between observing and noting, the more likely the notes are to be contaminated by the biases and memory distortions of the observer (Schweigert, 1994:53).

4.7.2.4 Issues considered during observation

Observation as a data collection tool depends solely on the senses of the observer. The researcher is the main data collection tool and his demeanour can, therefore, affect the success or otherwise of the process. For this reason, there was the need to consider some issues in conducting the observation.

- Observer effect

The presence of an observer can have a considerable impact on the behaviour of those being observed and, hence, on the outcomes of a study (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012:448). This is true given the fact that subjects have the tendency of either 'over-acting' or 'under-acting' when they know that they are being observed. This effect posed a serious threat to the success of the observation process as well as the entire study since the researcher did not conceal his identity from the participants. To this end, the researcher and assistants had to make several visits in the rooms where teaching took place for a long period in order for the participants to be fully acquainted with them. For each class there were 6 visits made prior to and 6 visits during data collection. By staying much longer in the field, the participants were able to freely and naturally act in given situations. As has been noted by Bernard (2000), by being with them for long periods people may just get tired of trying to manage your impression and they act naturally.

- Observer bias

According to Fraenkel et al. (2012), observer bias refers to the possibility that certain characteristics or ideas of observers may bias what they "see." The various characteristics, prejudices and beliefs of the observer have the tendency to affect what

he/she observes and how he/she makes meaning of such observed data. In this study, the researcher sought to observe the methods employed in the teaching and learning encounter with the intention of examining their effectiveness. Both the researcher and the assistants did not stand to gain in any way from a subjective observation and interpretation of events. With this in mind, the researcher and assistants made sure that their beliefs and prejudices did not affect the objective observation of events. This was done by objectively recording information as something occurred. After each observation, the researcher took some time to read over the notes taken in order to check for subjectivity. When any form of researcher subjectivity was identified in the notes, they were deleted. Only notes that were deemed objective by the researcher were analysed.

4.7.2.3 Conducting the focus group discussion

The learners in each class constituted a group for the discussion of the various questions posed by the study. In this study, each focus group was made up of 20 participants who constituted a class. The focus group interviews were conducted after the researcher had observed events in the classroom. The purpose of the focus group interviews was to seek clarity on some of the events observed in the classroom. Each of the participants was given an opportunity to respond to the various issues/topics to be discussed.

4.8 CREDIBILITY, CONFIRMABILITY AND TRANSFERABILITY

In conducting qualitative research, the researcher is confronted with many methodological issues; paramount among them are the issues of credibility or trustworthiness, confirmability, and transferability. In this section the researcher explains how credibility or trustworthiness, confirmability, and transferability were ensured in the study.

4.8.1 Credibility or Trustworthiness

In qualitative research, researchers are interested in reporting on the lived experiences of research participants from their own interpretations. This means that there must ideally be a synergy between what is expressed by the participants and what is reported by the researcher. The need to ensure such synergy brings the issue of credibility into the domain of qualitative research. According to Jensen (2008:138) “credibility can be defined

as the methodological procedures and sources used to establish a high level of harmony between the participants' expressions and the researcher's interpretations of them". He provides an example of how credibility can be ensured in a study:

> Credibility of the study would be lacking if a focus group of two doctors and two nurses was the only means for the participants to discuss the topic because nurses might not provide open and truthful information in the presence of doctors. In this focus group setting, nurses also would not be able to provide complete information because of the power dynamic that exists between doctors and nurses. Thus, this methodology for collecting the data would have low credibility because it has a very narrow means of illuminating the context under study. The credibility of the study could be enhanced by having a larger focus group, participants, and then providing opportunities for follow-up interviews as necessary.

The researcher ensured credibility through triangulation, prolonged and varied field experience, and member checks.

4.8.2 Triangulation

One way by which the researcher ensured credibility was through triangulation. Triangulation may take several forms, but commonly refers to the employment of multiple data sources, data collection methods, or investigators. In general, the purpose of this would be to reduce the disadvantages inherent in the use of any single source, method or investigator. According to Rothbauer (2008:892):

> Triangulation in qualitative research has come to mean a multimethod approach to data collection and data analysis. The basic idea underpinning the concept of triangulation is that the phenomena under study can be understood best when approached with a variety or a combination of research methods. Triangulation is most commonly used in data collection and analysis techniques, but it also applies to sources of data. It can also be a rationale for multiple investigators in team research.

In this study triangulation occurred at the level of methods employed for data collection. Rothbauer (2006:89) contends that "when designing and conducting research, qualitative investigators frequently combine methods such as interviewing, surveys, and observation across variable times and in different places in order to collect data about their research phenomena from multiple perspectives and in different contexts". In this study, the use of interviews, observations, and focus group discussion enabled the researcher to gain a rich insight into the problem under investigation**.** After the data had been collected, the

researcher had to check for consistency in the data obtained from the various instruments. Triangulation at the level of methods entails the validation of the consistency of data sets from various sources through multiple methods at varying times (Patton 1990). In line with this, the researcher compared the data obtained from the three instruments used in this study at different stages of data collection in order to ensure the consistency in data generated.

4.8.3 Prolonged and varied field experience

Qualitative research data collection requires the researcher to immerse him or herself in the participants' world (Bitsch, 2005, cited in Anney, 2014:276). This means that in order for the researcher to get a good picture of the worldview of the research participants, the former must be actively engaged in the day-to-day activities of the latter. In order to achieve this, the researcher must have a prolonged stay in the field. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007, cited in Anney, 2014:276) state the researcher's extended time in the field improves the trust of the respondents and provides a greater understanding of participants' culture and context. Gaining trust amongst research participants is crucial to the success of the data collection process. Therefore, the researcher had to gain the trust of the participants in this study. This meant that the researcher had to visit the research site on several occasions prior to the commencement of the study in order for the participants to be familiar with him. In this same vein, by visiting the research site on several occasions the researcher was able to observe a wide variety of behaviours and events which helped the researcher to gain a better insight into the problem under investigation.

4.8.4 Member Checks

In any research endeavour, it is important for the researcher to check the authenticity of the information gained from the participants. This can be achieved through cross-checking information gained from the participants. According to Guba (1981:85), member checks mean that "data and interpretations are continuously tested as they are derived from members of various audiences and groups from which data are soli) cited". Member checks are crucial to ensuring credibility in qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985;

Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007; Anney, 2014). In this study, the researcher, after the focus group interviews with the learners and one-on-one interviews with the facilitators, had to read the data collected to the participants for them to confirm or reject aspects of the information collected. This was done immediately after data had been collected from the participants in order to ensure the credibility of the data generated from the participants.

4.8.5 Transferability

Transferability refers to the extent to which the results of qualitative study can be transferred to other contexts with other participants – in quantitative research it is equivalent to generalisability (Bitsch, 2005; Tobin and Begley, 2004; Anney, 2014). Jensen (2007:886) also notes that "transferability implies that the results of the research can be transferred to other contexts and situations beyond the scope of the study context". According to Jensen (*ibid*.):

> To increase transferability, qualitative researchers should focus on two key considerations: (a) how closely the participants are linked to the context being studied, and (b) the contextual boundaries of the findings. In the first consideration, the participants need to be relevant members of the community related to the study. If a study was about the impact of cultural capital and employment opportunities among new immigrants and only Chinese and Pakistani participants were selected, it would lack transferability because the original context is not being accurately measured. The other consideration is concern about providing a complete understanding of the context being studied and ensuring that the research questions are appropriately answered. It is from here that readers can explore the research document and determine if the findings can be transferred to their setting or environment.

The first suggestion from Jensen seems to imply that in order to promote transferability of a study's findings, the researcher must ensure that the sample selected for the study are those members of the population who are closely linked to the phenomenon under study. This means that a purposive sample should be selected to participate in the study. The second suggestion presupposes that in order to increase the transferability of a study, thick descriptions should be employed where the researcher provides an in-depth account of the phenomenon under investigation. In line with these suggestions, this study employed the purposive sampling technique to select participants who were closely linked

to the phenomenon under investigation and possessed the relevant information necessary to understand the research problem.

Again, the researcher provided a “thick description” of the phenomenon under study in order to enable a better understanding of the research problem. This was done by providing an in-depth account of the views of the participants. According to Li (2004, cited in Anney, 2014:305), thick description “enables judgments about how well the research context fits other contexts, thick descriptive data, i.e. a rich and extensive set of details concerning methodology and context, should be included in the research report”. Shenton (2004, cited in Anney, 2014:305) argues that “without this insight [thick description], it is difficult for the reader of the final account to determine the extent to which the overall findings ‘ring true’”.

4.8.6 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results of an inquiry could be confirmed or corroborated by other researchers (Baxter & Eyles, 1997, cited in Anney, 2014). Jensen (2007:112) provides a detailed explanation of confirmability in qualitative research, as follows:

> In qualitative research, the actions and perceptions of participants are analyzed for their expressions of meaning within a given context. Consistent with the practices of the selected qualitative methodology used, the researcher then interprets the participant expressions through a coding or meaning-making process. In this coding process, the researcher is looking for messages that are consistent with, confirm, or expand on current knowledge and theory. From these insights, the researcher is then able to make statements about the context under study. In so doing, additional processes must be incorporated into the research design that verifies the truthfulness or meaning being asserted in the study. This is called confirmability.

Tobin and Begley (2004:392) state that confirmability is “concerned with establishing that data and interpretations of the findings are not figments of the inquirer’s imagination, but are clearly derived from the data”. Jensen argues that confirmability is an accurate means through which to verify the two basic goals of qualitative research: (1) to understand a phenomenon from the perspective of the research participants and (2) to understand the meanings people give to their experiences. It is therefore concerned with “providing

evidence that the researcher's interpretations of participants' constructions are rooted in the participants' constructions and also that data analysis and the resulting findings and conclusions can be verified as reflective of and grounded in the participants' perceptions" (Jensen, 2007:112). An independent reviewer (one of my supervisors) was selected to verify the research process and interpretations of the data as consistent on both the literature and methodological levels (Jensen, 2014). The independent reviewer's comments were then incorporated into the final report.

4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Social researchers often seek to understand social phenomena by gathering information from research participants. The conduct of social research requires that data be collected from participants in the most humanely and fair manner possible. This means that researchers must take into account ethical considerations regarding the subjects of the study and handling of data collected. According to Frankel, Wallen and Hyun (2012:61), the term ethics refers to questions of right and wrong. Bryman (2012:130) notes that discussions about the ethics of research bring us into a realm in which the role of values in the research process becomes a topic of concern and revolve around such issues as:

- How should we treat the people on whom we conduct research?
- Are there activities in which we should or should not engage in our relations with them?

With these questions in mind the researcher took into account the ethical considerations which are discussed below.

4.9.1 Protecting participants from harm

The successful completion of an empirical investigation depends to a large extent on the ability of respondents to provide the researcher with the needed information. In order to achieve this, the respondents must feel safe and be in their right frame of mind to respond to the questions. However, sometimes certain research procedures place the respondents in harm's way which ultimately affects the success of the study. According to Frankel, Wallen, and Hyun (2012:63)

> it is a fundamental responsibility of every researcher to do all in his or her power to ensure that participants in a research study are protected from physical or psychological harm, discomfort, or danger that may arise due to research procedures. This is perhaps the most important ethical decision of all.

It therefore behooves the researcher to provide information on the nature of the research and the possible dangers to be encountered by the participants. Even though this research did not pose any harm to the wellbeing of the participants, the researcher thought it wise to inform the respondents about the nature of the research. The respondents were assured of their safety throughout the data collection process.

4.9.2 Informed Consent

This research involved the use of multiple research instruments to elicit data from the respondents. Both adult educators and learners were selected to participate in the study. Therefore, in order to ensure that participants were fully aware of the nature of the research, the researcher sought the informed consent of the respondents (Appendix E). Bryman (2012:138) asserts that "the principle of informed consent means that prospective research participants should be given as much information as might be needed to make an informed decision about whether or not they wish to participate in a study". In order to seek the informed consent of the participants, the researcher sent letters to the management of the various Adult Education centres seeking permission for the study to be conducted (Appendix D). The management in these centres included the principal or manager and the educators. Letters of consent to conduct the research are attached in Appendix F and G.

The informed consent letter sent to the management, facilitators and learners comprised of information pertaining to the purpose of the study (Appendix E). Such informed consent gave the participants the opportunity to decide whether or not to participate in the study. The informed consent form also indicated the rights of the participants. The research assistants also read out to the participants who could not adequately read English the content of the informed consent form in the language in which they understood.

4.9.3 Right to Privacy

First and foremost, participants were informed about their right to privacy. Right to privacy means that a participant is free to decide on the timing and place that he/she avails him or herself to participate in a study. This means that a researcher must desist from unauthorised incursion on the privacy of the participants. In order to respect the privacy of the participants the researcher ensured that only times that were mutually agreed upon for data collection were honoured.

4.9.4 Right to Freedom of Choice and Expression

In order to elicit the most honest responses from the participants, there was the need to ensure that the researcher did not interfere with the choices and opinions of the respondents. Again, this study entailed the researcher observing the teaching and learning encounter whereby both teachers and learners interacted freely. To this end, there was the need to ensure the researcher did not interfere with the teaching and learning encounter in the classroom. Therefore, the researcher ensured participants' right to freedom of choice and expression. The researcher desisted from asking leading questions and whenever the researcher suspected that the participants were uncomfortable due to the line of questioning, the researcher halted the session, apologised to the participants, and rescheduled the meeting.

4.9.5 Confidentiality

Confidentiality is a very important ethical issue to be considered when conducting research. Confidentiality entails assuring participants about the safety of their responses. As has been noted by Frankel, et al. (2012:64), "once the data in a study have been collected, researchers should make sure that no one else (other than perhaps a few key research assistants) has access to the data". In this study, the researcher made it explicitly clear to the participants in the informed consent form that their responses would be kept secret from any third party except those directly involved in the study, i.e. the researcher and the assistants.

4.9.6 Anonymity

Another ethical consideration that was taken into account was the protection of the anonymity of the participants. The right to anonymity was guaranteed so as not to reveal the identities of the participants which might have negatively affected them. Taking this into account, the research instruments were designed in a manner that did not reveal the identities of the participants.

4.10 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Qualitative data analysis involves organising, accounting for and explaining the data; in short, making sense of data in terms of the participants' definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities (Cohen, et al., 2007:461). The data collection stage of the study was conducted in two phases i.e. collection of data from Ghana and South Africa. Both phase 1 and 2 consisted of eliciting data from the participants with three different data collection tools, i.e. interview schedule, unstructured observation guide, focus-group discussion guide. In order to present the results of the study in a logical and meaningful manner, there was a need to analyse the data obtained from each of the instruments separately. According to Shamoo and Resnik (2003), various analytical procedures offer the researcher a way of drawing inductive inferences from data and separating salient information from the unimportant information present in the data. Data analysis can therefore be defined as the systematic process of organising, editing, reducing, illustrating, presenting and describing data in a statistical or logical manner for ease of understanding. This section discusses how the data obtained from the field were analysed.

4.10.1 Interviews

Thematic analysis was employed to analyse the data. According to Ayres (2008:867),

> thematic analysis is a data reduction and analysis strategy by which qualitative data are segmented, categorized, summarized, and reconstructed in a way that captures the important concepts within the data set. Thematic analysis is primarily a descriptive strategy that facilitates the search for patterns of experience within a qualitative data set; the product of a thematic analysis is a description of those patterns and the overarching design that unites them.

In using thematic analysis, the researcher had to code the data. In the words of Ayres (*ibid*.) “coding facilitates the development of themes, and the development of themes facilitates coding”. In this study data that were generated in the field were then grouped under the various themes that emerged from the coding process.

4.10.2 Unstructured Observations

The first stage of the data collection process entailed the direct observation of the various events that took place during the teaching and learning encounter with particular emphasis on the effectiveness of the various teaching methods employed. During the observation, the researcher looked for patterns in order to build a picture of the phenomenon under study. As has been noted earlier, observations were done by making notes. In order to report on the various events in the classroom pertaining to the problem under investigation, the researcher employed the descriptive narrative method to analyse the observed data. It must be noted that “qualitative data analysis ideally occurs concurrently with data collection so that investigators can generate an emerging understanding about research questions, which in turn informs both the sampling and the questions being asked” (Dicicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006:317). The analysis of observed data was done in the following manner:

- The field notes were coded. The coding of the notes served to condense the volume of notes to a manageable size;
- The notes were then organised into themes and sub-themes in line with the stated objectives;
- Narratives based on the actual events taking place in the classes were reported under the various themes and sub-themes.

4.10.3 Focus-Group Interviews

Data emanating from audio recordings was transcribed. The researcher then edited the transcripts to remove inconsistencies. Thematic analysis was then employed to analyse the data. In order to successfully analyse the data, the researcher grouped information under themes and sub-themes. The generation of the various themes was based on coding. Coding enabled the researcher to categorise the data emanating from the field.

The researcher then grouped information under its respective themes and sub-themes. Where necessary the researcher gave verbatim accounts of information provided by participants.

4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the methods employed in conducting the empirical investigation. The research approach adopted for this study and its philosophical underpinnings were discussed. A discussion of the research design and the framework within which it was employed is captured in the chapter. An indication of the population, sample and sampling technique was also given in the chapter. The chapter also covered the data collection instruments and procedure, validity and reliability of data collection instrument. The ethical considerations made in the conduct of the study and the method of data analysis were discussed in the chapter. In the next chapter, the researcher presents the results of the study as emanating from the field.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This study sought to examine the various methods employed in facilitating learning amongst adult learners in the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign of South Africa and the National Functional Literacy Programme of Ghana. The first chapter provided an orientation to the study. Chapters 2 and 3 were devoted to reviewing related literature on the topic under investigation. In the previous chapter, the researcher elucidated the methods employed in conducting the empirical investigation on the problem under investigation. The research approach, design, sampling method, as well as data collection techniques were explained. Three data collection instruments were employed to generate data from the research participants in Ghana and South Africa. This chapter therefore presents the results obtained from the empirical study.

In order to ensure coherence in data presentation, this chapter is divided into 2 main sections. The first section presents analysed data elicited from participants in South Africa while the second section is dedicated to presentation of results emanating from the empirical investigation in Ghana. In each section, results were organised under the data collection procedure which generated the data i.e. unstructured observation, interview schedule, and focus-group discussion. The presentation of results under each of the sections was informed by the research aims.

5.2 RESULTS OF THE STUDY OBTAINED FROM PARTICIPANTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

This section presents the results of the study elicited from the research participants in South Africa. It has been noted from the previous chapter that both educators and adult learners were sampled to serve as participants for the study in South Africa. In order to generate the needed information to complete the study, the researcher had to employ three data collection tools (interview schedule, unstructured observation guide, and focus-group discussion guide) to generate information from the participants in South Africa. The data elicited from the participants through the unstructured observation guide are presented first, followed by those obtained through the interviews. The final part of this

section is devoted to the presentation of analysed data derived from the focus-group interviews.

5.2.1 Results Obtained from the Unstructured Observations

This section is dedicated to the presentation of results obtained from the research participants through the unstructured observation guide. It has been noted that the researcher purposively selected four classes made up of 18 learners each for the study. The presentation of results in this section was done in respect of the observations made by the researcher in each of the four classes (labelled class A-D). In order to effectively observe events in the classroom, the researcher had to make several visits to each of the classes. In each of the classes, the facilitator welcomed the researcher to the class and introduced him to the learners. The researcher then proceeded to explain the purpose of his visit to the class after which consent was sought from both the facilitator and the learners. Learners and the volunteer facilitators/educators were then requested to voluntarily sign the consent forms. There were six visits to each of the four classes. In each of the six visits, the researcher arrived at the classes at different prearranged times while lessons were yet to begin.

5.2.1.1 Description of Classrooms

The classrooms visited exhibited different characteristics. The first class (Class A) visited was in an Early Childhood Development Centre. One of the rooms had been turned into a makeshift classroom for the adult learners. The room with its furniture resembled a boardroom. Learners sat in a rectangular fashion while the educator stood at vantage positions during lessons in order to be easily seen by the learners. The second class (Class B) visited was housed on the premises of a church. Here, there were five large car seats which were used as seating for the learners. The seats were arranged in an oval fashion with no tables for learners to write on. In the third class (Class C), teaching and learning took place in a Skills Development Centre. A classroom with tables and chairs had been made available for use by learners. In that classroom, there were some posters mounted on the walls. The classroom was a bit small but had enough chairs to accommodate the learners. The last class (Class D) visited by the researcher was the

garage of the educator. This room was quite big and had enough space for learners to sit. There were a few posters which had been hung on the wall. In all the classes visited the researcher observed that the number of females outweighed that of males. Flip charts were used in all the classes as a replacement for blackboards.

5.2.1.2 Methods of teaching employed in the lessons

In each of the four classes visited, the educator stood in front of the class and provided information to the learners. Teaching was, however, interspersed with questioning. Questioning was mainly from educator to learners. An instance can be cited:

In Class A, during a lesson on “how to sign”, the educator employed illustration as the method of instruction. She first of all signed her name on the board and explained that while some people sign with their names, others simply scribbled a sign as their formal signatures. She then asked each learner to come to the front and write their signatures on the board. This brought a lot of fun to the classroom as many learners were signing for the first time. The educator entreated learners to make sure that their individual signatures were uniform on all documents where there was a need for a signature.

A similar method was employed in all other classes visited. In all the classes visited, demonstration constituted another method employed by facilitators to promote learning amongst their learners.

For instance, in Class D, during a lesson on numeracy, the main method employed by the educator was demonstration. In that lesson, the educator used “marbles” and the “number line” to demonstrate to do additions and subtractions. While the facilitator did the demonstrations, the learners circled around the educator in order to fully observe the event. The demonstration was accompanied occasionally by questioning mainly from the facilitator. Learners were then asked to individually demonstrate how to compute certain equations.

In the absence of marbles, the educator in Class B also used a number of apples and oranges to demonstrate how to do simple addition and subtraction. After she had done the demonstration, each learner was then asked to add and subtract some figures using

the oranges and apples. The researcher observed that learners were eager to complete the given task.

One other teaching method which was employed by the educators during observation period was discussion. A lesson on the topic HIV/AIDS in Class C can be used as a case in point.

After introducing the topic of the lesson (HIV/AIDS), the educator gave a brief description of the topic after which learners gave their varying understanding of HIV/AIDS. Each learner had the opportunity to ask his/her colleague a question which spurred further discussion. There was maximum interaction amongst the learners during this discussion. The educator served as a guide in the process only interrupting the discussion to provide further information where necessary.

From the foregoing, it can be said that demonstration which promoted practical application and discussion were the main methods employed by the facilitators in the classes visited to promote learning among the adult learners.

5.2.2 Effectiveness of the Teaching Methods

In this section, the focus of the observation was to assess how best the methods employed in teaching the learners facilitated subject-matter comprehension and learners' participation in the lessons. The section is divided into two sub-sections. The first sub-section deals with the effectiveness of the teaching methods with regard to promoting learners' understanding of the subject-matter, while the second sub-section presents results on the effectiveness of the teaching methods in promoting the participation of learners in the class activities.

5.2.2.1 Subject-Matter Comprehension

In each of the classes visited, the researcher observed that learners had a very good understanding of the various topics taught. For instance, in Class A, the subject-matter was how to sign. The researcher deduced that the method (demonstration) adopted by the facilitator in this lesson proved to be highly effective as each learner was able to construct a signature. When the educator asked the learners to volunteer to come up to

the flip chart to practice their individual signatures, all the learners were able to effectively complete the task. In other classes visited, where educators taught numeracy to the learners, it was observed that, when the demonstration method was used, learning was made practical and enhanced the motivation of learners. It was observed that the learners in those classes volunteered to come up to the board to demonstrate how to compute figures.

In terms of the discussion method, the researcher observed that learners' comprehension of the subject-matter was very high given the fact that each learner could easily express him or herself in the discussions. In the classes where discussion was employed, the researcher observed that, after class discussions, learners were able to answer a range of questions from their facilitators.

5.2.2.2 Learner participation

In terms of the participation of learners in the lesson, the researcher observed that the methods employed by the educators encouraged learner participation in the classroom. In all the classes visited, learners were actively involved in the lesson. In those classes, it became apparent that the environment was less formal which made it possible for all learners to freely contribute questions and answers to the lesson. The educators posed several questions to the learners and, in turn, allowed questions from them which enabled learners to become active participants in the teaching and learning encounter.

For instance, in the discussion sessions in the classrooms, the researcher observed that class participation in the lesson was very high. The question and answer approach employed by the educator enabled learners to fully participate in the lesson. For example, in a lesson on HIV/AIDS, the educator gave room for learners to fully express their views on the topic. This situation encouraged immense reflection on the topic on the part of learners where the facilitator asked the learners several probing questions. Many of the learners shared their practical experiences on the topic. Using the case of a family member, one of the learners cautioned fellow learners about the lifestyles that persons living with HIV/AIDS should live once they have been diagnosed of the disease. She intimated that her family member continued to live a 'carefree' life even though she knew

she had the disease which adversely affected her health. While she told the story, many of the learners made some verbal expressions like ‘hmm’ and ‘eish’.

In the preceding sections, it came to light that another method employed by educators to promote learning was demonstration. With regard to demonstration, the researcher observed that the method promoted the active participation of learners in the lesson. Learners were able to ask questions where they misunderstood the topic and the educators were at hand to help learners address such shortfalls.

5.2.3 Methods of Assessment Employed

Assessment in the classes visited was an on-going activity which took place on a daily basis. It was observed that the main assessment tool employed in all classes visited was the portfolio. Learners were required as part of the programme to develop a portfolio of evidence known as Learner Assessment Portfolios (LAPs). The portfolio contains a sequence of exercises/tests on literacy and numeracy which encompass the entire learning experience. The learner is expected to complete each of the tasks at the appropriate time as evidence of the learner’s development and competence over time. Apart from the use of portfolios in assessment, the researcher observed that learner assessment was not divorced from teaching and learning in that it formed part of each stage of the teaching and learning encounter. From time to time during teaching, the educators asked several questions which were answered by the learners. In each class, the researcher observed that learners did not answer the same set of questions; instead different questions were posed to each learner. The use of oral questions was another tool employed by the educators in assessing learners’ progress. In addition, learners were required to complete some given tasks in their workbooks. This was done in two ways. Sometimes while in class the educators would ask learners to open to specific pages in their workbooks and solve the tasks given, while on other occasions, certain tasks were given to learners as homework. In both instances the answered assignments were marked by the facilitators.

5.2.3.1 Effectiveness of the assessment method(s)

The assessment methods employed the facilitators to a large extent enabled the educators to judge learners' comprehension of the subject-matter. In the case of the portfolio, it was observed that learners were able to track their own progress and also able to reflect on their performance from time to time. The educators were always present to help learners in the building of the portfolios. In the case of the oral questioning which was also employed, it can be said that it helped both the educators and learners to make a judgment on the latter's performance. Whenever oral questioning was employed in assessing learners' progress, the educators were able to determine whether or not learners had understood the content of the subject taught. It also served as a tool for learners to reflect on their understanding of the subject-matter. When learners were given assignments to be done at home, the researcher observed that it gave learners time to solve the tasks given. Learners spent more time answering the various questions which were contained in the assignment. Furthermore, they were able to refer to what they had been taught while doing the assignment and this helped them to fully comprehend the topic which they had been taught.

5.2.4 Nature and Effectiveness of Feedback Provided

It was observed that feedback represented an important aspect of the entire teaching and learning encounter in all four classes. Feedback was immediate in that there was no gap between assessment and feedback and the feedback was both verbal and written. When assessment took the form of written exercises, the educators made some corrections on the answers provided by the learners. This served as a way of providing feedback on the learners' work. In instances where the learners were asked to respond orally to questions from the facilitators, the researcher observed that the use of praise was employed to signify correct answers from learners. For instance, in one class the educator used words such as very good, excellent, or clap for him/her to show learners that they were right in their answers. In instances, where the learners were wrong in their answers, facilitators used asked learners to think carefully about their responses. This to a large extent served as a reflective tool for the learners. On other occasions, when learners were asked to

come up to the board to answer questions, it was observed that the educators would intervene to correct learners whenever learners got the answers wrong.

The nature of feedback adopted by the educators helped the learners to identify the gaps in the learning. The immediacy of feedback helped learners to easily connect the comments made by the facilitators to the mistake they had made. Again, the researcher observed that, after providing the feedback, some of the educators reassessed the learners with similar questions to the previous ones. It was observed that on the second assessment, the learners did not repeat the mistakes they had earlier made.

5.3 RESULTS OBTAINED FROM THE INTERVIEWS

In order to examine the effectiveness of the various teaching methods used by the educators in teaching adult learners in the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign of South Africa, the researcher interviewed the volunteer educators involved in the programme to elicit information from them. The questions posed in the interview schedule were designed in line with the research aims. Results are presented under the following sub-headings:

- Methods employed in teaching adult learners
- Effectiveness of the teaching methods
- Effectiveness of methods of assessment employed in judging learners' progress
- Nature and effectiveness of the feedback provided to learners after assessment

5.3.1 Methods Employed in Teaching Adult Learners

The researcher was interested in finding out the various methods employed by educators to facilitate learning amongst their adult learners. A question was therefore posed for the educators to indicate the methods that they employed in teaching adult learners. One of the educators stated that:

> *When teaching adult learners, they have to be proactive because with most of the learners they have to start from scratch. This is because most of the learners are new to writing so we normally have to show them step-by-step how to write*.

Another educator shared a similar sentiment as follows:

The other thing is with Kha Ri gude learners, because [for] some of them it is for the first time in their lives to write we also have maybe if it comes to writing you also have to point just take them as young learners. Maybe if the name is Portia you can write the name with dots so they can connect so that they know how to write their names.

Another educator added:

Sometimes we bring some fruit, for example oranges, to the classroom and then we will cut the oranges to show them how to do fractions.

The views shared by the educators imply that demonstration is one of the methods employed in facilitating learning amongst learners. Other educators expressed other views. For instance, one of the educators mentioned that:

At times we have to allow them to take the lead. For our learners sometimes we discuss different topics for example the budget and HIV/AIDS. So we ask for their views on the topic and all the learners in the class will discuss.

Another educator shared her experience as follows:

Sometimes we give learners the chance to do discussions when we teach them some topics. You will be surprised how well they know certain topics like HIV/AIDS. They tell us that they know more than us.

The views expressed shows that discussion was also employed in teaching adult learners in the classes visited.

5.3.2 Effectiveness of the Teaching Methods Employed

The researcher defined effective teaching methods as those that promoted subject matter comprehension and learner participation in the lesson. Therefore, in this section the researcher was interested in finding out how the various teaching methods employed by the educators promoted both subject-matter comprehension and learner participation.

5.3.2.1 Subject-matter comprehension

Subject-matter comprehension which is seen by the researcher as a criterion for assessing effectiveness of teaching methods is seen as the ability to fully understand a given subject. As has been noted in the previous chapter, the researcher opines that the teaching method employed plays a significant role in promoting subject-matter

comprehension in learners. To this end, the researcher asked the participants to indicate how effective the methods they employed in teaching adult learners were in promoting learners' subject-matter comprehension. The researcher focused on each of methods indicated by the educators.

For instance, when quizzed about the discussion method, one of the educators intimated that:

> *When learners discuss the topic in the class, it helps them to fully understand the subject because they hear different views from the colleagues on the topic.*

Another educator added that:

> *The learners have good information when it comes to some of the topics. So when they discuss, they share many ideas and I think they are able to understand many things.*

In terms of demonstration, one of the educators noted that:

> *Demonstration helps me to show step-by-step how to do some additions and subtractions…learners are able to easily understand the numeracy.*

Another educator was of the view that:

> *Most of the learners, you can tell that it's for the first time they are writing so we show them to how to hold the pen and to move the pen. Now many of them can write. I think the way we teach them is working.*

Still on demonstration, another educator intimated that:

> *Most of my learners can sign their names now which they couldn't do when they started. To me the way we teach them is good.*

The views of the participants (facilitators) seem to suggest that the demonstration and discussion methods are effective in promoting the learners' understanding of the subject-matter.

5.3.2.2 Learners' participation in the lesson

Participation of learners in a lesson is crucial to meeting the learning outcomes. This is because learner participation enables the educator to know the extent to which knowledge or skills have been internalised. In the context of this study, the researcher

sought to determine how the various methods used in teaching adult learners promoted their participation in the lesson. The researcher, therefore, asked the educators to indicate how the methods they employed in teaching their learners promoted their participation in lessons.

In the interviews, it came to light that the educators deemed both the demonstration and discussion methods as effective in encouraging the adult learners to fully participate in class activities. For instance, when quizzed about the effectiveness of the demonstration method in soliciting learners' participation in lessons, one of the educators had this to say:

> *I am able to show the learners how they do certain things. I always tell my learners to ask questions when they do not understand. I ask them questions while I teach and they also ask me questions.*

Another educator also said that:

> *When I teach my learners how to do certain things in the classroom, I see that they pay attention to what I am doing. They ask me many questions where they don't understand.*

This view was shared by another educator:

> *My learners participate when I am teaching because after I have shown them how to do things like calculation, I will ask them to come and show us how they can also do other calculations.*

These views seem to suggest that learners' participation was encouraged when the demonstration method was employed in teaching the adult learners.

The researcher was also interested in finding out about the effectiveness of the discussion method in promoting learners' participation in lessons since it was also employed in teaching the adult learners. All the educators were full of praise for discussion as a method of teaching. A facilitator had this to say:

> *When we do discussions it gives all learners the opportunity to express themselves. All learners are given an opportunity to talk.*

This view was reechoed by another educator:

> *Like I said before when I teach a topic like HIV/AIDS, the learners would tell me that I am too young to teach them about the topic. So you see they will all share*

their ideas on the topic. I just stand aside and ask some questions when I see the need.

The results of the study on the effectiveness of the various teaching methods employed by the facilitators in promoting learners' participation reveal that the discussion and demonstration methods were judged by the educators to be effective in promoting the involvement of learners in lessons.

5.3.3 Effectiveness of Assessment Methods Employed in Judging Learners' Progress

In this section, the researcher sought to find out how effective the assessment methods employed in teaching and learning encounter were. In order to achieve this aim, the researcher began by asking the educators to indicate the method(s) they employed in assessing learner progress. All four educators indicated that they used portfolios to assess learners' progress. One educator specifically commented that:

We have portfolios because there are no exams. Whichever activity they do there is an exercise for them (learners) to do. So sometimes we do class exercises and at times give them homework to do.

Another educator had something else to add:

We also do remedial work with the learners so that they can see how they are improving because sometimes these learners you find that we are doing three different learning areas, 'neh'. So like with the language (literacy) that is where the problem is unlike numeracy. So often we have to ask them to keep doing the same exercises until they get it right.

From the foregoing, it can be deduced that portfolio, homework, and class exercises were the main methods employed in assessing the learners. In order to know the effectiveness of the assessment methods, the researcher asked the educators to indicate whether or not the method(s) they employed in judging learners' performance helped in identifying areas where learners needed redress. All four educators answered in the affirmative. When asked to explain the reason(s) for their answer(s) the educators had different things to say. For instance, one of the educators indicated that:

The portfolio helps me to know how well the learners are improving. There are different exercises for them to do and so I am able to know how well they are doing in the learning areas.

Another educator added that:

Learners do many remedial works in their portfolio from time to time so it helps them to understand what we have been teaching them.

Another educator was of the view that:

We sometimes give them exercises to do at home. I think it helps them to refer to what they have been taught so that they can get the answers right.

Commenting on the effectiveness of class exercises in her lessons, one of the educators shared her experiences as follows:

Sometimes I we do some class exercises where I give the learners some activities to do. Sometimes I pair them so that the fast learners would help the slow ones. This helps them to share ideas on the topic.

Another educator gave a similar account:

When we do class exercises, … I am able to know where my learners are confused so that I can help them to understand.

The results of the study on the effectiveness of the assessment methods employed in judging learners' progress reveal that the educators employed portfolio, class exercises, and homework in judging the performance of their learners. All the educators were of the view that the method(s) they employed in assessing their learners were very effective in identifying gaps in learners' learning.

5.3.4 Nature and Effectiveness of Feedback Provided after Assessment

The nature of feedback was a topic of interest to the researcher during the interview. The researcher asked the educators to describe how they provided feedback to their learners. All four participants indicated that they provided both verbal and written feedback on learners' work. They also maintained that feedback was immediate and provided in constructive manner. One of the educator had this to say:

What we normally do in our classes we just take the learner to the side and just show the learner where he/she made a mistake. It is something private because if

it is something that we gonna do in the whole class some of the learners will not feel comfortable. In the class the other thing we have noticed is that they (learners) are not on the same level so as a teacher this is where you have to be creative and know that these are my fast learners you see. Sometimes you find that in the same lesson but we will be doing different activities whereby you just measure the level of your learners and know these ones are maybe ready to write and those who are not ready we give them another activity but similar to the other one.

Another educator said that:

What I normally do if the learner is wrong in order for me not to discourage the learner, 'neh' I will say even the answer is correct but not the exact answer I wanted.

A similar view was shared by another educator:

Even when the answer is wrong, I ask the learner whether he/she is sure and that he/she should look at it again or I ask the whole class to look at it again and ultimately the learner will come up with the right answer.

The researcher then inquired from the participants to provide some examples of feedback they provided to the learners. In response to the question, one of the educators said that:

I always praise my learners so as to encourage them.

Commenting on the nature of feedback when learners do written work, one educator noted that:

We make corrections in their workbooks so that they can see the correct answer.

Another educator added that:

Sometimes in a sentence if there is a wrong word there, we just maybe correct and write the right spelling. Sometimes they (learners) should write a 'p' but the learner writes a 'q' so we just write the correct word.

One other educator said that:

I also do home visits for those who I think are slow learners. I do follow-ups at home. I think some of them are shy because he saw that this other learner is proactive and he/she is not.

On a different note another educator intimated that:

I think firstly we have to be sensitive to the learners so we don't do or say thing that will dampen their spirit.

When asked about the effectiveness of the feedback provided to the learners, one of the educators was of the view that:

Most of the time the learners do not repeat the same mistakes they have made because we go back and repeat time and again because sometimes I ask them to come early to the class or stay behind.

Another educator noted that:

Remember the other thing is that before we do the portfolio there remember every learner in the class must be competent so by the time we do the portfolios they are ready to do that.

Still on the same topic, another educator commented that:

Feedback helps learners to know where they went wrong and also helps them to know how to correct their mistakes in the future.

Finally, on feedback, another educator also had this to say:

When I provide feedback to my learners, I use words that motivate them to learn harder… To me my feedback motivates the learners.

The results of the study on the nature and effectiveness of feedback provided after assessment reveal that the volunteer educators provided both verbal and written feedback which helped to correct aspects of learners' work where they made mistakes. Also the feedback provided was immediate and constructive in nature. In the view of the educators, the feedback provided to learners enabled them to address the various gaps in learners' learning.

5.4 RESULTS OBTAINED FROM THE FOCUS-GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE

In this section, the researcher presents the results of the study generated from the learners in the KRG through focus-group discussion guide. The guide was composed of various issues to be discussed on the topic under investigation. In all there were four focus-group discussions carried out with the learners in the KRG. The presentation of the results generated from the focus group-discussions is done in line with the stated objectives.

5.4.1 Methods employed in Teaching Adult Learners

Here the researcher sought to find out the methods that are employed by facilitators in the four classes to teach their learners. To this end the researcher asked the learners to describe how their educators would practically teach them the various topics they were required to learn. The learners expressed various opinions on the matter.

Many of the learners stated that demonstration was the main method employed by their educators when they taught them numeracy. One of the learners explained that:

> *In one of the lessons on numeracy, our teacher demonstrated how the number line is used. While she showed us how to use it to do addition and subtraction, we observed the entire process after which she asked us to come up to the board and also demonstrate how some figures can be computed using the number line. Now I can also use the number line to make addition and subtraction.*

Another learner made the following comment:

> *The teacher brings books for us, for example a book for English, Sotho or Xhosa. Each learner will be provided with a book relevant to the language they want to study. We are also given a numeracy book and small calculator. Our teacher will then show us on the board how to add and subtract. So that we can calculate for example 40 + 40 as it will be required in the numeracy book and provide an answer. We would then write down that it is equal to 80*.

Still on the teaching of numeracy, another learner expressed a similar view:

> *The lesson on number line has helped me to understand how to do additions and subtractions. Our teacher showed us how to use the number line to do them (addition and subtraction) on the board. We looked on as she showed us the procedure.*

Some of the learners intimated their educators taught them how to sign official documents. Therefore, the researcher was interested in finding out how such a topic was taught by the educators. The learners expressed some views on the matter. For instance, one learner mentioned that:

> *They show by writing in a separate piece of paper (For example, they would write a name in a space where your name is supposed to be provided).*

Another learner had this to add:

> *We are told to persevere until we get it right. They also demonstrate by showing us that when you write the letter 'N" for instance, you must move the pen up, down then up again. The teacher will then ask you to observe us writing and assist if they see that one struggles. They will tell you that the alphabet is facing in the wrong direction. The teachers really invest time and are patient in teaching us how to write be it our names, surnames, etc. I would like to thank our teacher; I couldn't sign but she helped me. She asked me my name and I told her and she said I must write my name and surname then you are done signing.*

Some learners also intimated that they were taught how to write different words. So when asked to explain how they were taught to write such words, a learner said that:

> *Growing up we used black boards, then the teacher would stand in front and teach us when you start writing, you must first begin with a capital letter. These days, flip charts are being used. She uses a koki pen on a flip chat to teach us that you begin a name, sentence or a day of a week (e.g. Tuesday) with a capital letter. She would teach us that when you write a sentence, you must start from this end to that end.*

Apart from the demonstration method other learners indicated that the discussion method was frequently used by their educator when teaching them topical issues about society. One of the learners indicated that:

> *When our teacher was explaining HIV/AIDS to us, she … introduced the topic and then asked us to discuss amongst ourselves how to care for someone living with HIV/AIDS. She interrupted us occasionally to add some information which we did not know.*

One the same note another learner said that:

> *Our teacher normally puts us into groups for us to discuss various issues about our communities. She goes around to check if we all contribute to the discussions. She would ask a learner about his/her views on the topic when she realizes that he/she is not participating in the discussion.*

From the foregoing, it came to light that the methods employed by the volunteer educators selected to participate in the study used a variety of methods to facilitate learning amongst their learners. Demonstration and discussion were the main methods used by the facilitators to teach the learners.

5.4.2 Effectiveness of the Teaching Methods Employed by the Facilitators

In this section, the researcher sought to find out from the learners the effectiveness of the various methods employed by their facilitators. Effectiveness was judged on two main factors – subject-matter comprehension and learner participation. The presentation of results in this section is therefore divided into two sub-sections. The first sub-section is dedicated to the presentation of results on the effectiveness of the teaching methods with regards subject-matter comprehension while the other sub-section presents results on the effectiveness of the various teaching methods to promote the participation of learners in lessons.

5.4.2.1 Subject-matter comprehension

Here, the researcher sought to find out from the learners how effective the various methods employed to teach them were in promoting understanding of the contents of the various subjects they were taught. When the question of the effectiveness of the teaching methods in enhancing their learning, all the learners answered in the affirmative. For instance, one learner hinted that:

> *Yes, it does help a lot. They are teaching in a way that is understandable. We would understand the moment they teach us. Again Mr. Addae (researcher) you know with us, when you get your services papers at the end of the month. We did not know what is written on the monthly statements we receive every month to pay our services. There are things that we couldn't understand on the statements. The teacher used to tell us that this means this and this means this.*

Since such a response failed to give detailed information regarding the effectiveness of each of the methods, the researcher had to discuss the relative effectiveness of each of the methods.

The demonstration method was the first on the table for discussion. When asked if the method promoted their understanding of the subject-matter, the learners in the class where demonstration was used, answered in the affirmative. Commenting on how the educator uses the municipality bill to help them to understand what they were required to pay, one learner said that:

She (volunteer educator) would show the whole class the bill, as I said earlier that we have a class of about 20. The educator will then ask, do you understand this? Some of us we'll say no I do not understand, I only understand what I must pay and I don't use as much as they are saying there. You see those things. Then she will start explaining to us. Now we understand what we have to pay on the bill.

In a related incident, another learner remarked:

Another thing Mr. Addae (researcher) is that, as you know that we were used to going to the front whenever we wanted to deposit cash. We would tell them verbally that we want this much, they would then give it to us and we would then sign. We would just sign simply because we did not know anything, some would tax us or still from us. Lately, I know that when I go to deposit at the bank, I need to fill in a withdrawal slip as I was taught by the teacher that the slip is a written withdrawal. We were taught to read the slip thoroughly to know where to fill in the correct withdrawal amount, your name as well as your account number. Then I would sign the slip and give it to them. They will give me my money and a receipt. We were also taught to thoroughly check our account number.

She added that:

Sometimes I use to ask regarding the ATM machines, apparently the machine could speak in Xhosa, you just punch in details and the machine will respond in Xhosa yet nothing happens. I would then ask someone, either someone behind me or nearby to assist. The person would use the machine without problems. Our teachers eventually taught us that the machine works like this, this and that. Now I can use the machine and I no longer require assistance. I do it myself. Those are some of the things we learnt.

A similar view was shared by another participant:

I am now able to deposit money. They would give me a deposit slip and I would know how much I want to deposit, where to, from who. All these things are now clear. Even the deposit slip is like the forms that we are taught using in class. I am able to see where I must put my name and where to put the name of the recipient.

The effectiveness of the demonstration method in helping them to understand the content of numeracy as a subject was also discussed with the learners. One learner pointed out that:

She (educator) shows us how to use the number line to do additions and subtractions. She takes her time to show us step-by-step how the number line works. After the lessons she would ask each learner to come up to the board to demonstrate how to use the number. Many of us are able to correctly use the number line to do the additions and subtractions.

Another learner in the same class added that:

> *In my view the method helps us to understand addition and subtraction. I can confidently say that I understand the topic (addition and subtraction) very well because of how she (educator) used the number line.*

Still on the demonstration method, one other learner intimated that:

> *The way she (educator) shows us how to do addition and subtraction using the number line is very nice. We watch while she demonstrates and then when she asks us to also demonstrate all of us (learners) are able to do it properly.*

One other learner would not be left out of the discussion. She remarked that:

> *Our teacher helped us when we couldn't even write. Another thing we have noticed is that we loved nice cellphones yet it was difficult to use them. When a friend of mine does not have airtime, they would send me a message which I couldn't read. I would ask my grandkids, what is this? They would respond, it's a message, grandfather. Our teacher then showed us how a cellphone works. Now I can send a message. All we want now is to continue learning so that we will be able to read our bibles. We were even taught time and time management. What to do between 5 and 6 a.m. for example. We now know when to eat breakfast. We now even know how to cross the traffic lights. Before we would cross when it is not even red. We also know how to delete our inbox messages. The other day a police officer was surprised when I gave them my cellphone numbers, my address from my head.*

The next method put up for comment was discussion. The learners applauded the method as being very effective in helping them to understand the content of the subject. One learner asserted that:

> *When we discuss the topic in the classroom we hear views from other learners which make us to understand the topic properly. In some cases, the teacher would ask some of the learners to explain our views further and then she would ask us to agree or disagree. This helps us to understand everything.*

Another learner could not agree more when he stated that:

> *The views of the other learners are very important. This is because they give me a better understanding of the topic.*

The views of the learners indicate that the discussion method is very effective in helping them understand the topics that were taught by their educators.

The results of the study on the effectiveness of the methods employed in the teaching and learning encounter in promoting learners' subject-matter comprehension reveal that both discussion and demonstration methods were considered to be effective in helping learners to understand the content of the various subjects taught.

5.4.2.2 Learners' participation in lessons

The researcher was also interested in finding out from the learners how effective the various teaching methods were in promoting the participation of learners in the class activities. When asked whether the various methods promoted their participation in class activities, all the learners answered 'yes' to the question. One learner noted that:

> *Another thing we look at is that, is the educator patient enough with old people. Because she is 25 and some of us are 65 or 66 years old. These kids you brought to teach us are very patient and we have observed that. They even come to our houses. They would say, if you don't understand, my parents, just ask, I won't lose patience. Were taught by our facilitator, she is very patient and she gives you a chance until your eyes are opened. We love her. Even the others are very patient.*

He added that:

> *They can be patient for even two hours on the same issue. They have time to thoroughly teach us. What I like is that they involve us in all the activities. They also remind us that during apartheid it was difficult for us to get education; hence they say they understand why we are here now. They don't blame us. That encourages us a lot. Even when you want to bunk class you think twice.*

In order to get a better understanding of the effectiveness of each of the methods in soliciting the participation of learners in class activities, the researcher brought each of the methods up for discussion with the participants.

The effectiveness of the demonstration method in promoting the participation of learners in class activities was discussed with the learners. The learners were full of praise for the demonstration method in encouraging their participation in the classroom. One learner had this to say:

> *The educator is able to show us how to do many things, she would tell us to ask questions when we don't understand.*

Another learner expressed this view:

I can say that we all participate in all activities in the classroom. There are always questions and answers in the classroom.

A similar experience was shared by another learner:

The teacher also emphasizes that we ask questions whenever one doesn't understand before the teacher continues any further with the session. The teacher would ask a question like, is the class still with me? Then we would respond, yes. And if I do not understand I would stop here right away and say teacher please let's go back to the point you mentioned previously. Also, we understand easily with the help of other leaners.

This implies that the demonstration method encourages the participation of learners in the lesson.

When asked about the effectiveness of the discussion method in promoting their participation in lessons, the learners gave positive feedback on the method. For instance, a learner intimated that:

We are all able to express our views. Our teacher is always there to guide us.

This view was also shared by another learner when she noted that:

We all have our say when it comes to discussion. We are able to bring our experiences to the floor. I can say that this is very effective.

In the same vein another learner made the following comment:

I am a very shy person but when we discuss, our teacher encourages us all to express our views. Even me, I am able to say what I think about the topic. This is very good.

From the views of the learners, it can be said that the discussion method is an effective method in promoting the participation of learners in the classroom.

The results of the study obtained from the focus-group discussion on the effectiveness of the various teaching methods in promoting the involvement of learners in lessons reveals that the demonstration and discussion methods were very effective in eliciting the participation of learners in lessons.

5.4.3 Effectiveness of the Methods of Assessment Employed in Judging Learners' Progress

This section presents the results of the study on the effectiveness of the methods of assessment employed in the teaching and learning encounter in the selected classes in the KRG.

In order to determine the effectiveness of the various assessment methods, there was the need to first of all identify the methods used in assessing learners' performances. As such, the learners were asked to indicate the methods employed by their educators to assess their learning. In response to the question, one learner noted that:

> *In class, for instance, the teacher would give us some work to do. The teacher also gives us a homework and request that we submit the following day.*

The learners also intimated that they were assessed using portfolio. One of the learners hinted that:

> *At the end of the programme, we are supposed to submit portfolios. We answer the things in the portfolio from time to time.*

Commenting on the same issue, another learner said that:

> *The portfolios help a lot. We do most of the content in the books provided are also found in our portfolios wherein we practice the activities until we make it perfect.*

Since homework was mentioned as one of the methods of assessment, the researcher was interested in finding out about its effectiveness in the judging learners' progress. Commenting on the effectiveness of homework, one learner was of the view that:

> *When we take the work home we are able to take our time to do it. It helps many of us to understand what the educator was teaching in the classroom.*

Other learners also intimated that sometimes their educators rely on oral questioning to assess their understanding of what had been taught. For instance, one learner made the following comment:

> *After every lesson, our educator asks us many questions. Some are able to answer them, while others are not.*

The experience of another learner is expressed below:

Our teacher sometimes will ask us to come to the board to write after she asks us some questions.

One other learner noted that:

We all have a chance to answer the questions from the teacher. She would speak to us and ask us and we would answer in the same manner.

Still on the same matter, another learner intimated that:

One by one we all answer the questions from the teacher.

When asked about the effectiveness of oral questioning in assessing their learning, the learners answered in the affirmative.

The results of the study on the methods employed in assessing the learners reveal that portfolio, homework, and oral questioning were employed by the volunteer educators to judge learners' progress.

5.4.4 Nature and Effectiveness of Feedback Provided to Learners after Assessment

The researcher sought to find out the nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to the learners after assessment. Learners were asked to indicate the manner in which feedback was provided by their educators after they have been assessed. One of the learners provided the following comment:

After we answer questions from our teacher, she would then tell us whether we were wrong or not and then she would explain to us where we went wrong.

Another learner claimed that:

Always our teacher would correct us after we have answered her questions. She would then indicate what we should have done right.

Another learner added that:

Mostly immediately we answer questions she (educator) would tell us whether what we said was right or wrong and the she would explain to us what we should have done.

Other learners shared other experiences. One learner said that when they did written work, their educator would provide written feedback to them. The following summarises the views of the learner:

> *She (educator) writes on the side or on a separate piece of paper stating that this is the correct way of doing this. This is how you were supposed to answer the question.*

Another learner added that:

> *She (educator) will write on the board and say the correct answer is this one. She will show me that the answer at the top is the correct answer and the answer at the bottom which I provide is not the correct one. She will then ask if I see the difference. She will say this 'E' and 'I' are not supposed to be there. Therefore, take these out.*

Commenting on how feedback was provided when they (learners) compiled their portfolios, one of the learners intimated that:

> *She will always tell us where we went wrong and ask us to do some corrections in the portfolio. We keep doing this till we are sure that the answers there are correct.*

The responses generated from the participants suggest that feedback provided by the educators to the learners after assessment was verbal and immediate. The issue of the effectiveness of feedback, the learners maintained that the feedback provided to them was effective. One of the learners had this to say:

> *It encourages you to continue. We write, erase, write and erase again. We are given erasers. I can now write my Kwazulu Natal home address.*

This view was shared by another learner when she maintained that:

> *I like how she (educator) corrects us when we are wrong. No one gets angry because they are helping us to learn.*

Another learner added that:

> *Sometimes she will say say good or well done when we are right and it really encourages us to say we are doing well.*

These views suggest that feedback provided by the educators helps learners to identify gaps in their learning and hence improve upon them.

The results of the study on the nature and effectiveness of the feedback provided reveal that both written and oral feedback was provided to the learners after assessment. The learners were of the view that the feedback provided to them after assessment was effective in that it enabled them to identify areas of the content they misunderstood.

5.5 RESULTS OF THE STUDY OBTAINED FROM GHANA

In the introduction to this chapter, the researcher indicated that the results of the study would be presented in two parts. The first part of the chapter centred on the presentation of results obtained from South Africa. This section is devoted to presenting the results of the study generated from participants in Ghana. As is the case in the previous section, data presentation in this section is done in respect of the data collection instruments employed to gather information. In this section also, the results were presented in the following order: unstructured observation, interviews, and finally focus group discussion.

5.5.1 Results Obtained from Unstructured Observations

In this section, the researcher provides the results of the study generated through the unstructured observations. In Ghana, as is the case in South Africa, four classes were purposively selected by the researcher for the purpose of data generation. As has been noted in the previous chapter, the purposive selection of the four classes was based on the desired number of learners in the classroom (i.e. 18). The researcher had to make six visits to each of the four selected classes in order to fully acquaint himself with events that took place during teaching and learning. The observation guide was designed in line with the aims of the study.

The researcher had to honour the times agreed upon between the facilitators and himself. In all the classes visited, the researcher was introduced to the learners by the facilitator after which the former explained the purpose of the visit. After that, the facilitators and learners **were** requested consent to their participation in the study. The researcher then had to sit at vantage positions during the entire observation periods in order to be able to observe events without hindrance. The researcher did not interfere with events in the classroom.

5.5.1.1 Description of classrooms

Two of the groups the researcher observed studied in under trees while the fourth group studied in a private tailoring shop. One of the two groups (Class A), that learned under trees, had a wooden chalk board placed against a tree and firmly secured by a nail. However, the wooden chalk board was not in the best of shape and condition for effective writing. This group was a women's learning group. The other group, labelled Class B, which was also observed learned under a tree. The class however lacked a wooden chalk board but the facilitator had a functional flip chart which he hung on the tree and used it for teaching the learners. This group was a young male adult farmers' learning group. The members of the women's and young male adult farmers' learning groups sat on wooden benches during the lesson. The third (Class C) and fourth (Class D) groups which were young female tailoring apprentices' learning group and mixed young people's group respectively, had neither chalk board nor flip chart. They used the tailoring shop and church premises as classrooms for learning. Meanwhile, in all the four learning groups observed, there were no pictures and posters pasted around the learning environment. Apart from the absence of pictures and posters, the environment was largely conducive for learning.

5.5.1.2 Teaching methods employed by adult educators to teach learners

In all four classes, the researcher observed that lecture, demonstration, and discussion were the methods employed in teaching the adult learners. In two of the classes (Class A and B), the lecture was the main method employed by the facilitators to teach the learners.

During a lesson on civic education, the facilitator in Class A copied some concepts from a book unto the board. Reading from the book, she explained each of the concepts to the learners. While the explanation went on, the learners listened attentively to the facilitator. There were very few questions during this lesson. The questions that came from the learners centred on issues that they did not understand. For instance, one of the learners inquired about the number of years that a president must serve in a term. The facilitator responded to the learner citing examples from Ghana and Togo.

The same method (lecture) was used by the facilitator in Class B throughout my visits to the classroom. In one of the lessons, the teacher combined the lecture method with questioning.

In a lesson titled “Armed robbery in our communities”, the facilitator read some headlines about armed robbery from the local newspapers. While the facilitator read the texts, she stopped to explain some difficult words to the learners. All learners had to do in this lesson was to listen to the information provided by the facilitator. Occasionally, there were some questions from the teacher to the learners. Learners gave verbal responses which the teacher either indicated as being correct or incorrect. During the lesson, there was no interaction among the learners on the topic of the lesson.

In both Class A and B, it was observed there was a two-way communication process, i.e. between teacher and learners. This observation is crucial to this study. This is because maximum interaction amongst the facilitator and learners and among learners themselves about the topic of the lesson is imperative to promoting effective teaching and learning. However, in Classes C and D the facilitators employed different methods from those used in Classes A and B. In Class C, in a lesson on poultry-rearing, there was the need by the facilitator to expose learners to the intricacies of livestock rearing. Therefore, demonstration was the main method employed in facilitating the lesson.

In teaching the learners how to care for livestock, the facilitator took learners to a small poultry farm where the facilitator showed step-by-step how to handle fresh eggs. He then went on to show them how to clean the coop of the fowl. While he went on with the demonstration, learners stood and watched. There was no room for questions from either the facilitator or learners.

In Class D, the facilitator employed the discussion method to teach a lesson on “Ghana’s Economy”. When the topic had been introduced by the facilitator, learners were then asked to give their views on the state of the Ghanaian economy. The matter developed into a hot debate amongst the learners. The facilitator was available to serve as a guide throughout the discussion. Occasionally, he would ask learners some pertinent questions

on the topic which instigated further debate amongst the learners. All learners had the opportunity to contribute to the discussion.

5.5.1.3 Effectiveness of the teaching methods employed

Here the focus of the observation was to determine the effectiveness of the methods employed by facilitators to teach adults learners in the NFLP. In order to achieve this, two main factors were considered – subject-matter comprehension and learner participation in lessons. In this section, the researcher presents the results on the effectiveness of each of the teaching methods employed by the facilitators to promote subject-matter comprehension and learners' participation in the lesson. This section is therefore divided into two sub-sections. The first sub-section presents the results on subject-matter comprehension while the other section is dedicated to the presentation of results on learners' participation.

5.5.1.3.1 Subject-Matter Comprehension

In order to determine the effectiveness of the various teaching methods to facilitate learners' subject-matter comprehension, the researcher observed the rate of responses emanating from the learners when questions had been posed to them on the topic being taught during and after the lesson.

With regard to the lecture method, the researcher observed that in all four classes the lecture method was employed by the facilitators to introduce their lessons. The facilitators used the lecture method to link their learners' previous knowledge to the topics of the day's lessons. The researcher observed that the lecture method failed to give a deeper insight into the topics taught. This made it impossible for learners to gain a better understanding of the topics. It was therefore not surprising to see that many of the learners were not able to answer correctly questions posed to them by their facilitators after they had been taught by means of the lecture method. It can be inferred from the answers provided by the learners that the lecture method failed to promote learners' understanding of the subject-matter.

In the case of the women's learning group, the demonstration method was effectively used to facilitate the understanding of a picture showing poultry rearing in the functional literacy primer when they visited the poultry farm. Because not all the learners in the group had copies of the functional literacy primer, the educator used the pictures in the primer to demonstrate how poultry rearing is carried out and backed it up with chalkboard sketches and illustrations. The facilitator also made use of the live poultry in the farm to help promote a better understanding of the task. Learners showed interest in the lesson as evidenced by their willingness to repeat actions that had been taken by their facilitator when called upon to do so. Many of the learners called upon to repeat what the facilitator had done did so perfectly. This, to a large extent, implies that learners' understanding of the topic was enhanced by the demonstration method.

The facilitator for the young male adult farmers' learning group lacked a chalkboard and therefore used pictures and the letters on the English alphabet primer flip chart to do the demonstrations. The focus of the demonstration was construction of sentences. The facilitator showed the learners how to combine letters to develop words and also to use such words to construct sentences. In this lesson, the learners watched and listened attentively with some smiling and nodding their heads. Learners backed this by providing correct answers to questions posed by their facilitator.

The discussion teaching method in all the lessons observed was employed by the facilitators to enable learners to share their views on many sensitive but very important issues facing their communities and the country at large. Using this method, the facilitators raised questions for learners to deliberate and share their opinions on the various topics. The interest of the learners in the lesson was stimulated through the discussion method. The discussion method afforded the learners the opportunity to express their level of understanding of the topic treated. In some cases, some of the learners raised issues which the facilitator confessed to knowing nothing about. This means that the method enabled learners to bring to the fore their previous knowledge and experiences. After the discussion, the facilitator asked several questions which the learners were able to answer correctly.

5.5.1.3.2 Learners' participation in lessons

In this sub-section, the focus of the observation was on how well the various methods facilitated the involvement of learners in class activities. Each of the methods was put under the spotlight. This was to enable the researcher to determine their effectiveness in promoting the participation of learners in lessons.

With regard to the lecture method, the researcher observed that the facilitators were the main source of information. The learners remained passive in the teaching and learning encounter; the involvement of the learners in the lesson was minimal because learners only listened to the facilitators. Learners asked questions for clarification on very few occasions during such lessons. Even though there were times where learners were required to answer some questions, it was observed that they were not really involved in the lesson. This means that the lecture method failed to promote the active participation of the learners in the lessons.

Demonstration was another method employed by some of the facilitators to promote learning in their classrooms. The role of the learners in the classroom visited that of observer and listener. The learners watched and listened as their facilitators illustrated how the task at hand could be done. There were instances where a few learners interrupted their facilitators during the course of the demonstration to ask questions on things that were not clear. After the demonstrations, a couple of learners were invited to repeat the demonstrations made by the educators. However, given the number of learners in the classes, the involvement of learners in those lessons was minimal. Not all learners had the opportunity to pose questions or repeat the demonstrations carried out by their facilitators.

In terms of the discussion method that was also used in some classes to teach the learners, the researcher observed that the method got most learners making contributions and asking questions for clarification. This afforded them the opportunity to share their opinions on the topic. While learners shared their opinions on the various topics, there was room for them to critique each other's views. There was a healthy debate among the learners. All learners showed interest in the lesson which made it easy for each of them

to contribute their views to the topic. It can, therefore, be deduced from the observations made by the researcher that the discussion method facilitated the participation of learners in the lessons.

5.5.1.4. Effectiveness of the methods of assessment employed

During the entire observation, the researcher noted that the facilitators employed oral questioning to judge learners' progress. Unlike the case of South Africa, assessment in the NFLP took place at the end of each lesson. However, due to the lack of exercise books for the learners, assessment only took place orally in the classroom. Even though oral questioning was the main assessment method employed during the entire teaching and learning encounter in the various classrooms, the researcher observed that questioning in each class took different forms. For instance, in Class A, the facilitator employed class questioning throughout the researcher's visits. The facilitator made use of oral tests to assess learners' understanding of the subject-matter. After explaining the various concepts under civic education to the learners, the facilitator asked the learners a series of questions about the topic which had been taught. Learners were required to stand on their feet to answer the questions posed to them. The questions required learners to provide short oral answers to them. In some instances, the facilitator asked learners to provide examples on various issues.

Also in Class B, oral questioning was employed. After teaching the learners the effects of armed robbery on Ghanaian communities, the facilitator asked learners several questions. It was observed that not all the learners were called to answer the questions. Learners called upon provided oral answers to the questions posed.

In one lesson observed by the facilitator in Class C on literacy, oral questioning was used to assess learners. The questioning focused on alphabet identification. The facilitator showed some flash cards with different letters on them to the learners. Learners were then required to identify the various letters of the alphabet on the cards. Each learner had the opportunity to identify a letter. Learners provided oral answers to the questions since, in the view of the researcher, learners did not have exercise books to write in.

In Class D, the facilitator also employed oral questioning in the assessment process. After the lesson on the “Ghanaian Economy”, the learners answered some questions from the facilitator. Each learner provided answers to the questions posed. Both the questions from the facilitator and answers provided by the learners were verbal in nature. This method helped the educator to judge learners understanding of the topic of the lesson.

Generally, the method of assessment (questioning) adopted by the facilitators was quite effective in the sense that it enabled the facilitators to effectively judge learners’ understanding of the various topics taught. The facilitators related cordially with the learners during the assessment as well as assisted learners to address their learning challenges. However, the researcher observed that unavailability of exercise books for learners to write in compromised the quality of the assessment process. Furthermore, the researcher opines that the use of the questioning method only also put the reliability of the assessment results in doubt.

5.5.1.5 Nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to learners after assessment

In all the classes, the researcher observed that feedback was provided immediately after assessment had taken place. Feedback was also verbal and quite elaborate. Verbal comments such as “well done”, “correct”, “good”, “very good”, “you have done well” and “excellent” were given by educators as feedback to learners who were able to provide correct responses to assessment questions. In some instances, learners were made to clap for their colleagues who were able to answer the assessment questions correctly.

In instances where learners got the answers wrong, the facilitators explained to each learner where they went wrong and helped them to address such errors. Wrong pronunciation, letter identification and answers were corrected and learners were made to repeat them after the corrections. The corrections were done in various ways; either the educators corrected the wrong answers themselves or asked another learner to provide the right answer. The later method of correcting wrong answers encouraged learners to learn from their colleagues.

In the view of the researcher, the method of feedback employed was quite effective given the nature of assessment employed. The feedback provided corrective and directive

measures to the learners in order to address all the challenges their learning. However, the researcher opines that since feedback was only given orally, it hampered the learners' ability to do proper revision in the future.

5.5.2 Results Obtained from the Interviews

This section presents the results of the study elicited through the interview schedule administered to the facilitators. The results of the study under this section are presented in line with the stated objectives of the study. Results were presented under the following sub-headings:

- Methods employed in teaching adult learners
- Effectiveness of the teaching methods
- Effectiveness of methods of assessment and the nature of feedback
- Nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to learners after assessment

5.5.2.1 Methods employed by educators in teaching adult learners

When facilitators were asked to indicate the teaching method(s) they employed in teaching their learners, all of them stated discussion, demonstration, and lecture. Commenting on the use of the lecture method one facilitator noted that:

> *I use the lecture method when there is a lot to cover on the topic. Unnecessary delays in the lessons would not help me complete the topic on time. Therefore, I would make my presentations after which I ask a few questions to the learners.*

Still on the lecture method another facilitator indicated that:

> *Sometimes I use the lecture method to introduce my lessons. After I have given a brief lecture about the topic I would then use another method to teach my learners.*

These views seem to confirm the responses given by the facilitators that the lecture method is one of the methods employed in facilitating learning amongst the learners.

The demonstration method was another method indicated by one of the facilitators as being employed in teaching the learners.

I use the demonstration method to teach learners how to show my learners how to do a given task. When the topic requires learners to learn a skill, I use the demonstration method to help then acquire that skill.

The other method which was employed in the classrooms was discussion. In order to use the discussion, one facilitator indicated that:

When using the discussion method, I sometimes identify a local radio programme, either a talk show or a drama, that reflects or is based on a topic to be treated and bring a radio set to the classroom for learners to listen to the programme. After the radio programme, I help the learners identify the main issues raised during the radio programme for discussion by the learners.

The results of the study on the methods used in teaching adult learners in the four classes visited in the NFLP reveal that lecture, demonstration and discussion were the methods used by the facilitators to teach the adult learners.

5.5.2.2 Effectiveness of teaching methods employed by educators

In this section the researcher presents the results of the study on the effectiveness of the teaching methods employed in the four classes visited. The section is sub-divided into two: subject-matter comprehension and learners' participation in the lesson.

- *Subject-Matter Comprehension*

The researcher sought to find out from the facilitators how effective the teaching methods they employed were in helping learners gain a better understanding of the content of the various subjects taught. To this end the researcher posed a question to each of the facilitators to explain how well the teaching method(s) he/she employed is/are in promoting learners' subject-matter comprehension. The facilitators rated discussion as the method that promotes a very high level of subject-matter comprehension. In addition, the facilitators shared some views on the effectiveness of the method.

Commenting on the effectiveness of the discussion method, one facilitator stated that:

The discussion method helps the learners to express their views in the classroom. All the learners get to know the topic better and from different directions. This, in my view, improves their understanding of the subject-matter.

Another facilitator noted that:

> *When I use the discussion method, I realise that the learners are able to answer most of the questions I ask them on the topic after the lesson. They are even able to explain things very well. I think the discussion method is very effective in helping learners to understand the topic.*

This view was shared by another facilitator. He intimated that:

> *Whenever I use discussions in my lessons, my learners are able to get a deeper insight into the topic. They are also able to get other views from their colleagues. This helps them to be in a better position to answer any questions posed to them. To me this (discussion) method is very effective.*

Apart from the discussion method, demonstration was another method indicated by one of the facilitators as being employed in the teaching and learning encounter. Speaking on the effectiveness of the demonstration method in promoting learners' understanding of the subject-matter, the facilitator had this to say:

> *When I demonstrate learners are able to see how a given task can be done. For instance, when I was teaching them about poultry rearing, learners saw how I went about the entire task. This helped them to fully understand how the task is done. After the lesson when I asked them some questions or even asked them to repeat the demonstration, the learners were able to do them properly. This shows that the method (demonstration) I use in the class is effective.*

The view of this facilitator suggests that the demonstration method was effective in helping the learners understand the topic taught.

The facilitators were then asked about the effectiveness of the lecture method in facilitating learners' understanding of the subject-matter. Most of them had something to say about the lecture method. One of the facilitators indicated that:

> *The lecture method is good when I want to cover a lot on the topic. But I don't think after my lessons learners understood what I taught them. This is because they asked me some questions as if I had not even taught them and when I asked them questions it is as if they were not in the classroom when I was teaching. I don't think the method is effective.*

Another facilitator could not agree more when he noted that:

> *That (lecture) method doesn't help me at all. Learners seem to be paying attention when I teach but after they cannot answer any question I ask them. I have to use the lecture method because we (facilitators) have to teach them (learners) many things in a short period.*

Still on the lecture method, another facilitator mentioned that:

> *My learners seem not to understand the topic after I have lectured them. They look confused and can't answer correctly the questions I ask them. I can say that it doesn't help my learners to understand the topic taught.*

It can be deduced from the views of the facilitators that the lecture method does not facilitate learners' understanding of the subject-matter.

The results of the study on the effectiveness of the teaching methods employed in promoting adult learners' comprehension of the subject-matter from the point of view of the facilitators reveal that the discussion and demonstration methods were viewed as being effective in promoting learners' understanding of the content of the subjects taught, whereas the lecture method was deemed to be ineffective.

- *Learners' participation in lessons*

With regard to the level at which the teaching methods enlist learners' participation in lessons, most of the facilitators interviewed indicated that discussion promotes a high level of participation by learners in lessons. One of the facilitators responded that:

> *The method (discussion) enables all the learners to be part of the lesson. They say what they think about the topic. This means that learners' interest in the lesson becomes stimulated. And as such they become active participants in the whole lesson. I can confidently say that the method promotes their participation in the lesson.*

Another facilitator exclaimed that:

> *'Oh' yes, the method helps my learners to participate in the lesson. They are all so serious when it comes to discussions. They all contribute very well to the discussion. There is maximum interaction the classroom and I can say that learners look ex) cited when they discuss.*

This view was shared by another:

> *The discussion method is good when it comes to learners' participation. The method creates a good environment for all learners to be part of the lesson. I prefer the method because when learners discuss, they share many views which would help them later in life.*

These views indicate that the discussion method is very effective in facilitating the involvement of learners in lessons.

While the discussion method was deemed to be effective in promoting learners' participation in lesson, the lecture and demonstration methods were not viewed in the same regard. In fact, the facilitators opined that the lecture and demonstration methods were not appropriate in soliciting the participation of learners in class activities. Speaking on the lecture method, one facilitator noted that:

> *I do all the talking when I use the lecture method. When I ask the learners whether or not they understand they all say yes. But they would not ask me questions or answer correctly the questions I ask them. To tell you the truth, the lecture method does not help the learners to be involved in the lessons I teach.*

Another facilitator responded that:

> *My learners sit and listen to me when I teach them using the lecture method. They don't ask me questions while I teach or after the lesson. To me the lecture method does not promote the participation of my learners in the lesson.*

The views of the two facilitators on the lecture method were not peculiar to them as another facilitator retorted that:

> *I don't think the lecture method helps learners to participate in lessons especially for adult learners since they require interaction during the lesson. I rarely use the lecture method in the class.*

It will be recalled that the demonstration method was only employed in one of the classes to teach poultry rearing. The demonstration method was also seen to be ineffective from the point of view of the facilitator who employed it in promoting learners' participation in the lesson.

> *After my demonstrations a few learners are asked to repeat the demonstrations. But I don't think the method properly promotes my learners' participation in the lesson. This is because sometimes they just watch me when I demonstrate and they don't even ask me questions. All they say is yes we understand.*

He added that:

> *All learners must have an equal opportunity to participate, but the demonstration method does not give room for that. Only a few learners can participate. This is not good.*

The results of the study on the effectiveness of the teaching methods in promoting learners' participation in lesson from the point of view of the facilitators in NFLP reveal that the discussion method was deemed to be effective in soliciting the involvement of learners in lessons while the demonstration and lecture methods were seen to be ineffective in achieving learners' participation in lessons.

5.5.2.3 Effectiveness of the methods employed in assessing learners' progress

This section presents the results of the study on the effectiveness of the methods of assessment used to judge learners' progress from the point of the facilitators in the selected classes in the NFLP. In order to properly examine the effectiveness of the assessment methods there was the need to first of all identify the methods employed in assessing learners' progress in each of the four classes visited.

When asked by the researcher to indicate the methods employed in assessing learners' progress, all four facilitators responded that they employed oral questioning to assess learners. However, the form that the oral questioning took differed from one class to another. For instance, one of the facilitators reported that:

> *During and after the lesson I ask my learners many questions orally which they in-turn give me oral answers. They answer me one by one.*

Another facilitator indicated that:

> *Sometimes I ask my learners to identify alphabets on some mounted posters. I don't write down my questions. I ask them orally and they answer me in the same manner.*

Still on assessment methods employed, another facilitator intimated that:

> *After my learners discuss the topic and other issues, I ask them many questions on what they have discussed and they provide me answers.*

The facilitator in Class C had this to say:

> *During and after my demonstrations I ask learners some questions. Sometimes I ask them to repeat the demonstrations. This I do to assess them.*

When the facilitators were quizzed about the effectiveness of the assessment used to help them identify areas of the subject where learners needed redress, all the facilitators interviewed answered that questioning was the main method of assessment used in judging learners' progress. The facilitators were of the view that the method employed in assessing learners was effective in identifying areas of the subject that learners need redress.

5.5.2.4 Nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to learners after assessment

This section presents results on the nature and effectiveness of the feedback provided to learners after they have been assessed. All the facilitators interviewed indicated that feedback formed an important part of the teaching and learning process. In terms of the nature of feedback, the facilitators had many things to say.

According to the facilitators, the feedback they generally provide to their learners include:

> *I ask other learners to clap for a learner who has provided a correct answer or response. (Class A facilitator)*
>
> *I correct a wrong answer or ask another learner to answer the question so that the one who gave the wrong answer will learn the right answer from the colleague*. (*Class B facilitator*)
>
> *I ask the group to sing a song for learners who have provided a correct answer*. (*Class C facilitator*)
>
> *I giving comments such as well done, you have done well, good, very good, excellent, keep it up, etc. to learners who have provided correct answers. (Class D facilitator)*

A probe on why they do not assign numerical values or scores to the learners' work during assessment yielded the following responses from two of the facilitators. One of the facilitators noted that:

You know, my learners are adults and I cannot treat them like children by scoring them.

Another facilitator indicated that:

Because they are grown-ups if you score them with numbers, the low performing learners will feel embarrassed and drop out.

The researcher then inquired from the facilitators to indicate how they provided feedback on learners' work help to enhance their learning. One facilitator said that:

It helps the learners to be eager to learn. I can also say it boosts their motivation. This is good for learning.

This view was shared by another facilitator:

It highly motivates learners to want to learn by attending classes regularly.

Still on the same matter another facilitator retorted that:

The feedback is motivating them to want to learn in the sense that anytime I tell them we will be doing a test the next day, they will come very early and send for me to come and conduct the test for them.

The results of the study on the nature and effectiveness of the feedback provided to the learners after assessment shows that the facilitators provided oral and immediate feedback after assessment had been done. The facilitators were of the view that the feedback they provided boosted the motivation of the learners.

5.5.3 Results of the Study Obtained from the Focus-Group Discussions

This section is devoted to the presentation of results elicited through the focus-group discussions. The focus-group discussion guide was employed to elicit information from the adult learners in the NFLP. The guide covered various issues which were adequately discussed amongst the learners.

5.5.3.1 Methods employed in teaching adult learners

In all the focus group sessions, learners were unanimous in terms of the main teaching methods their educators employed in guiding them to learn. They mentioned the methods as discussion, demonstration and lecture. However, during one of the focus group

sessions, two other methods that were identified as methods employed by their facilitators to help them learn were radio programmes in current affairs, and role-play.

The teaching methods identified by learners matched those that were stated by the facilitators when they were interviewed as well as role-play which was identified by the educators but was not stated by the learners. It could be said that generally the major teaching methods employed by facilitators in the NFLP to help adult learners to learn include discussion, demonstration and lecture. It further implies that some of the facilitators sometimes used other teaching methods such as radio programmes to facilitate learning by their learners.

5.5.3.2 Effectiveness of teaching methods used by educators in promoting learners' subject-matter comprehension

During the various focus group discussion sessions, learners by consensus described the level of effectiveness of the various teaching methods in promoting subject-matter comprehension as follows.

The deliberations of the learners in two focus group discussion sessions revealed that the discussion teaching method adopted by their facilitators promotes very high level of subject-matter comprehension. The following statements made by some participants affirm the consensus on the discussion teaching method as the method that promotes very high level of subject-matter understanding in learners:

> *You see, when we are given the chance to discuss an issue or a subject matter it affords everybody the opportunity to express his opinion on the topic and where the opinion is correct it is affirmed by our colleagues and/ or educator, and where it is wrong again, we are corrected by our colleagues and/ or educator. This deepens our understanding on the subject matter.*

Similarly, another participant said:

> *In my opinion, the discussion method enhances higher level of understanding in us because our educator often uses the demonstration method to teach us the subject matter first before giving us the chance to discuss. It is the discussion that helps us to understand the subject matter better.*

The above statements vividly indicate that the focus-group discussion participants and for that matter, adult learners, placed the discussion teaching method ahead of all other teaching methods employed by their educators in promoting their understanding of the subject-matter.

Participants in the focus group sessions rated the demonstration teaching method second to the discussion method in terms of effectiveness in promoting subject matter understanding by learners. Thus the demonstration method promotes high levels of subject-matter comprehension in learners. The following remark by a participant illustrates that the demonstration method promotes high level of understanding in learners but not as high as the discussion method:

> *The demonstration method helps us to understand because as it has been said before, our facilitator often uses it to teach us new things and make sure we understand before setting the platform to allow us to discuss amongst ourselves to enhance our understanding on the topic or concept or whatever it is he is teaching us.*

The above statement clearly shows that the participants value demonstration as a teaching method that helps them to understand but not us much as the discussion method.

Lecture method promotes a low level of subject-matter comprehension. During the various discussion sessions, participants unanimously placed the discussion and demonstration methods above lecture method in terms of promoting subject-matter understanding in learners. This implies the lecture method promotes a low level of subject-matter comprehension in learners compared to the other methods (discussion and demonstration methods). One learner had this to say about the lecture method:

> *When our facilitator lectures us, we do not have many chances to ask questions about what he has taught and he doesn't ask us many questions. So mostly we do not understand the topic well.*

Another learner could not agree more when she remarked that:

> *The method does not help me to understand the topic well. All we do is to listen and ask few questions. My brother (researcher) with our background we need methods that explain issues to us in detail.*

This means that the lecture method does not help learners to understand the topic properly and therefore fails to facilitate subject-matter comprehension in learners.

5.5.3.3 Effectiveness of teaching methods used by educators in promoting learners' participation in the lesson

When asked how effectively the teaching methods used by facilitators promoted their participation in the lessons, the learners rated both discussion and demonstration as the methods that promoted a high level of their participation in lessons. For example, in trying to explain why she thought the discussion teaching method promotes high level of learners' participation in lessons, one female participant remarked:

> *When we are given the chance to discuss the topic of the day or some aspects of it, it helps us to get involved in the lesson because everybody in the group is eager to share her opinion to show how much she knows or has understood the lesson of the day.*

Another learner stressed that:

> *Discussion gives us all the chance to contribute to the lesson. We all have a say on the topic and that helps us to be actively involved in the lesson.*

Apart from the discussion method, demonstration was also seen to be effective by the learners in promoting learners' participation in the lesson. A participant, in endorsing what his colleagues had said earlier regarding the discussion method in promoting high level of their participation in lessons, said:

> *Like my colleagues said, the demonstration method just like the discussion method keeps us attentive, active and deeply involved in the lessons. You see, I'm saying this because anytime our educator demonstrates something to us he will ask whether we have understood, and when we say yes he will invite us one after the other to come forward to demonstrate to our colleagues to show our level of understanding.*

She added that:

> *So because we know that after his demonstration he will call us out to also demonstrate, we are always attentive so that we can get the opportunity to demonstrate correctly.*

The participants, however, rated the lecture method as a method that promotes a low level of participation of learners in lessons. They explained that their educators often used this method at the introductory stages of their lessons and they often sat back and listened to them. According to them, the only time they participated during the use of the lecture method is when something was not clear and they asked questions for clarification. Specifically, one learner lamented that:

> *We don't participate. We just listen and answer a few questions.*

Another learner indicated that:

> *The facilitator is the only who talks. We listen and listen till the lesson is over and then after he asks us few question. I don't think that is participation.*

The views of the learners confirm that the lecture method was not appropriate in promoting their participation in the lesson.

5.5.3.4 Effectiveness of the assessment methods employed in judging learners' progress

This section presents the results of the study elicited through the focus-group discussion guide on the effectiveness of the methods employed by facilitators to judge learners' performances.

A question was first posed for the participants to indicate the methods employed by their facilitators to assess their progress. The views of the learners on the methods of assessment seem to corroborate that of the facilitators. The learners were of the view that questioning was the main form of assessment employed to assess learners' progress. One of the learners stressed that:

> *Our facilitator uses oral questions and answers to assess us. After every lesson, he would ask us questions orally to know if we understood what he taught or not and then we will provide the answers orally too in turns.*

Another participant affirmed the view shared by her colleague on the assessment method used by noting that:

> *Our educator calls us to come out and identify some words one after the other after teaching us something. And then we would do the identification by pointing to the word. Sometimes it is fun because when someone comes out and is not able to*

identify the word correctly as our educator taught us, we laugh over it together and our educator will then correct her.

Another learner maintained that:

After the lesson, the facilitator would ask us several questions. He would then ask us to answer them one after another. We would take turns to answer the question.

On the same issue, another learner said that:

The method our facilitator uses to assess us is question and answer. We answer the questions orally. We don't write down the answers.

The participants in all the focus group sessions indicated that the various methods of assessment employed by their educators were very effective because they motivated them to want to learn hard so that they could respond to questions appropriately or read correctly when called upon to do so by their educators. This claim of the effectiveness of the assessment methods used by the educators was corroborated by the following remarks made by some of the participants of the focus group discussions:

To me, they are all very effective in helping us to learn because they enable our educator to correct those who are not able to score or answer correctly.

They are all very effective in helping us to learn but I think the chalk board written test is more effective.

They are very effective because they help us to pay attention during lessons so that we could answer questions or read or write accurately when we are called to do so by our educator to avoid being disgraced.

The various views of the learners suggest that the questioning method which was employed to assess the learners was effective in assessing their progress in meeting the desired learning outcomes.

5.5.3.5 Nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to learners after assessment

This section presents the results of the study obtained through the focus-group discussions with the learners on the nature and effectiveness of feedback given to learners after assessment. Learners were first of all asked to indicate the manner in which their facilitators provided feedback to them. The learners expressed many views notable amongst them are the following:

Our facilitator would ask our colleagues to clap for us for providing a correct answer to a question.

The facilitator corrects those who were not been able to answer the questions appropriately and then he would encourage them to be patient because with time they will understand and be able to answer correctly.

We get comments such as well done, you have down well, good, very good, excellent, etc. from the educators for right responses.

When asked about the effectiveness of the feedback provided to them by their facilitators, the learners in the various focus group sessions acclaimed the effectiveness of the feedback given them by their facilitators as follows:

They are very effective because they help us to know whether we have grasped what we have being taught or not.

To say the truth, the feedback is effective because it motivates us to learn.

The feedback our educator gives us after every assessment encourages us to want to learn hard and become knowledgeable.

The praise comments and clapping we receive from our educator are making us happy and we want to continue to learn hard and be able to perform well.

The results of the study on the nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to the learners after assessment reveal that feedback was oral, immediate and corrective in nature. Learners were of the view that feedback provided by their facilitators was effective in that it served as a motivation to them to learn harder.

5.6 SYNTHESIS OF RESULTS

This section synthesises the results of the study. This section is relevant because data was collected from two different study areas using a variety of data collection tools. The following is therefore the summary of results obtained from the empirical investigation:

- The facilitators in both study areas employed a variety of methods to facilitate learning amongst their learners. In classes visited in the KRG, it came to light that demonstration and discussion were the methods employed by the educators to promote learning amongst their learners. In the classes visited in NFLP, it was found that the facilitators who participated in the study used lecture, demonstration and

discussion methods in teaching the learners. However, in both the NFLP and KRG the facilitators used the teaching methods together with questioning.

- In terms of how well the various methods employed promoted subject-matter comprehension in the learners, the researcher found that in both programmes both the learners and educators/facilitators opined that the discussion and demonstration were effective in promoting subject-matter comprehension. The researcher also observed that the said methods indeed enabled learners to understand the topics that the educator/facilitator sought to teach. This is evident in the fact that the learners were able to respond to the various questions posed by the facilitators adequately. However, in Ghana where the lecture method was also used to facilitate learning, it was realised that the method was deemed inappropriate by both the facilitators and learners. This was also the observation made by the researcher as many of the learners were not able to correctly answer questions posed to them during and after lessons.
- With regard to the effectiveness of the teaching methods employed in both programmes in promoting learner participation, both the learners and the facilitators in the NFLP conceded that the lecture and demonstration methods failed to promote learner participation in the classroom. The observation of the researcher corroborated the views of the two groups, in that it was observed that the learners became passive listeners when the lecture and demonstration methods were employed during lessons. However, the use of the demonstration method to promote learning in the classes visited in the KRG was rated as effective by both the learners and educators. The discussion method was also seen to be effective in promoting learners' participation in lessons by both the educators and learners in both programmes. The researcher's observation also validated the views of the educators and learners. The researcher observed that when the discussion method was used in teaching the learners, the latter were actively involved in the lesson.
- Assessment formed an integral part of the entire teaching and learning encounter in both programmes. In the KRG, the main forms of assessment in all four classes visited were portfolio, classwork, and homework. Assessment in the KRG was standardised for all the learners. Both the learners and educators, however, intimated that oral

questioning was occasionally used by the latter to judge learners' comprehension of the subject-matter during and after lessons. On the other hand, in the NLFP it was found that assessment in all classes visited was mainly in the form of oral questioning. Reading tests, oral tests, and alphabet identification were the forms of class assignments used by the facilitators.

- Both facilitators and learners in the NFLP indicated that the assessment method(s) were effective in judging learners' progress. Similarly, educators and learners in the KRG indicated that the assessment methods were effective in assessing learning amongst learners. However, it was observed that in the NFLP, assessment was not standardised as the same questions were not posed to all learners in the classroom. Different learners were required to answer different questions. The absence of standardisation of assessment for all learners in a class was seen to be a major setback in assessment. This is because assessment was mainly oral and, in some instances, learners were required to write answers on the board. This strategy affected the ability of learners to refer to previous assessments as a form of revision.
- In all classes visited in Ghana and South Africa, feedback from the educators/facilitators on learners' work was provided immediately after learners had given answers to question posed. However, in the NFLP it was found that feedback to learners was verbal which means that facilitators provided oral corrective comments on the answers provided by the learners. This was also the case in the KRG as both the educators and learners stressed that verbal feedback was provided by the former occasionally after assessment. However, in the KRG it was revealed that feedback was sometimes written. In both programmes, the educators/facilitators declared that they used praise to motivate learners who performed well and constructive comments to help those who performed poorly in assessment.
- Facilitators in both the KRG and NFLP indicated that the feedback provided was effective in the sense that it helped learners to identify areas where they went wrong. The feedback provided, in the view of the educators/facilitators, helped them to address any gaps in learning. The learners in both programmes were of the view that the feedback provided by their educators/facilitators was effective in highlighting where they misunderstood the topic. Futhermore, some of the learners in both

programmes opined that feedback from the facilitators served as a motivation for them in their learning.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the results of the study obtained from the empirical investigation were presented. The presentation of results was done according to the set objectives and instruments employed for the purpose of data collection. The results emanating from the various data collection tools were then synthesised in order to gain a general picture of the results obtained from the various research participants. In the next chapter, the researcher discusses the results in relation to the literature reviewed in chapters 2 and 3. This is done in order to put the study into proper perspective and to relate the results to other empirical studies conducted in the past.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the researcher presented the results of the study obtained from participants in both Ghana and South Africa. The results have given a clear picture of what actually pertains in the field with regard to adult teaching and learning. This chapter is dedicated to a discussion of the study results. In order to achieve this, the results are discussed in relation to the literature reviewed in chapters 2 and 3. In this chapter the discussion of results is done in line with the aims of the study as follows:

- Methods employed in teaching adult learners
- Effectiveness of the teaching methods
- Effectiveness of methods employed in judging learners' progress
- Nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to learners after assessment

6.2 METHODS OF TEACHING ADULT LEARNERS

Teaching and learning lie at the heart of any educational system. The purpose of any educational system is to promote the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes by learners. It has been argued that teaching provides a unique opportunity for the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be transmitted from teachers to learners. In order to successfully achieve this, there is the need for the educator to employ appropriate methods of teaching. In employing appropriate methods of teaching, the educator must bear in mind that adult teaching and learning do no occur in the same manner as those of children. As has been argued by Lawler (2003, cited in Larsen, 2012:2), "adults'…life experiences, education, and personalities increase with age and shapes their outlook on educational experiences, past and present. These experiences also influence their perspective on future educational events, including their motivation to engage in professional development activities". These and other characteristics of adults make their learning unique and different from child learners. As such, the educator should be mindful of the said factors when selecting appropriate methods to facilitate adult learning.

In the words of Larsen (2012:2), “from the literature on teachers of adults and their strategies, we know that it is not unusual to consider general pedagogical and didactical approaches for adult learners”. It is against this backdrop that the researcher sought to identify methods employed by facilitators/educators in both the National Functional Literacy Programme of Ghana and the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Programme of South Africa. The study revealed that the facilitators/educators in both study areas employed a variety of methods to facilitate learning amongst their learners.

One of the methods which was used in both programmes was the discussion method. According to Svinicki and McKeachie (2011:36), discussion as a teaching method is a “…two-way, spoken communication between the teacher and the students, and more importantly, among the students themselves.” For discussions to be successful, learners must be given the opportunity to debate various topics and to probe issues when the need arises. Also views held by different learners must be treated with the same level of significance. Lowman (1995:159) contends that “a useful classroom discussion...consists of student comments separated by frequent probes and clarifications by the teacher that facilitate involvement and development of thinking by the whole group.” In this study, when employing the discussion method in teaching, the educators/facilitators gave room for learners to express their views on the various issues being discussed. The observations made by the researcher are buttressed by Rahman, et al. (2011:86) when they state that:

> the discussion class is intended to be a free give and take between teacher and students and among students on the current topic of concern in the course. It is characterized by probing questions from the teacher designed to elicit student interpretations, opinions, and questions.

Demonstration was another method used in facilitating learning in both programmes. This method was mainly used in teaching numeracy and signatures in the KRG classes visited and the poultry rearing classes visited in NFLP. The use of the number line in teaching numeracy, helping learners to develop their signatures and teaching learners the best way to rear poultry required the facilitators to show in a step-by-step fashion how the tasks are done. According to Chikuni (2003, cited in Iline, 2013:49) demonstration is where the teacher shows how something is done by actually doing it. This implies that demonstration

is useful in a situation where a skill is being imparted. In both lessons (numeracy and poultry rearing), there was the need for the facilitators to illustrate how the tasks are accomplished. It was observed that, in both instances, the whole-process type of demonstration was adopted. According to Chikuni (2003, cited in Iline, 2013:50) in the whole-process demonstration, the teacher demonstrates the full process from the beginning to the end without interruption by learners' participation. This was the case in lessons observed. For instance, in the KRG lessons, an educator illustrated how to use the number line to do additions and subtractions, and in other classes how to develop a signature pattern; in the NFLP, the facilitator showed learners how to rear poultry. All three lessons required the educators/facilitators to show step-by-step how the task was done.

During the study, both the learners and the educators/facilitators conceded that the lecture and demonstration methods were ineffective in promoting learners' participation in lessons. The researcher's observations corroborated the views of the two groups, in that the learners became passive listeners and mere spectators when the lecture and demonstration methods were employed during lessons. This method assumes that the lecturer is regarded as a repository of knowledge and is tasked with transmitting such knowledge to the learners; therefore, little or no room is given for learners to participate in the teaching and learning encounter. Jarvis (2010) commenting on the inherent weakness of the lecture method in promoting the participation of learners in a lesson argues that the inability of learners to question the lecturer could serve as one of the drawbacks of the method.

This observation may be mainly due to the formalised classroom environment which comes with the lecture method. This creates a situation where classroom interaction (between teacher and learners and between learners) is minimised. As such, learners only receive information without actually interrogating the genuineness of the information provided.

6.3 EFFECTIVENESS OF THE TEACHING METHODS EMPLOYED IN TEACHING ADULT LEARNERS

According to Nzeneri (1996:92):

> the effectiveness of any teaching process is usually determined by the teaching – learning outcomes. This means the amount of learning the students have been able to achieve form the teaching and learning encounter. The more effective the teaching, the … greater the amount of learning outcomes/performance.

In order to achieve teaching effectiveness, the educator must amongst other things, select appropriate strategies, methods and techniques of teaching. The researcher is of the view that the methods employed by teachers to teach a subject go a long way to affect the success or otherwise of the teaching and learning encounter. To this end, the researcher defines effectiveness of teaching methods as the ability of teaching methods to effectively promote learners' comprehension of subject-matter, and their participation in the teaching-learning encounter. The definition provided took two main issues into account – subject-matter comprehension and learner participation in a lesson as the basis of the effectiveness of any teaching method.

6.3.1 Subject-Matter Comprehension

In any education programme, every subject or module is guided by specific content which sets it apart from others. The ability of learners to acquire subject-matter content is one of the major concerns facing any teacher. In adult education, there is an urgency to equip learners with specific knowledge and skills due mainly to the immediacy of their application. In order to achieve subject-matter comprehension in the learners, the researcher opines that the educator needs to select appropriate teaching methods. Therefore, in this study, the researcher was interested in finding out amongst other things the effectiveness of the various methods employed by educators/facilitators in the KRG and NFLP in promoting understanding of the topics learners are taught. It has been noted from the previous section that discussion and demonstration were the methods employed by the educators/facilitators in both programmes to promote learning amongst their learners. It was also revealed that the lecture method was employed by the facilitators in the classes visited in the NFLP to promote learning.

The lecture method which was employed in the NFLP was the one most widely used by the facilitators to introduce some of the topics for their lessons. All the facilitators who used the lecture method in their lessons confessed that the method failed to provide learners with an understanding of the content of the subject being taught. Newble and Cannon (1994, cited in Maphosa & Ndebele, 2014:544) argue that lectures are not suited in instances where the intended learning outcomes require the students' application of knowledge and the development of critical thinking skills. In the lessons observed by the researcher in which the lecture method was used, there was no opportunity for learners to apply their acquired knowledge. Therefore, the inability of the lecture method to help learners apply their knowledge is a major limitation of the method with regard to subject-matter comprehension. It also came to light during the interview sessions with the facilitators in classes visited in the NFLP that learners often forgot what the facilitators had taught them as evidenced in their inability to correctly respond to the questions posed to them. This finding corroborates the views of Jarvis (2010:154) in stating that a "lecture may not provide sufficient opportunity for the adult students to remember and internalise all the ideas presented, neither may they always have the opportunity to reflect upon the knowledge transmitted after the presentation". This is in line with Ebbinghaus' (1913, cited in Maphosa & Ndebele, 2014: 544) observation about non remembrance on the part of learners that adults' ability to retain information declines with time unless they are given the opportunity to reinforce and practice what has been learned.

The inability of the learners to easily remember what has been taught using the lecture method makes the method inappropriate to transmit content to adult learners. In order for adult learners to immediately and successfully apply what they have learned, there is the need for them to fully remember various aspects of the content taught. Davies (1971, cited in Jarvis, 2010:152) has claimed that the lecture is not a useful teaching method with less able adult students. In the light of this Jarvis (*ibid*.) further poses this question: if the lecture is no more effective than a variety of other teaching techniques, why is it so frequently employed? In answering this question, he makes the following concession:

> It might be argued that since many educators of adults are not actually trained to perform the teaching role, they do not have evidence of the effectiveness of other approaches; or that they do not have the confidence to attempt other approaches.

To sum up his argument, he makes the following observation about the lecture method: “The maxim ‘if you don’t know a subject well, lecture it’ is perhaps a teacher’s sense of insecurity especially before a class of adults, and the lecture is perhaps a novice’s approach to teaching…”

During lecture sessions, the learners and facilitator play different roles. Maphosa and Ndebele (2010:543) in explaining the roles of learner and lecturer during a lesson note that “the lecturer is active and responsible for the transmission of a specified body of knowledge while students are active receivers of knowledge. Students’ understanding of internalised knowledge is judged by their internalising of the learnt content”. However, in this study, the learners’ inability to correctly respond to questions during lessons in which the lecture method was employed implies that the lecture method failed to impart the content of the various subjects which were taught in the classrooms.

While the lecture method was seen to be ineffective by both educators/facilitators and learners in both programmes in promoting subject-matter comprehension, the discussion and demonstration methods were rated as being effective.

The discussion method gained the most praise amongst the educators/facilitators and learners as promoting subject-matter comprehension. According to Bridges (1988, cited in Abdu-Raheem (2011:295), discussion is concerned with the development of knowledge, understanding or judgment among those people taking part in it. Discussion is an avenue for learners to discuss various issues pertaining to the topic being taught. When learners have the opportunity to engage in discussions guided by the educator/facilitator, they are able to gain a better understanding of the topic being taught. In such engagements, there should be sustained interactions where students “support their ideas with evidence, where their opinions are subject to challenge by their peers as well as the teacher, and where the teacher's ideas are equally open to criticism” (Engle & Ochoa, 1988:47).

The views of Cashin (2011:1) are pertinent to this study. He states that “…discussion provides feedback to you about your students’ acquisition of learning through questions, comments, elaborations, and justifications. These interactions allow you to plumb the

depths of students' understanding". Divergent views from learners not only help them to gain understanding of the subject, they also promote retention of knowledge amongst learners. Learners are able to easily recollect information from the various discussions.

Apart from discussion, demonstration is another method that is deemed to be effective in promoting subject-matter comprehension by both learners and the educators/facilitators. This finding is in line with the views of Barton, et al. (1976:157). In indicating the various benefits of the demonstration method, they noted, among other things, that "demonstrations present subject matter in a way that can be understood easily". This is perhaps because of the step-by-step illustration of the task by the educator/facilitator. Learners take the opportunity to observe while internalising various aspects of the given task. Since demonstration helps to induce the interest of learners in a lesson, it helps learners to recollect the various aspects of the topic or subject which promotes effective internalisation of the subject's content. In this study, the demonstration method was used was in a numeracy lesson where the educator used the "number line" to teach addition and subtraction. After the demonstration, when learners were asked various questions about the topic, all the learners were able to correctly answer the questions. This is in contrast to lecture method which was used in teaching civic education in the NFLP where some of the learners seemed not to understand the topic which they had been taught.

6.2.2 Learner Participation in the Lesson(s)

The participation of learners in a lesson is crucial to the achievement of learning outcomes. This is because learners' participation in lessons has the potential to stimulate their interest in the topic/subject which ultimately increases their motivation to learn. In this study, the researcher was interested in finding out how effective the various methods were in promoting learners' participation in lessons in both the KRG and NFLP

During the study, both the learners and the facilitators in the classes visited in the NFLP conceded that the lecture method was ineffective in promoting learners' participation in lessons. Since the lecturer is regarded as a repository of knowledge and is tasked with transmitting such knowledge to the learners, little or no room is given for learners to participate in the teaching and learning encounter. This creates a situation where

classroom interaction (between teacher and learners and between learners) is minimised. As such, learners only receive information without actually interrogating the genuineness of the information provided.

The effectiveness of the demonstration method in encouraging the learners in the classes visited in both programmes raised mixed reactions. The method was seen to be ineffective in promoting learners' participation in the classes visited in the NFLP. However, in the KRG, it came to light that both the learners and educators deemed the demonstration method as effective in soliciting the participation of the former in lessons. In the NFLP, the researcher's observation corroborated the views of the two groups, in that it was observed that the learners became passive listeners and mere spectators when the demonstration method was employed during lessons. By contrast, in the classes visited in the KRG, the researcher observed that the use of the demonstration method in fact enabled the learners to participate in class activities. From the researcher's standpoint, it became apparent that the facilitator who employed demonstration to facilitate poultry rearing in the NFLP failed to engage the learners meaningfully in the lesson as he focused more on the content to the neglect of learners' participation. However, in the classes visited in the KRG, it was observed that the educators fully engaged the learners in the lesson. The finding in the case of the NFLP corroborates that of Iline (2013:51) in his study of the impacts of the demonstration method in the teaching and learning of hearing-impaired children. He found, among other things, that "there was one-way communication since it was the teacher who was just dishing out the information. Pupils were also not involved during the demonstrations. The demonstrations were characterised by the teacher's dominance". This was also the case in this study. While the facilitators in the classes sampled in the NFLP illustrated how the given tasks are carried out, learners observed the procedures with no room for questions.

While the demonstration method was deemed inappropriate by the facilitators and learners in the classes sampled in the NFLP, the opposite was the case in the KRG. It has been noted that both the educators and learners in the classes visited in the KRG were of the view that the demonstration method indeed enabled the latter to participate in class activities. This finding is supported by Hackathorn, Solomon, Blankmeyer, Tennial

and Garczynski (2011:43) who note that demonstration "is slightly more active than lecture because the students are able to get involved and see first-hand how the construct or phenomenon presents itself in the real world". It can be said that the question and answer technique employed by the facilitators in the classes visited in the KRG enabled the learners and educators to engage in a meaningful discourse which ultimately promoted the participation of the former in the lessons.

The discussion method was seen to be effective in promoting learners' participation in lessons in the classes visited in both programmes. Oyedeji (1996, cited in Abdu-Raheem, 2011:294) asserts that the discussion method works on the principle that the knowledge and ideas of several people are more likely to find solutions or answers to specified problems or topics. According to Lowman (1995:164), "in addition to clarifying content, teaching rational thinking, and highlighting affective judgments, discussion is particularly effective at increasing student involvement and active learning in classes". Increasing learners' involvement in lessons seems to enhance the activeness of learners in their own learning. According to Cashin (2011:1):

> As a teaching method, discussion permits students to be active in their own learning, which increases their motivation to learn and makes the process more interesting. And finally, discussion provides feedback to you about your students' acquisition of learning through questions, comments, elaborations, and justifications. These interactions allow you to plumb the depths of students' understanding.

While making learners active in their learning, the discussion method also equips learners with many skills. In the words of Cashin (*ibid*.:1):

> Discussion can help students acquire better communication skills as they learn to present their ideas clearly and briefly; it also provides opportunities to practice listening to, and following what, others are saying. In addition, discussions can contribute to students' affective development by increasing their interest in a variety of subjects, helping to clarify their values, and aiding in recognising – and perhaps changing – some attitudes…

From the foregoing, it can be deduced that when the teacher employs the discussion method in the classroom, it enables the learners to provide different insights on a given topic. This makes them active participants in the teaching and learning encounter. Their involvement makes their learning meaningful and facilitates the achievement of desired

learning outcomes. The discussion method is in line with the constructivist view of learning where learners must be enabled to construct meaning for themselves.

6.4 EFFECTIVENESS OF ASSESSMENT METHODS EMPLOYED TO JUDGE LEARNERS' PROGRESS

In this section the researcher discusses the results of the study generated on the effectiveness of the assessment methods used to judge learners' progress in both the NFLP and KRG.

Assessment is a crucial part of any effective teaching and learning encounter. Assessment in education refers to any or activity that is employed to collect information about the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of a learner or group of learners (Kellaghan & Greaney, 2001:19). Caffrey (2009:1) adds that educational assessment is a complex undertaking involving collecting and analyzing data to support decision-making about students and the evaluation of academic programmes and educational policies. In this study, the researcher sought to find out the methods employed in judging learners' progress and their effectiveness thereof.

The study found that assessment in both programmes was formative in nature. In the KRG however summative assessment was employed prior to learners' completion of the programme in the form of portfolio.

In this study, the researcher observed that assessment used in both programmes was used as a means to provide feedback to the learners. In the KRG it was revealed that portfolio, classwork, and homework were employed at different stages to assess learners' progress.

With regard to the portfolio, it came to light that learners in the KRG had to respond to and pass the various items in this assessment tool before they could complete the programme. Therefore, it was realised that portfolio as an assessment method in the KRG was not a once-off activity since learners were required to respond to the various items contained in it from time-time till the final submission date.

In this, it was found that the educators gave learners the opportunity to make corrections in their portfolios which served as a way to promote effective teaching and learning.

It therefore came as no surprise when the educators and learners in the sampled classes in the KRG maintained that the portfolio as an assessment method was effective in helping them to know the latter's progress with regard to meeting the learning outcomes. By referring from time-to-time to their responses to the various items in the portfolio, the learners were able to reflect meaningfully on their responses and make changes where necessary. This in a way means that the learners were able to think critically about their responses before the final submission. This finding corroborates the finding by Sharifi and Hassaskhah (2011:218) in their study of the role of portfolio assessment and reflection on process writing. The researchers found that the use of portfolio in assessment did help students to enhance their reflective skills and to develop a sense of responsibility for their own professional development. In addition, it was found that majority (75%) of the respondents felt that portfolios helped them to become aware of their strengths and weaknesses, and that they helped them to become independent learners. In the same vein majority (80%) of the respondents indicated that portfolio helped to promote critical thinking.

Homework was another method used to assess learners in the KRG to assess the progress of the learners. Using this method, the educators gave learners some tasks to be completed at home. This is in line with Cooper's (1989) definition of homework as tasks given to students by their teachers that are meant to be done during non-school hours. This gives learners the opportunity to make reference to their lesson notes or books where necessary and to reflect on what was taught in class. In the classes visited in the KRG, both the educators and learners asserted that homework as an assessment method was effective in judging their progress and as such enhances the latter's learning. This is in line with Carr's (2013:169) assertion that "when utilized properly, homework can be a valuable tool for reinforcing learning that takes place in the classroom". He goes further to say that research has demonstrated that homework can be an effective teaching tool for all types of students. For instance, in a meta-analysis of the effectiveness of homework, Cooper (2006:1) found that there is "generally consistent evidence for a

positive influence of homework on achievement". This is in line with the findings of this study in that the learners sampled in the KRG maintained that when they are given homework it serves to enhance their learning.

The study revealed that in the classes visited in both programmes, questioning was occasionally used to judge learners' progress during and after lessons. According to Ecclestone (2006:18) "classroom questioning extends teachers' understanding of the aim of diagnostic and formative assessment into an area that they usually construe as teaching". This means that questioning is an on-going assessment which helps the teacher to identify areas of the topic that learners did not fully comprehend which in-turn informs teaching. Questioning is perhaps the most immediate and formative way for a teacher to find out whether or not his/her teaching has been successful i.e. promoting effective learning. This is because questioning can be a tool to for the educator to check whether learners understood what is being taught while the lesson is still in progress. In this study it came to light that questioning took place while the lesson was in place and offered the educators/facilitators the chance to determine whether or not learners have understood what had been taught.

Alexander (2004, cited in Ecclestone (2006:18) draws together a number of school-based studies which sees questioning as integral to effective teaching and a key element of 'dialogue of enquiry'. The researcher sees "dialogue of enquiry" as a strategy that seeks to elicit answers from learners on questions posed to them whereby such answers serve as a basis for further reflection. In this case the teacher is in constant dialogue with the learners and is not seen as a knowing all the answers to questions. In fact questioning should evoke discussions from students and also should help tackle the problem at hand.

6.5 NATURE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF FEEDBACK PROVIDED TO LEARNERS AFTER ASSESSMENT

Feedback like assessment is a very important element in the teaching and learning encounter. The importance of feedback in effective teaching and learning is discussed by Hattie and Timperley as follows:

> Feedback has no effect in a vacuum; to be powerful in its effect, there must be a learning context to which feedback is addressed. It is but part of the teaching process and is that which happens second – after a student has responded to initial instruction – when information is provided regarding some aspect(s) of the student's task performance. It is most powerful when it addresses faulty interpretations, not a total lack of understanding. Under the latter circumstance, it may even be threatening to a student.

Price, et al. (2010:278) assert that feedback

> is a generic term which disguises multiple purposes which are often not explicitly acknowledged. The roles attributed to feedback fall broadly into five, but not entirely delineated discrete, categories: correction, reinforcement, forensic diagnosis, benchmarking and longitudinal development (feed-forward), the latter being differentiated by a temporal dimension of being forward-looking rather than concerned with work already carried out.

In this study the researcher found that feedback constituted a crucial part of the entire teaching and learning encounter. Hattie and Timperley (2007:82) suggest that "it is useful to consider a continuum of instruction and feedback. At one end of the continuum is a clear distinction between providing instruction and providing feedback".

The study revealed that the educators/facilitators who participated in the study provided prompt feedback to the learners after assessment. Again it was found that feedbacks while provided verbally and in written form, they were positive and encouraging. This is in line with the suggestion provided by Derrick and Ecclestone (2006:17):

> Feedback should be prompt, encouraging, give clear reasons for success or failure and constructive, practical guidance about how to improve. It should mostly be given privately, at least at first. Feedback should offer facts and descriptions of the performance, not opinions about it. Teachers should not simply give qualitative comments, even if they are positive, and they should resist the temptation to correct the work themselves. Finally, the process of determining what needs to be done next, to build on success or to correct mistakes, should be agreed with the

learner. This is partly to ensure that they understand the teacher's advice, not least so that feedback will affect future learning positively.

While feedback was prompt in all classes visited, the researcher observed that feedback provided an avenue for the learners and educators/facilitators to engage in a dialogue. This dialogue enabled the learners to explain areas of the content of the subject that the failed to fully comprehend as evidenced in their assessment results. Learners intimated that feedback provided to them enhanced their learning and served as a motivational tool in their learning. This corroborates the findings of Kluger and DeNisi's (1996:254) meta-analysis of 131 studies on feedback where the majority of which were not classroom-based. The researchers reported that, for the most part, feedback interventions improved performance, but over one-third of feedback interventions decreased performance. Offering an explanation as to why some of the feedback provided decreased learners' performance, they argued that the effectiveness feedback interventions decreases if the feedback draws attention closer to the self, and away from the task. This supports the findings of this study in that the educators/facilitators were of the view that when providing feedback to their learners, they were tactful so that some of the comments they provided on learners' work would not discourage them. Akkuzu's (2014:38) comment on the role of feedback in promoting effective learning amongst student teachers is crucial to this study. In Akkuzu's view "feedback serves as a door for student teachers to open in order to obtain a variety of data about themselves through their own eyes and through the eyes of others. In essence, feedback involves making the experiences and actions of student teachers visible and comprehensible".

6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided an opportunity for the researcher discuss the results of the study in the light of the reviewed literature. The discussion was done in line with the stated objectives. It the discussion of the results was done in order to shed more light on the study results with regards available literature on the problem under investigation. In the next chapter, the researcher offers a summary and conclusion to the entire study. Recommendations are also made based on the findings and central problem of the study.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher provides a summary and highlights the major findings of the entire study. The chapter also highlights the researcher's thoughts how best to teach adult learners in adult literacy classes in the light of the findings of the study. Since this study falls under two main fields i.e. adult education and curriculum studies, the researcher discusses some implications of the study for the two identified fields. The chapter also provides a conclusion to the study. Finally, some recommendations are suggested based on the findings of the study.

7.2 SUMMARY

There is a drive to equip illiterate adults in Ghana and South Africa with requisite knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order for them to function properly in their day-to-day activities. This has culminated in the implementation of several literacy and numeracy campaigns in both countries. Of particular concern to this study are the National Functional Literacy Programme of Ghana and the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign of South Africa. Both programmes have witnessed the participation of many illiterate adults.

It is, however, important to note that learning in adulthood is a very complex process. This is because adult learners due to their age and lived experiences have developed certain prejudices, beliefs and values which make acquisition and assimilation of new and contradictory information difficult. Therefore, it behooves the educator to employ approaches, methods, and techniques suitable for facilitating learning amongst adults. This study is premised on the assumption that the methods employed by educators to teach adult learners can either enhance or impede their learning. Given this backdrop, the overriding aim of this study was to examine the effectiveness of the various methods used in facilitating learning amongst adult learners in the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Project (KRG) of South Africa and the National Functional Literacy Programme (NFLP) of Ghana.

Chapter 1 therefore sought to shed more light on the problem under investigation. It was mentioned that adults, due to the unique characteristics (age, experience, and social background) they bring to the learning situation, require methods different from what have traditionally been used to teach young learners. The educator in teaching adult learners is faced with a myriad of decisions, notable amongst which are the methods to employ in promoting effective learning among the latter. Therefore, this study sought to examine the effectiveness of the methods employed in teaching learners in the National Functional Literacy Programme of Ghana and the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign of South Africa.

Chapter 2 was devoted to a discussion on the theoretical framework guiding the study as well a review of literature of learning in general and adult learning in particular. Various learning theories were reviewed in order to gain a general picture of the nature of learning. Adult learning theories were also appraised to provide a basis for understanding how teaching of adults could take place. Notable among the adult learning theories reviewed are andragogy, self-directed learning, and transformational learning theory. From the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, it was revealed that learning in adulthood is very different from that of childhood. This therefore gives credence to the idea that the process of teaching adults should be different from that of children.

In Chapter 3, the concept of teaching was delved into to provide an understanding of the process of teaching in general. The various approaches to, types as well as styles of teaching were discussed in the chapter. The various characteristics of adults were discussed in order to understand the intricacies of teaching in adult learning. Selected methods of teaching were reviewed to guide the researcher in determining suitable methods of teaching adult learners. Also a discussion on assessment and feedback were provided in this chapter. The literature reviewed on teaching highlighted the notion that it is possible to consider general pedagogical and instructional methodologies for adults (Jarvis, 2010).

Chapter 4 provided information of how the empirical investigation was carried out. It was indicated that the qualitative research approach was adopted where the multiple-case study research design was employed for the study. The participants were purposively

selected to constitute the sample for the study. In order to generate data from the participants, the researcher employed the unstructured observation guide, interview schedule, and focus-group discussion as data collection tools.

In Chapter 5, the results of the study were presented. The presentation of results was done in line with the stated aims of the study. Due to the multiple data collection tools used in the study, data generated from each instrument was presented separately in order to aid easy comprehension.

The discussion of the results was captured in chapter 6. This chapter offered the researcher the opportunity to compare the results from the two programmes in the light of the reviewed literature on the problem under investigation. The discussion of results was done under various themes and in line with the stated aims of the study.

Finally, Chapter 7 provides a summary of the major findings of the study. The researcher's reflections on how best to facilitate adult learning are highlighted in the light of the findings of the study and literature reviewed. The chapter also discusses the implications of the study for the fields of adult education and curriculum studies. Some limitations encountered during the study are highlighted while the conclusion to the entire study is provided. The chapter ends with some recommendations which are based on the findings of the study.

7.2.1 Summary of Major Findings

After an extensive empirical investigation into the methods of teaching adult learners in adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa, and based on the various aims, the study made several findings which are indicated in the following sub-sections:

7.2.1.1 Methods of teaching adult learners in the KRG and NFLP

The facilitators in both study areas employed a variety of methods to facilitate learning amongst their learners. In South Africa, it came to light that demonstration and discussion were the methods employed by the educators to promote learning amongst their learners. In Ghana, it was found that the facilitators who participated in the study used lecture,

demonstration and discussion methods in teaching the learners. However, in both the NFLP and KRG the facilitators used the teaching methods together with questioning.

7.2.1.2 Effectiveness of the teaching methods employed in promoting subject-matter comprehension

In terms of how well the various methods employed promoted subject-matter comprehension in the learners, the researcher found that in both programmes both the learners and educators/facilitators opined that the discussion and demonstration were effective in promoting subject-matter comprehension. The researcher also observed that the said methods indeed enabled learners to understand the content that the facilitator sought to transmit. This is evident in the fact that the learners were able to respond to the various questions posed by the facilitators adequately. However, in Ghana, where the lecture method was also used to facilitate learning, it was realised that the method was deemed inappropriate by both the facilitators and learners. This was also the observation made by the researcher as many of the learners were not able to correctly answer questions posed to them during and after lessons.

7.2.1.3 Effectiveness of the teaching methods employed in promoting learners' participation in lessons

With regard to the effectiveness of the teaching methods employed in both programmes in promoting learner participation, both the learners and the facilitators in the NFLP conceded that the lecture and demonstration methods failed to promote learner participation in the classroom. The observation of the researcher corroborated the views of the two groups, in that it was observed that the learners became passive listeners when the lecture and demonstration methods were employed during lessons. However, the use of the demonstration method to promote learning in the classes visited in the KRG was rated as effective by both the learners and educators. The discussion method was also seen to be effective in promoting learners' participation in lessons by both the educators/facilitators and learners in both programmes. The researcher's observation also validated the views of the facilitators and learners. The researcher observed that

when the discussion method was used in teaching the learners, they were actively involved in the lesson.

7.2.1.4 Effectiveness of the methods employed to judge learners' progress

Assessment formed an integral part of the entire teaching and learning encounter in both programmes. In the KRG, the main forms of assessment in all four classes visited were portfolio and homework. Both the learners and educators however intimated that oral questioning was occasionally used by the latter to judge learners' comprehension of the subject-matter during and after lessons. On the other hand, in the NLFP, it was found that assessment in all classes visited was mainly in the form of oral questioning. Reading tests, oral tests, and alphabet identification were the forms of class assignments used by the facilitators.

Both facilitators and learners in the NFLP indicated that the assessment method(s) were effective in judging learners' progress. Similarly, facilitators and learners in the KRG indicated that the assessment methods were effective in assessing learning. However, it was observed that in the NFLP, assessment was not standardised as the same questions were not posed to all learners in the classroom. Different learners were required to answer different questions. The absence of standardisation of assessment for all learners in a class was seen to be a major setback in assessment. This is because assessment was mainly oral and some instances learners were required to write answers on the board. This strategy affected the ability of learners to refer to previous assessments as a form of revision.

7.2.1.5 Nature and effectiveness of feedback provided to learners after assessment

In all classes visited in Ghana and South Africa, feedback from the educators/facilitators on learners' work was provided immediately after learners had been assessed. However, in the NFLP, it was found that feedback to learners was mainly verbal which means that facilitators provided oral corrective comments on the answers provided by the learners. This was also the case in the KRG as both the educators and learners stressed that verbal feedback was provided by the former occasionally after assessment. However, in the KRG it was revealed that feedback was also sometimes written. In both programmes, the

educators/facilitators declared that they used praise to motivate learners who performed well and constructive comments to help those who performed poorly in assessment.

Educators/facilitators in both the KRG and NFLP indicated that the feedback provided was effective in the sense that it helped learners to identify areas where they went wrong. The feedback provided in the view of the facilitators helped them to address any gaps in learning. The learners in both programmes were of the view that the feedback provided by their facilitators was effective in highlighting where they misunderstood the topic. In addition, some of the learners in both programmes opined that feedback from the facilitators served as a motivation for them in their learning.

7.3 RESEARCHER'S REFLECTIONS ON HOW BEST TO FACILITATE ADULT LEARNING

Many theories abound in the field of adult education about how adults learn and how best adult learning can be facilitated (Knowles, 1980; Mezirow, 1978; Freire, 1972). It has been argued that adult learners, due to their unique characteristics, learn differently from young learners. While this assumption has generated a lot of debate, it was not the goal of the researcher to affirm or refute such assertion. Instead, the researcher sought to reflect on the how best to facilitate adult learning in the light of the findings. The views of the researcher are largely informed by the works of many theorists. Notable amongst them is the work of Malcolm Knowles and Paulo Freire. Knowles' (1980) assumptions about the adult learner and principles of adult learning and Freire's (1972) idea of critical reflection are relevant to the researcher's reflections. The discussion in this section is comprised of four aspects – researcher's assumptions of adult learning, principles of learning, diagrammatical representation of facilitation of adult learning, and the guidelines for effective practice.

At this juncture it is important to theorise about the nature of learning in order to get a basis for proposed principles. Learning as has been noted in Chapter 2 has the following characteristics:

1. Learning is a process, not a product. However, because this process takes place in the mind, we can only infer that it has occurred from students' products and performances.
2. Learning involves change in knowledge, beliefs, behaviours, and attitudes. This change unfolds over time; it is not fleeting but rather has a lasting impact on how students think and act.
3. Learning is not something done to students, but rather something that students themselves do. It is the direct result of how students interpret and respond to their experiences-conscious and unconscious, past and present (Ambrose et al, 2010:1).

Learning should promote change in peoples' knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Change should be the ultimate objective of learning and for that matter the desired product of the entire learning process. Experience is also important in the learning process. Its centrality in learning and particularly adult learning has been to some extent the basis upon which many learning programmes are developed. It is true that learners' experiences can be crucial to the learning situation; however, for learners to be able to effectively make adequate meaning of their experiences depends on how best the teacher is able to help learners to connect their past or present experiences with new ones. The researcher opines that learning in adulthood comprises the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that either challenges or affirms already existing ones which ultimately leads to a change in behaviour.

Assumptions of Adult Learning

In the light of the foregoing, the researcher makes the following assumptions about adult learning:

- Adult learning entails the acquisition of factual information, critical reflection on such information and then its practical use. The goal of adult education, it must be emphasised, is to provide knowledge to adult learners, and develop their skills and attitudes.
- Facilitating adult learning is a process of shared responsibility where the educator and learner play equal roles in the teaching and learning encounter.

- Teaching methods employed in adult learning should promote, in the initial stages, the acquisition of facts, then a critical reflection on such facts which should be in conjunction with learners' related experiences, and then finally a practical application of what has been learned. As a result, both teacher-centred and learner-centred approaches are appropriate for teaching adult learners. Therefore, the educator's role is not only to create a conducive environment for learning to occur, but also to use the appropriate combination of teaching methods in imparting knowledge, skills, and attitudes to learners.
- Learning in adulthood becomes effective if it is practical and real-life based which gives learners an opportunity to transfer their learning to real-life situations which they are confronted with.

Principles of adult learning

These assumptions guided the researcher to establish some principles about how best to facilitate adult learning. The principles, even though designed for adult teaching and learning, can be applied to other groups of learners. Such an idea is grounded in the belief that learning whether in adulthood, youth, or childhood involves some general processes as follows:

- Learning involves a transmitter (the one doing the imparting i.e. an individual or event) and a receiver (the one to whom the imparting is directed at either consciously or unconsciously)
- Learning involves the acquisition of desired knowledge, skills, and attitudes.
- Learning leads to a change in the behaviour even though the relative permanence of such change cannot be easily determined.

Graphical Representation of Facilitation of Adult Learning

Facilitation of adult learning from the researcher's standpoint is graphically represented in Figure 7.1.

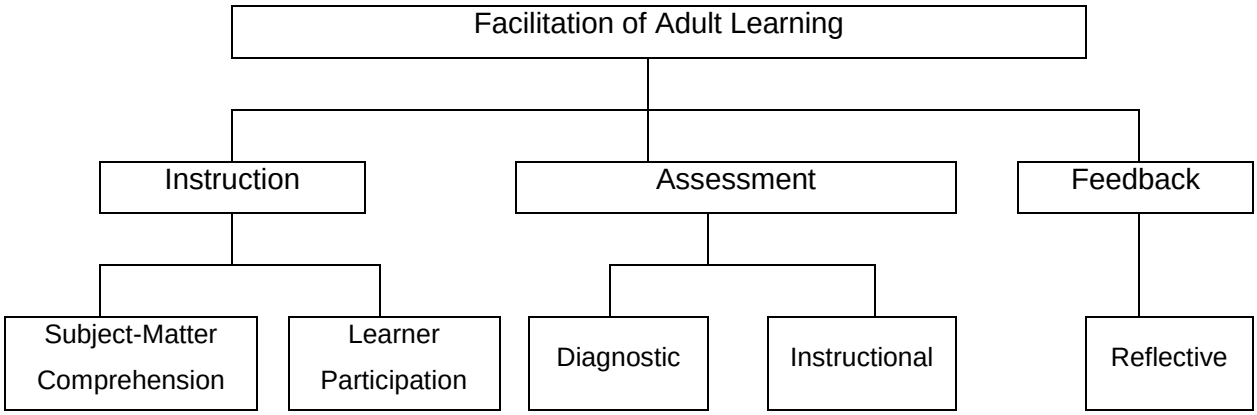


Figure 7.1: Graphical representation of facilitation of adult learning

Explanation of the Components

The diagram provided above gives a three-tier representation of the teaching process. The representation is based on three main components (instruction, assessment, and feedback). This section provides an explanation of main and sub-components of the representation.

Instruction

Instruction constitutes one of the main components of the researcher's view on facilitation of adult learning. It is premised on the belief that instruction provides the opportunity for the educator to present a wide variety of information/stimuli to learners which hitherto was largely unknown to them. Such information then helps to evoke certain thought processes in the learners which may ultimately lead to a change in behavior or in perspective. Instruction has been defined by many educational researchers. However, the operational definition provided by the researcher in Chapter 3 is pertinent to this model. It has been noted that teaching refers to a transaction between individuals whereby one party called the educator creates the conditions necessary for knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be transmitted to the other party referred to as the learner. Teaching can also be defined as a transaction between two parties whereby one party known as the teacher presents a variety of stimuli with the intension of bringing about a change in the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the other party known as the learner. Ideally, teaching should provide an opportunity for factual information (content) to be presented to the learner. However,

teaching is incomplete when the presentation of such information fails to arouse thought processes which enable learners to examine such information and construct their own meaning from it with guided by the teacher from it. Effective teaching seeks to achieve two main goals: subject-matter comprehension and learner participation. These two goals it is opined would eventually promote effective learning.

Subject-matter comprehension

Every subject/course/discipline is guided by specific content that sets it apart from others. The content of a subject can also be referred to as the syllabus. Content or syllabus can be defined as a structured arrangement of activities designed to equip learners with desired knowledge, skills, and attitudes in a particular subject. In adult education it is important to design subject content around the needs of the learners. This is because adult learners come to the learning situation with a myriad of expectations and need that must be met. Subject-matter comprehension therefore refers to an in-depth understanding about the content of a subject.

Subject-matter comprehension represents one of the most important elements for determining whether or not teaching was effective. Therefore, in order for a learner to be considered to be proficient in a given subject/course/discipline, that learner should have acquired the desired knowledge, skills, and attitudes. It is important at this point to concede that adult learning is premised on the belief that adults by virtue of their lived experiences come to learning situation with a vast reserve of knowledge, skills, and attitudes which can be harnessed by the educator to promote effective learning. Therefore, the teaching of the subject content by the educator should take into account the lived experiences of the learners. This would help them to ‘practicalise’ learning which would in turn lead to a better understanding of the subject-matter.

In helping adults to learn, the educator must not be seen as a transmitter of information; rather the role of the educator must change to that of a facilitator. As a facilitator, the educator is tasked with the responsibility of guiding the entire adult learning process. The educator must provide a variety of information about a given topic for adult learners to construct meaning for themselves. This means that the educator is not necessarily a

repository of information. In this situation, dialogue and mutual respect between the educator and learners is essential in the adult teaching and learning encounter. The educator should constantly strive to strike a balance between what he/she knows or is contained in the syllabus and what individual learners know. This way the attention moves away from the educator to the learners.

Learner Participation

The participation of learners in class activities is at the heart of any adult education programme. The adult educator must seek to promote a participative classroom environment where all learners are actively involved in all activities geared towards promoting learning. This requires the educator to create a conducive environment for all learners in the class to contribute to the lesson. The educator can employ a variety of strategies to create such an environment. One strategy would be to employ teaching methods which promote learners' active participation in the lesson. Methods such as discussion and questioning (from the educator to learners and vice versa) could be used to solicit the involvement of learners in the lesson. Informing these methods is the belief that democratisation of the class is crucial to achieving learners' participation in lessons. By democratisation the researcher means that all learners must have equal rights and must be treated equally in the classroom. Freedom of speech should be a norm in the class where learners have no fear of expression. This implies that all learners' views must be accepted and respected. In this regard, learners must be helped to assume a much greater responsibility for their learning. The onus for learning in any adult education programme should be on the learner and not the educator. The role of the educator, in such an instance, should be to guide the learning process. This does not relegate the role of the educator in the classroom. Assuming the role of a guide means that the role of the educator as an expert and transmitter of information changes to that of a conductor. In this sense, adult learning is likened to a musical orchestra where the conductor pieces together many talents and harmonies into a musical masterpiece. In the same vein, the adult educator should piece together various experiences and views of learners into a meaningful discourse. This ultimately implies that learners should be actively involved in all class activities.

Instructional Guidelines

The following guidelines are suggested on how to promote effective instruction for adult learners:

- The educator should plan the learning outcomes with the learners. The learning outcomes should be designed keeping in mind the learning needs of adult learners. Learning needs are crucial because adult learners require immediate application of the knowledge and skills acquired from education and training programmes.
- The educator should create a conducive environment for learning. By conducive environment, the author opines that the classroom environment should be less formalised. In the researcher's view, a less formalised classroom environment promotes ease amongst learners and encourages a sense of personal responsibility for their actions in the teaching and learning encounter. In this regard, the seating arrangement in the classroom and the relationship between the educator and learners and amongst learners must be taken into account. Firstly, seating arrangements in the classroom should be such that the educator can freely move around and have easy access to all the learners. The horse-shoe and the informal seating arrangements are suggested. Such seating arrangements increase the attention span for all learners since they all have equal access to the educator. regarding the educator-learner and learner-learner relationship, it is the belief of the researcher that cordial relationships would encourage participation of the learners in the classroom.
- The educator should introduce learners to the topic of the lesson by providing some factual information about the topic.
- The educator should then create a situation where adult learners reflect on such information provided. By reflection, the researcher opines that learners must be given the opportunity to take the given information into serious consideration in order to affirm or deny aspects of/entire information provided.
- After learners have reflected on the information provided by the educator, the educator should create the environment where learners engage in dialogue on the topic. In this situation, the educator acts as a guide or mediator in the entire process. Where

necessary the educator can chip in to provide additional information on the topic in order to enhance the discussion amongst the learners.

- The educator should then help the learners to reach meaningful conclusions from the discussions made. Such conclusions should not be imposed on learners but the educator should allow learners to reach their own conclusions based on the information provided, their reflection on such information, and finally the dialogic encounter with other learners. This way, adult learners are able to construct meaning for themselves.

Assessment

Assessment constitutes another major component of the graphical representation of teaching adult learners. The researcher contends that assessment of learning should form an integral part of any adult education programme. The researcher defines assessment as any activity intended to measure the extent to which the desired knowledge, skills, and attitudes have been acquired by learners. Assessment provides an avenue for both the educator and learners to determine the achievement of stated learning outcomes. Therefore, assessment should be regarded as *sine qua non* in any educational programme. Adult education, in which programmes which are designed to equip adult learners with certain desired knowledge, skills, and attitudes for immediate application, requires that mechanisms be put in place to determine whether or not the intended learning outcomes have been achieved. In order to achieve this, the educator must ensure that there is standardisation and regularity in assessment. Regularity means that assessment should be on-going in that it must take place as many times as possible to help both the learner and educator to enhance the chances of achieving the stated learning outcomes. By standardisation the researcher means that the same assessment criteria should be applied to all learners. Standardisation and regularity would help to promote reliability of the assessment results. As such, assessment in adult learning must ultimately serve two purposes: instructional and diagnostic.

The constructivist view of learning as meaning-making is very pertinent to this model. Robyler (2006) contends that knowledge is not transmitted but constructed through hands-on activities or personal experience which generates knowledge. In support of this

view, Young (1993:45) states that to satisfy the test of authenticity, situations must at least have some of the important characteristics of real-life problem solving, including ill-structured complex goals, an opportunity for the detection of relevant versus irrelevant information, active/generative engagement in finding and defining problems as well as in finding solutions to them, involvement in the student's beliefs and values, and an opportunity to engage in collaborative interpersonal activities. Assessment of adult learning should, therefore, seek to unearth learners' ability to properly construct meaning from a variety of given situations. The focus of assessment should not be to judge learners' performance but to enable learners to adequately reflect on their previous knowledge and beliefs in the light of the content of the subject.

Instructional Assessment

As the name implies instructional assessment takes place during instruction and helps the educator to reflect on and modify instruction to meet the learners' needs. Caffrey (2009) notes that instructional assessments are employed to streamline teaching to meet students' needs. Caffrey further contends that there is the need to employ both formal and informal instructional assessments which must ideally complement each other. Taking this view into perspective, instructional assessment in adult learning must entail both informal and formal assessment where various methods are employed to make judgements about the learners' work. Teaching in adult education contexts should be a reflective process whereby the educator assesses his teaching methodology from time to time. Instructional assessment therefore offers the educator an opportunity to properly examine his teaching approach in the light of learners' performances. This is because when teaching fails to yield the desired learning objectives in a lesson, the educator can move swiftly to amend his teaching approach to meet the needs of the learners.

Diagnostic Assessment

The goal of any learning programme is to achieve stated learning outcomes. This implies that the desired knowledge, skills, and attitudes should be adequately acquired by the learners. However, there are instances where learners fail to do this. In order to arrest this problem, educators put in place mechanisms to establish areas of the course/subject

where learners experience difficulty. This brings diagnostic assessment into the domain of teaching and learning. The term, diagnostic assessment, refers to any assessment that seeks to identify areas of the subject or course that learners have difficulties. By so doing, the educator can devise ways to address such difficulties.

In adult education, the immediacy of application of learning by the learners makes diagnostic assessment crucial to the attainment of learning outcomes. This is because through diagnostic assessment, the educator is able to gather enough information about learners' difficulties with the content of the course and thus be in a better position to address them. In order to succeed in properly diagnosing areas of the course where learners have difficulties, it is imperative for assessment to be on-going. This means that assessment should form part of teaching and learning. This implies that assessment should not be used for progression purposes but for detecting learning difficulties with regard to the curriculum.

Assessment Guidelines

When conducting assessment for adult learners, the following guidelines should be followed:

- The educator is responsible for initiating the assessment process. However, adult learners should be involved in the planning of the assessment process. The process of assessment begins with need to judge learners' internalisation of the content of the subject being taught. The educator then designs assessment tools to make such judgments.
- Assessment must essentially be conducted during teaching and learning. This is because the educator is able to identify areas of the content of the topic that learners find difficult to comprehend.
- Questioning should be an integral part of the assessment process. Questioning is seen as an informal method of assessing learners' comprehension of the subject-matter.
- During the dialogue stage of the instruction process, the educator can observe and assess learners' ability to articulate their viewpoints.

- Formal assessment should take the form of projects where learners work in groups to solve a given problem. The educator is able to identify whether or not learners have understood the subject-matter, and is then able to revise his teaching approaches, if necessary.

Feedback

Teaching and learning is incomplete if learners are not provided with information about their progress in achieving the stated learning outcomes. In adult education, it is imperative for learners to know how they are progressing with their learning. However, the educator must take great caution when it comes to providing adults with feedback on their learning. This is because inappropriate feedback could adversely affect the learner's motivation, which may lead to his/her subsequent withdrawal from the programme. According to Rogers (2001) providing feedback and criticism, praising and commenting are all so important in learning that the topic inexhaustible. Rogers contends that teaching adults is complicated by the difficulty of 'criticising' an equal while not giving the right quantity or quality of feedback is one of the main reasons why adult learning fails. Adult learners therefore require feedback that motivates them in their learning. As such, feedback provided to the learners should provide them with information that helps them to address any learning difficulties they might have with the content of the course. The researcher proposes that feedback provided to adult learners should help learners to adequately reflect on their meaning-making processes.

Reflective Feedback

Feedback provided to learners in adult education programmes should be reflective and not corrective as is the case in other learning programmes. The views of the constructivists buttress the researcher's stance on the reflectivity of feedback in adult education. The constructivists argue that in order for effective learning to take place learners should be helped to construct their own meaning from the various information provided by the educator. This means that meaning making is subjective and multiple. As such when different learners are presented with the same information, each learner may make different meanings from the other. Taber's (2006) contends that knowledge is a

construct of the learner. Learning is something done by the learners and not something imposed on the learner. Reflection should play a critical part of learning where learners compare their past knowledge to new knowledge presented to them.

Knowles (1980) contends that adult learners come to the learning situation with a rich store of experiences as well as entrenched beliefs, values and perspectives. Therefore, when teaching adult learners, the educator should create an environment where learners reflect on the new information presented to them in the light of their lived experiences. As a result, in providing feedback the educator should be more concerned about how well learners make meaning from a given situation and how such meaning making fits into the general worldview. When providing reflective feedback, the educator should ask learners questions which help them to put their meaning-making structures into perspective. By so doing, the educator does not provide corrective information on learners' work but seeks to help learners reflect on the answers they have provided and their thought processes.

Guidelines for providing feedback to adult learners

The following guidelines should be followed when providing feedback:

- Feedback should be provided immediately after assessment. Such celerity would help learners to easily connect the educator's comments with their work which in turn enhances their future performance.
- Feedback should ideally be both written and oral in nature and should provide details about the learners' work. Oral feedback should be provided during question and answer sessions in the instructional process while written feedback should be given on the written work of learners. Both kinds of feedback should ideally entail detailed diagnosis of the learners' difficulties with the content and should highlight areas for redress.
- Feedback should provide the opportunity for the learners to reflect on their work and for the educator to reflect on his teaching approach. Learners should take the educator's comments into perspective and draw their own conclusions from their work and the comments provided.

- Feedback should be dialogic in nature and should encourage learners to raise questions or concerns about their assessment results. The educator should be in a position to address the various concerns of the learners about the assessment results.

7.4 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY FOR FIELD OF ADULT EDUCATION

One field under which this study is based is that of adult education. It is therefore pertinent for the researcher to discuss the implications of the study for the given field. However, before the implications of the study for adult education can be discussed it is important to give an overview of the field. At this juncture a definition of the term would help to provide some insight into the field. According to the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO, 1976, cited in Bown & Tomori, 1979:269) adult education refers to:

> The entire body of organised educational processes, whatever the content, level and methods, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges or universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adults by the societies to which they belong develop their abilities enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications and bring about changes in their attitude or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full-personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic, and cultural development.

This definition properly explicates adult education as a field of practice. Taking a cue from the above definition, the researcher defines adult education as encompassing all activities directed towards enhancing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of adults. It can be deduced from the definitions provided above that the task of the adult educator is the promotion of effective learning among adult learners. Therefore, the educator is tasked, among other things, with identifying appropriate methods to facilitate effective learning among adults. One of the pivotal assumptions of this study is that the methods employed by educators in teaching adult learners can either promote or impede effective learning among such learners. This study therefore has far reaching implications for the field of adult education in many respects. First of all, the study revealed that where facilitators in classes studied in the NFLP employed the lecture method, this failed to promote subject-matter comprehension by and the participation of learners in the lessons. This serves to inform adult educators that the lecture method, even though economical in its use, fails

to help adult learners to achieve effective learning. In an effort to facilitate effective adult learning, the researcher is of the view that the educator must select appropriate methods to would help achieve this goal. As such, the study revealed that the discussion method was very effective in helping adult learners achieve subject-matter comprehension and promote their active participation in lessons.

The study also revealed that oral questioning was used in both programmes to assess learners, which was inadequate as an assessment tool since it only sought to assess an aspect of learning, namely, knowledge. In order to know whether learners have successfully achieved the desired learning outcomes, it is imperative for the educator to employ a variety of assessment methods which would enable him/her to judge learners' performances across all learning domains (knowledge, skills, and attitudes). This study therefore serves to inform adult education programme designers and implementers to restructure assessment to cover a wider scope of learning in order to properly judge learners' progress.

The study also revealed that feedback in the classes visited in NFLP was provided promptly but verbally. Verbal feedback, even though a relatively easier technique in providing information about learners' progress, is ineffective when it comes to revision on the part of learners. This is because learners are unable to refer to the facilitator's comments as a form of helping them to review and enhance their learning. The study which culminated in a model for facilitating adult learning proposes that feedback in adult learning should essentially be written and reflective in nature. Written feedback provides learners with the opportunity to make references to the educator's comments in future when needed. On the other hand, by reflective feedback the researcher suggests that information provided by the facilitator regarding learners' prowess should enable learners to reassess their meaning-making structures. This means that learners should be able to reexamine their approach to making meaning of the information provided by the facilitator in the light of the previous knowledge and experiences.

7.5 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY FOR THE FIELD OF CURRICULUM STUDIES

Apart from adult education, this study also falls under the field of curriculum studies. According to Jarvis (2010:228), "the word curriculum derives from the Latin word 'currere' which means to run, and its associated noun, which has been translated as 'a course'". Lawton (1973, cited in Jarvis, 2010:228) contends that "in the past definitions … tended to emphasize the content of the teaching programme, now writers on curriculum are much more likely to define it in terms of the whole learning situation". Also Griffins (1978, cited in Jarvis (2010:228) indicates that curriculum refers to "the entire range of educational practices or learning experiences". Therefore, curriculum studies can be defined as the study of the entire learning experiences which an individual is presented with in an educational programme. Taba (1962, cited in Jarvis, 2010:230) provides an explanation of curriculum which is pertinent to this study, as follows:

> A curriculum usually contains a statement of aims and of specific objectives; it indicates some selection and organisation of content; it either implies or manifests certain patterns of learning and teaching, whether because the objectives demand them or the content organisation requires them. Finally, it includes a programme of evaluation of the outcomes.

Since this definition makes mention of curriculum as manifesting certain patterns of teaching and learning, this study fits perfectly within the field of curriculum. To explicate further, the provision of a variety of stimuli/information by an educator aimed at bringing about attainment of stated learning goals forms an important part of a curriculum. Given this contention, this study has some implications for the field of curriculum studies.

This study examined the effectiveness of the various methods employed by educators in promoting learning of adults in two adult education programmes. The study posits that adult learning is about creating an enabling environment for learners to construct their own meaning from a variety of information provided by the educator. Therefore, adult education programmes should not seek to provide only content knowledge to learners but must also help learners' to effectively make meaning of the information they are provided with. As a consequence, learners are able to challenge dogma or restructure their meaning-making processes to accommodate incontrovertible truths.

This study was able to determine how learners were evaluated in both programmes. For instance, it came to light that portfolio, homework, and in some instances, oral questioning were the main forms of assessment in KRG, while oral questioning was primarily used in the sampled classes in the NFLP. Even though the learners studied in the NFLP maintained that this method of assessment was effective, such information serves to inform curriculum developers in NFLP about the need to reassess the approaches to assessment due mainly to lack of standardisation of that assessment method. Learners would thus be properly assessed given the intended learning experiences which formed part of the learning objectives.

7.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study sought to examine the effectiveness of the various methods employed in teaching adult learners in two adult education programmes. In the conduct of the empirical investigation, certain limitations were encountered. The study employed a purposive sampling technique where a total of 152 participants were selected for the study owing to the qualitative research approach employed. Given the large number of learners in both programmes, the sample selected for this study is small in proportion. The findings cannot therefore be generalised to the all participants in both programmes as this was not the goal of the study. In addition, as the study was qualitative in nature, generalisation was not the objective; the focus was rather on an in-depth understanding of the experience of the selected participants with regard to the KRG and NFLP programmes.

The study was also hampered by the researcher's inability to speak the local languages of the participants who took part in the study in South Africa. It became evident during the data analysis stage that some of the words had been lost in translation. This affected the researcher's ability to report verbatim on various comments made by the participants during the study.

7.7 CONCLUSION

It has become evident from this study that teaching adult learners is a complex activity. It involves the educator making decisions about how best to organise and present learning experiences in order to enhance the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of adult learners.

One such decision has to do with the methods to be used in promoting learning amongst adults. The methods employed by the educator to facilitate adult learning are crucial to the success or otherwise of the entire learning process. This is because by employing inappropriate teaching methods, the educator risks lack of interest and ultimately withdrawal from the programme on the part of adult learners. This study has shown that some of the methods employed by educators are not effective in facilitating effective learning amongst adult learners in both adult education programmes. Therefore, in selecting methods for facilitating learning amongst adults, the researcher must be tactful and well-informed about the effectiveness of the methods to be used.

7.8 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the major findings of the study and in line with the central research problem and the aims of the study, the researcher makes the following recommendations:

- Teaching in adult education programmes should promote learners' independent meaning-making abilities. The researcher opines that teaching in adult education programmes is an opportunity for the educator to present factual information (content) to the learner. Nonetheless, teaching adult learners is ineffective when the presentation of such information fails to arouse thought processes which enable learners to examine such information and construct their own meaning from it, with the educator serving as a guide in the process.
- In teaching adult learners, educators must endeavour to employ a variety of teaching methods in a single lesson. This would greatly enhance effective learning among adults. For instance, the discussion method could be used alongside the lecture method. While the educator employs the lecture method to provide factual information about a given topic, the discussion method could be employed after lecturing to enable learners to express and share ideas on the topic.
- Teaching of adult learners should entail the active participation of learners in the lesson in order to enhance their learning. To achieve this, it is imperative for the educator to promote democratisation of the class where all learners can freely express themselves in all lessons. Also the educator must ensure that learners' views are well accepted and respected.

- Adult educators should employ a variety of assessment methods to judge learners' progress in achieving the stated learning outcomes. Educators would then be in a better position to ensure that they obtain reliable information about learners' progress. Such information would ultimately help the educator to reflect on his/her teaching approaches, methods, and techniques.
- Feedback provided to learners in adult education programmes should be reflective in nature. The researcher contends that feedback should enable adult learners to think critically about the answers they have provided to the educator's questions in the light of their individual experiences and meaning-making processes. As such, the educator should not present corrective measures or feedback to the learners. This is because the entire learning process should enable learners to construct their own meaning of the information they are presented with.

7.9 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

This study examined the effectiveness of the methods employed in teaching adult learners in the National Functional Literacy Programme of Ghana and the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign of South Africa. The study ultimately resulted in the proposal of a model for facilitating adult learning. This model, even though at its developmental stages, holds some promise for adult teaching and learning. The researcher suggests that further studies can be done on the proposed model to understand its viability in promoting effective learning amongst adults.

References

Abdu-Raheem, B. O. (2011). 'Effects of discussion method on secondary school students' achievement and retention in social studies', *European Journal of Educational Studies*, 3(2): 293-301.

Adekanmbi, G. (1990). 'The concept of distance in self-directed learning'. In H.B. Long & Associates. (Eds.). *Advances in Research and Practice in Self-Directed Learning*. Norman: Oklahoma Research Center for Continuing Professional and Higher Education of the University of Oklahoma. 181-201

African National Congress (ANC) 1994. *Policy framework for education and training. Discussion document*. Johannesburg: ANC.

Aitchison, J.J.W. and Harley, A. 2006. South African illiteracy statistics and the case of the magically growing number of literacy and ABET learners*. Journal of Education*, No. 39, pp. 89-112.

Akinsola, M. K. and Animasahun, I. A. (2007). 'The effect of simulation-games environment on students' achievement in and attitudes to mathematics in secondary schools', *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 6(3): 113-119.

Akkuzu, N. (2014). The role of different types of feedback in the reciprocal interaction of teaching performance and self-efficacy belief. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(3), pp, 37-66.

Ambrose, S. A., Bridges, M. W., Lovett, M. C., DiPietro, M. and Norman, M. K. (2010). *How learning works: 7 research-based principles for smart teaching*. San Francisco. Jossey-Bass.

Anderson, L.W. and Krathwohl, D. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives*. New York: Longman.

Andres, L. (2012). *Designing and doing survey research*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Andrews, D. H., Hull, T. D., and Donahue, J. A. (2009). 'Storytelling as an instructional method: Definitions and research questions. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning', 3*(2): 6-23.

Anney, V. N. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 5(2): 272-281.

Aryeetey, E. and Kwakye, E. (2005) 'Policy case study: Functional literacy, national functional Programme (NFLP II) in Ghana, Draft'. *A paper presented at the Conferences on 'Addressing Inequalities: Policies for Inclusive development' organised by the Inter- Regional Inequality Facility* 11th-12th July, 2005 at UNECA, Addis Ababa.

Assessment Reform Group (1999). *Assessment for learning – beyond the black box*. London: University of Cambridge School of Education.

Aya Aoki (2004). *Ghana national functional literacy programme II; Assessment of beneficiaries' learning achievement and development impact.* Draft report, May 2004.

Ayres, L. (2008). Thematic coding and analysis. In L. M. Given (Ed.). *The Sage Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods (Vol. 1& 2)* (pp. 867-868). California: Sage Publication.

Azriel, J., Erthal, M., and Starr, E. (2005). 'Answers, questions, and deceptions: What is the role of games in business education', *Journal of Education for Business*: 9-13.

Badu-Nyarko, S. K. and Torto, B. A. (2014). 'Teaching methods preferred by part-time tertiary students in Ghana', *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 4 (1): 226-233.

Barnes, D. and Blevins, D. (2003). 'An anecdotal comparison of three teaching methods used in the presentation of microeconomics', *Educational Research Quarterly*, 27 (4): 41-60.

Barton, E. S., Walton, T., & Rowe, D. (1976). Using grid technique with the mentally handicapped. In P. Slater (Ed.), Explorations of interpersonal space Vol. 1 (pp. 47–68). London: John Wiley & Sons.

Baxter, P. and Jack, S. (2008). 'Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers', *The Qualitative Report*, 13 (4), 544-559.

Beder, H. W. & Darkenwald, G. G. (1982). Differences between Teaching Adults and Pre-Adults: Some Propositions and Findings. *Adult Education*, 32(2), 142-155.

Bee, H. L., and Bjorkland, B. R. (2004). *The journey of adulthood* (5th ed.). Eaglewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Bernard, H. R. (2000). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Bhattacharjee, S. and Ghosh, S. (2013). Usefulness of role-playing teaching in construction education: A systematic review. *Proceedings of the forty-ninth Associated Schools of Construction Conference*. San Luis Obispo, CA.

Bhola, H.S. (1984) World trends and issues in adult education. London: Biddies Ltd.

Bhola, H. S. (2004). 'Adult education for poverty reduction: political economy analysis in systems theory perspective', *International Journal of Adult and Lifelong Education*, 65: 5-14.

Bicknell-Holmes, T. and Hoffman, P. S. (2000). 'Elicit, engage, experience, explore: Discovery learning in library instruction', *Reference Services Review*, 28(4): 313-322.

Birgin, O. and Baki, A. (2007). The use of portfolio to assess student's performance. *Journal of Turkish Science Education*, 4(2), pp, 75-90.

Bitsch, V. (2005). 'Qualitative research: A grounded theory example and evaluation criteria', *Journal of Agribusiness,* 23(1): 75-91.

Bloom, B. S., Engelhart, M. D., Furst, E. J., Hill, W. H. & Krathwohl, D. R. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: Handbook I, the cognitive domain*. New York: David McKay.

Blunch, H. N. and Portner, C. C. (2004). *Adult literacy programmes in Ghana.* Human Development Network Education Department: World Bank.

Boehrer, J. and Linsky, M. (1990). 'Teaching with cases: Learning to question'. In Svinicki, M. D. (Ed.) *The changing face of college teaching, New Directions for Teaching and Learning (ed.)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, No. 42. pp. 41-57.

Bogdan, R.C. & Biklen, S.K. (2007). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education.

Boud, D. (1981). Toward student responsibility for learning. London: Kogan Page.

Bown, L. and Tomori S. H. (1979). *A handbook for adult education in West Africa.* London: Hutchinson & Co.

Brockett, R.G. & Hiemstra, R. (1991*). Self-direction in adult learning: Perspectives on theory, research and practice*. London: Routledge.

Brookfield, S. (1981). Independent adult learning. *Studies in adult education*, 13: 15-27.

Brookfield, S. (1985). Self-directed learning: A critical review of research. In S. Brookfield. (1985). *Self-directed learning: From theory to practice*. San Francisco, Jossey Bass.

Brookfield, S. (1986). *Understanding and facilitating adult learning*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Brookfield, S. (1996). 'Breaking the code: Engaging practitioners in critical analysis of adult educational literature'. In Edwards, R., Hanson, A. & Raggatt, P. (Eds.), *Boundaries of Adult Learning.* New York: Routledge. 57-81.

Brookfield, S. (2001). 'Repositioning ideology critique in critical theory of adult learning', *Adult Education Quarterly*, 52 (1): 7-22.

Brookfield, S. (2005). *The power of critical theory: Liberating adult learning and teaching*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Brophy, J. (Ed.). (2002). *Social constructivist teaching: affordances and constraints (Vol. 9)*. Oxford, UK: Elsevier Science Ltd.

Bruning, R., Schraw, G., Norby, M., & Ronning, R. (2004). *Cognitive psychology and instruction*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods*, (4th edn). New York: University of Oxford Press.

Caffrey, E. D. (2009). *Assessment in elementary and secondary education: A primer*. Washington D.C: Congressional Research Service.

Candy, P.C. (1987). 'Evolution, revolution or devolution: Increasing learner-control in the instructional setting', In Boud, D. and Griffin, V. (Eds.) *Appreciating Adult Learning: From the Learners' Perspective*. London: Kogan Page. 159-178.

Candy, P.C. (1991*). Self-direction for lifelong learning: A comprehensive guide to theory and practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Carr, N. S. (2013). 'Increasing the effectiveness of homework for all learners in the inclusive classroom', *School Community Journal,* 23(1).

Cashin, W. E. (2010). *Effective lecturing*. Manhattan: IDEA Centre.

Cashin, W. E. (2011). Effective classroom discussions. Idea Paper (49). Manhattan: The Idea Center.

Cazden, C. (1988). Classroom discourse. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Clark, M. C., & Cafferella, R. S. (1999). 'Theorising adult development'. In Clark, M. C. and Cafferella, R. S. (Eds.). *An update on adult development theory: New ways of thinking about the life course. New Direction for Adult and Continuing Education, No. 84.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass. 3-8

Cobb, P. & Bowers, J. (1999). 'Cognitive and situated learning perspectives in theory and practice', *Educational Researcher*, 28 (2): 4-15.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed). Oxon: Routledge.

Collins, J. W and O'Brien, N. P. (Eds.). (2003). *Greenwood dictionary of education*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.

Collins, M. (1994). From self-directed learning to post-modernist thought in adult education: Relocating our object of theory and practice. In Hyams, M, Armstrong, J. & Anderson, E. (Eds.) *Proceedings of the 35th Annual Adult Education Research Conference*. Knoxville: University of Tennessee. 97-102

Cooper, H. (1989). *Homework.* White Plains, NY: Longman.

Cooper, H., Robinson, J. C. & Patall, E. A. (2006). 'Does homework improve academic achievement? A synthesis of research, 1987–2003', *Review of Educational Research,* 76 (1): 1-62.

Cranton, P. (1992). *Working with adult learners.* Toronto: Wall & Emerson.

Cranton, P. (2011). Adult learning and instruction: Transformative-learning perspectives. In K. Rubenson (Ed.). *Adult learning in education*. Oxford: Elsevier. pp 53-59.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (4th ed.) Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Davenport, J. and Davenport, J. (1985). 'A chronology and analysis of andragogy debate', *Adult Education Quarterly*, 35 (3): 152-159.

David, M. F. B., Davis, M. H., Harden, R. M., Howie, P. W., Ker, J. & Pippard, M. J. (2001). 'AMEE Medical Education Guide No. 24: Portfolios as a method of student assessment', *Medical Teacher*, 23(6), 535−551.

Davies, A, & Le Mahieu, P. (2003). 'Assessment for learning: reconsidering portfolios and research evidence'. In Segers, M., Dochy, F. & Cascallar, E. (Eds.) *Innovation and Change in Professional Education: Optimising New Modes of Assessment: In Search of Qualities and Standards.* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers. 141-169.

Davis, B.G. (2009). Tools for teaching (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Davis, B. & Sumara, D. (2002). Constructivist discourses and the field of education: problems and possibilities. Educational Theory, 52(4), 409-428.

Deesri, A. (2002). Games in the ESL and EFL class. *The Internet TESL Journal* (September 9), [On-line serial]: Available from: <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Deesri-Games.html>. [Accessed: 12 June, 2015]

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (1994) Introduction: entering the field of qualitative research. In: Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications: 1-17.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Department of Education (1997a). Policy document on adult basic education and training. October, 1997. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Education. (2002). *Education for all status report: South Africa, incorporating country plans for 2002 to 2015*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Basic Education (2010). South African Government Information, Basic Education, Policy and curriculum development. Pretoria. Government Printers.

Department of Education (2010). Strategic Plan 2010-2013. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Derrick, J., & Ecclestone, K. (2006). Formative assessment in adult literacy, language and numeracy programmes: A literature review for the OECD. Nottingham, UK: University of Nottingham, Centre for learning, teaching and assessment through the lifecourse.

DiCicco-Bloom, B., & Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The qualitative research interview. *Medical Education*, 40, 314-321.

Ecclestone, K. (2006). Assessment in post-14 education: The implications of politics, principles, and practices for learning and achievement. Report for Nuffield Review of 14-19 Education. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Eck, J. (2006). An analysis of the effectiveness of storytelling with adult learners in supervisory management. An Unpublished Master of Science Dissertation in Career and Technical Education. University of Wisconsin, Stout.

Ekeyi, D. N. (2013). 'Effect of demonstration method of teaching on students' achievement in agricultural science', *World Journal of Education*, 3 (6): 1-7.

Elias, J. L. (1979). 'Critique: Andragogy revisited', *Adult Education*, 29: 252-255.

Engle, S. and Ochoa, A. (1988). *Education for democratic citizenship: Decision making in the social studies*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Essuman, S. (2004). Non-formal adult educators in Ghana and educational technologies– What meanings are ascribed to ET and what are educators' attitudes towards ET? A PhD Thesis presented to the School of Education, University of Nottingham, Nottingham.

Falzon, C. (1998). *Foucault and social dialogue: Beyond fragmentation.* London: Routledge.

Fenwick, T. (2003). *Learning through experience: Troubling orthodoxies and intersecting questions.* Malabar: Krieger.

Fishbein, M. & Ajzen, I. (1975). Belief, attitude, intention, behaviour: An introduction to theiry and research. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Fogg, P. (2001). "A history professor engages students by giving them a role in the action." *Chronicle of Higher Education,* 48 (12): 12-13.

Formative Assessment for Students and Teachers (2012). *Distinguishing formative assessment from other educational assessment labels.* Washington: Council of Chief State School Officers.

Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Seabury Press.

Friedman, B. D. M., Davis, M. H., Harden, R. M., Howie, P. W., Ker J. & Pippard, M. J. (2001) 'AMEE Medical Education Guide No 24: Portfolios as a method of student assessment', *Medical Teacher,* 23 (6).

Fry, H., Ketteridge, S., and Marshall, S. (1999). *A handbook for teaching and learning in higher education: enhancing academic practice* (2nd ed.) London: Routledge Falmer.

Galbraith, M. W. (1990). The nature of community and adult education. *New Directions for Adult and Community Education.* Fall, number 47.

Galbraith, M. W. (Ed.). (2004). *Adult learning methods: A guide to effective instruction* (3rd ed.) Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Geary, D. C. (1995). 'Reflections of evolution and culture in children's cognition: Implications for mathematical development and instruction', *American Psychologist,* 50: 24-37.

Genesee, F. & Upshur, J. (1996). *Classroom-based evaluation in second language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gergen, K. J. (1995). Social constructivism and the educational process. In L. P. Steffe, and Gale, J. (Eds.) *Constructivism in Education.* Hillsdale: Erlbaum. 17-39

Gibbs, B. (1979). 'Autonomy and authority in education', *Journal of Philosophy of Education,* 13: 119-132.

Given, L. M. (Ed). (2008). *The sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods* (Vol 1&2). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Goodenough, D. A. (1994). Teaching with case studies. *Stanford University Newsletter on Teaching*. 5(2), 1-4.

Grasha, A. F. (1994). 'A matter of style: The teacher as expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator', *College Teaching*, 42 (4): 142-149.

Gravett, S. 2001. *Adult learning, designing and implementing learning events: A dialogic approach.* Pretoria: van Schaik.

Gavrila-Jic, A. (2013). 'Towards a learner-centred approach to teaching English', *Professional Communication and Translation Studies*, 6 (1-2): 205-210.

Grunnskóla, A. (2007). *Erlend mál.* Reykjavík: Menntamálaráðuneytið.

Grupe, F.H. and Jay, J.K. 2000. 'Incremental cases', *College Teaching*, 48 (4): 123-128.

Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *Educational Communication and Technology Journal*, 29(2), 75- 91. doi: 10.1007/bf02766777.

Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hafezimoghadam, P., Farahmand, S., Farsi, D., Zare, M. & Abbasi, S. (2013). 'A comparative study of lecture and discussion methods in the education of basic life support and advanced cardiovascular life support for medical students', *Türkiye Acil Tıp Dergisi - Tr J Emerg Med,* 13 (2): 59-63.

Hackathorn, J., Solomon E. D., Blankmeyer, K. L., Tennial, R. E. & Garczynski, A. M. (2011). 'Learning by doing: An empirical study of active teaching techniques', *The Journal of Effective Teaching***, 11 (2): 40-54.**

Haladyna, T.M. (1997). *Writing Test Items to Evaluate Higher Order Thinking*. USA: Allyn & Bacon.

Hattie, J. and Timperley, H. (2007). 'The power of feedback', *Review of Educational Research*, 77 (1): 81-112.

Heimlich, J., & Norland, E. (1994). *Developing teaching style in adult education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Henson, K. T. (2003). Foundations for learner-centered education: A knowledge base. *Education, 124*(1): 5-16.

Hill, T. L. (2012). 'The portfolio as a summative assessment for the nursing student', *Teaching and Learning in Nursing*, 7: 140-145.

Hirst, P. H. and Peters, R. S. (1970). *The logic of education*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Hodgen, J. and William, D. (2006): *Mathematics inside the black box. Assessment for learning in the mathematics classroom*. London: Granada Learning.

Huang, H. M. (2002). 'Toward constructivism for adult learners in online learning environments', *British Journal of Educational Technology,* 33 (1): 27-37.

Horton, M (1990). *The long haul*. New York: Doubleday.

Inglis, T. (1997). 'Empowerment and emancipation', *Adult Education Quarterly*, 48 (1): 3-17.

Iline, C. S. (2013). 'Impacts of demonstration method in the teaching and learning of hearing impaired children', *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 12 (1): 48-54.

Illeris, K. (2011). *The fundamentals of workplace learning: understanding how people learn in working life*. London: Routledge.

Jarvis, P. (2010). *Adult education and lifelong learning: Theory and practice* (4th ed.). Oxon: Routledge.

Jensen, D. (2007). 'Confirmability'. In: Given, L. S. (Ed.) *The Sage Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage. Pages.

Joblin, D. (1988). 'Self-direction in adult education: An analysis, defence, refutation and assessment of the notion that adults are more self-directed than children and youth', *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 7 (2), 115-125.

Jonassen, D., Davidson, M., Collins, M., Campbell, J. & Bannan, H., G. (1995). Constructivism and computer-mediated communication in distance education. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 9*(2): 7-26.

Jones, C. A. (2005). *Assessment for learning*. London: Learning and Skills Development Agency.

Joyce, B., Calhoun, E. & Hopkins, D. (2009). *Models of learning: Tools for teaching* (3rd ed.) Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Kaur, G. (2011). 'Study and analysis of lecture model of teaching', *International Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, 1 (1): 9-13.

Kellaghan, T. and Greaney, V. (2001). *Using assessment to improve the quality of education.* Paris: UNESCO.

Killen, R. *Effective Teaching Strategies*. 6th ed. South Melbourne, Vic: Cengage Learning Australia.

King, P. and Kitchener, K. (1994). *Developing reflective judgment*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kluger, A. N. & DeNisi, A. (1996). ,The effects of feedback interventions on performance: a historical review, a meta-analysis, and a preliminary feedback intervention theory', *Psychological Bulletin*, 119 (2), 254-284.

Kolb, D.A. (1984). *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Kolb, D. A., Boyatzis, R. E. & Mainemelis, C. (2000). *Experiential learning theory: Previous research and new directions.* In R. J. Sternberg and L. F. Zhang (Eds.). *Perspectives on cognitive, learning, and thinking styles.* NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kolb, A. Y. and Kolb, D. A. (2005). 'Learning style and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education', *Academy of Management Learning & Education,* 4 (2): 192-212.

Knowles, M.S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy*. New York: Cambridge.

Knowles, M. and Associates (1984). *Andragogy in action: Applying modern principles of adult learning.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Kumar, S. (2003). *How we teach; an innovative method to enhance interaction during lecture sessions* [Online]. Available from <www.advan.physiology.org>. [Accessed: 15 February 2013]

Larsen, L. L. (2012). 'Pedagogical approaches: Insights for teachers of adults'. *A paper presented at the NAFOL Conference: "Teacher education research between national identity and global trends".* Trondheim, Norway.

Larson, B. E. (2000). 'Classroom discussion: a method of instruction and a curriculum outcome', *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16: 661-677.

Leach, L. (2000). Self-directed learning: Theory and practice. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Technology Sydney, Australia

Lee, W. R. (1979). *Language teaching games and contests.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Leinhardt, G., Zaslavsky, O., & Stein, M.K. (1990). Functions, graphs and graphing: Tasks learning and teaching. *Review of Educational Research*, 60(1), 1-64.

Lor, P. (2011). Preparing for research: metatheoretical considerations. *International & Comparative Librarianship*, 04-15

Lowman, J. (1995). *Mastering the techniques of teaching (2nd ed.)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Maphosa, C. and Ndebele, C. (2014). 'Interrogating the skill of introducing a lecture: towards an interactive lecture method of instruction', *Anthropologist*, 17(2): 543-550.

Maphosa C. and Kalenga, R. 2012. 'Displacing or depressing the lecture system: Towards a transformative model of instruction for the 21st Century university', *Anthropologist,* 44 (6): 555-563.

Marshall, B. & Wiliam, D. (2006). English inside the black box: Assessment for learning in the English classroom. In P. Black, C. Harrison, B. Marshall & D. Wiliam (Eds.). The black box assessment for learning series. London: Department of Education and Professional Studies, Kings College.

Mascolo, M. F. (2009). 'Beyond student-centered and teacher-centered pedagogy: Teaching and learning as guided participation', *Pedagogy and the Human Sciences*, 1(1): 3-27.

McCallum, G. P. (1980). *101 word games: For students of English as a second or foreign language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

McCombs, B. L. and Whistler, J. S. (1997). *The learner-centered classroom and school. strategies for increasing student motivation and achievement*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

McGregor, J. (1993). 'Effectiveness of role-playing and anti-racist teaching in reducing student prejudice', *Journal of Educational Research*, 86 (4): 215-226.

Mckay, V. (2007). Adult basic education and training in South Africa. In: *Annual Review of Adult Learning and Literacy*, 7: 285-310.

Mckay, V. I. (2012). *Kha Ri Gude (Let Us Learn) adult literacy programme (KGALP)* Available from: <http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=4&programme=69> [Accessed: 09 September, 2013].

Mckay, V. (2015). Measuring and monitoring in the South African Kha Ri Gude mass literacy campaign. International Review of Education, 61 (3): 365-397.

McKeachie, W.J. and Svinicki, M. (2006). *McKeachie's teaching tips: Strategies, research, and theory for college and university teachers* (12th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

McMillan, J. and Schumacher, S. (2014). *Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Merriam, S. B. (2001). Andragogy and self-directed learning. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 89, 3-14.

Merriam, S. B. (2004). 'The role of cognitive development in Mezirow's transformational learning theory', *Adult Education Quarterly*, 55 (1): 60-68.

Merriam, S. B. (2011). Adult learning. In K. Rubenson (Ed.). Adult learning in education. Oxford: Elsevier. pp. 53-59.

Merriam, S. B., Caffarella, R. S. & Baumgartner, L. M. (2007). *Learning in adulthood: A comprehensive guide (3rd Ed.)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J. (1978a). *Education for perspective transformation: Women's re-entry programmes in community colleges*. New York: Teacher's College, Columbia University.

Mezirow, J. (1978). Perspective transformation. Adult Education Quarterly. XXVIII(2), 100-110.

Mezirow, J. (1981). A critical theory of adult learning and education. *Adult Education Quarterly.*, 32 (1): 3-24.

Mezirow, J. (1985). A critical theory of self-directed learning. In S. Brookfield (Ed.), Self-directed learning: From theory to practice (New Directions for Continuing Education, 25). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J. (1990). 'How critical reflection triggers transformative learning'. In Mezirow, J. & Associates (Eds.) *Fostering Critical Reflection in Adulthood.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions of adult learning.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Mezirow, J. (2000). 'Learning to think like an adult: Core concepts of transformation theory'. In Mezirow, J. & Associates (Eds.) *Learning as Transformation: Critical Perspectives on a Theory in Progress.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 3-34.

Mezirow, J. (2009). An overview of transformative learning, In K. Illeris (ed). *Contemporary Theories of Learning: Theorists … Their Own Words*. New York: Routledge.

Miller, S. & Pennycuff, L. (2008). 'The power of storytelling to improve literacy learning', *Journal of Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives in Education*, 1 (1): 36-43.

Mills, M. (2008). Comparative Research. In L. M. Given (Ed.). *The Sage Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods.* (pp. 100 - 103). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications Inc.

Mogra, I. (2012). 'Role-play in teacher education: Is there still a place for it?' *Teacher Education Advancement Network Journal,* 4 (3): 4-15.

Morgan, R, Whorton, J. & Gunsalus, C. (2000). 'A comparison of short term and long term retention: Lecture combined with discussion versus cooperative learning', *Journal of Instructional Psychology,* 27 (1): 53-58.

Nassimbeni, M., and May, B. 2006. 'Adult education in South African public libraries: enabling conditions and inhibiting factors', *Innovation*, 32.

Newman, M. (1999). *Maeler's regard: Images of adult learning.* Sydney: Stewart Victor.

Olaitan, S. O. (1984). *Agricultural education in the tropics – Methodology for teaching agriculture.* London: Macmillan Publishers.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. and Leech, N. L. (2007). 'Validity and qualitative research: An oxymoron?' *Quality and Quantity*, 41: 233-249. doi: 10.1007/s11135- 006-9000-3

O'Sullivan, E., Morrell, A. & O'Connor, M. (2002). *Expanding the boundaries of transformative learning: Essays on theory and praxis*. New York: Palgrave.

Pansiri, J. (2005). The influence of managers' characteristics and perceptions in strategic alliance practice. *Management Decision*, 43(9), pp.1097 – 1113.

Patton, M.Q. 1990. *Qualitative evaluation and research methods.* Newbury Park: SAGE Publishers.

Philips, D. (Ed.), (2000). Constructivism in education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Popil, I. (2011). 'Promotion of critical thinking by using case studies as teaching method', *Nurse Education Today*, 31: 204-207.

Poorman, P. B. (2002). Biography and role-playing:fostering empathy in abnormal psychology. *Teaching of Psychology*, 29(1), 32-36.

Price, M., Handley, K., Millar, J. & O'Donovan, B. (2010). 'Feedback: all that effort, but what is the effect?' *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35 (3): 277-289.

Pratt, D. (1998). 'Analytical tools: Epistemic, normative, and procedural beliefs'. In D. Pratt & Associates (Eds.) *Five Perspectives on Teaching in Adult and Higher Education*. Malabar: Krieger. 203-216.

Quan-Baffour, K. P. (2000). A model for the evaluation of ABET programmes. Unpublished Doctor of Education Thesis. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Rachal, J. (2002). 'Andragogy's detectives: A critique of the present and a proposal for the future', *Adult Education Quarterly*, 52 (3): 210-227.

Ragin, C. C. (1987). *The comparative method: moving beyond qualitative and quantitative strategies*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Rahman, F., Khalil, J. K., Jumani, N. B., Ajmal, M., Malik, S. &Sharif, M. (2011). Impact of Discussion Method on Students Performance. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(7), 84-94.

Republic of Ghana. 2003. *Performance audit report of the auditor-general on functional literacy programme*. Accra: Ghana Audit Service.

Richardson, V. (2003). Constructivist pedagogy. Teachers College Record, 105(9), 1623- 1640.

Rigby, S. and Ryan, R. (2007). *The player experience of need satisfaction (PENS) model.* Available from: <ftp://ftp.immersyve.com/PENS_Sept07.pdf> [Accessed: 05 June, 2015]

Rihoux, B. (2006). 'Qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) and related systematic comparative methods: Recent advances and remaining challenges for social science research', *International Sociology,* 21 (5): 679-706.

Rixon, S. (1990. *Young learners of English: Some research perspectives*. London: Longman.

Rogers, A. (2001). *Teaching adults*. (3rd ed.). Philadelphia: Open University.

Rogers, C.R. (1969). Freedom to learn. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Rogers, C. R. (1983). *Freedom to learn for the 80s*. Columbus: Merrill.

Rogers, A. & Horrocks, N. (2010). *Teaching adults (4th Ed.).* Berkshire, UK: Open University Press.

Rothbauer, P. M. (2008). Triangulation. In L. M. Given (Ed.). *The Sage Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods (Vol. 1& 2)* (pp. 892-894). California: Sage Publication.

SAQA (South Africa Qualifications Authority). (2000). The national qualifications framework and curriculum development. Pretoria: SAQA.

Savin-Baden, M., & Major, C. H. (2004). *Foundations of Problem-based Learning*. Maidenhead, England: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Savin-Baden, M. and Major, C. H. (2013). *Qualitative research: the essential guide to theory and practice*. Oxon: Routledge.

Schweigert, W. A. (1994). Research methods for psychology. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/ Cole.

Schunk, D. H. (2008). *Learning theories: An educational perspe*ctive (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Schunk, D. H. (2012). *Learning theories: An educational perspective* (6th ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Shamoo, A.E. & Resnik, B.R. (2003). *Responsible Conduct of Research*. Oxford University Press.

Shanahan, K., Hermans, C. and Haytko, D. (2006). 'Overcoming apathy and classroom disconnect in marketing courses: employing karaoke jeopardy as a content retention tool', *Marketing Education Review*, 16 (1): 85-90.

Sharifi, A. & Hassaskhah, J. (2011). The role of portfolio assessment and reflection on process writing. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 13(1), 192-227.

Sharma, S. (2003). *Effective methods of teaching adults*. New Delhi: Shri Sai.

Sibiya, H. S. (2005). A strategy for alleviating illiteracy in South Africa: A historical inquiry. Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, University of Pretoria.

South Africa. (1996). Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act No. 108, 1996. Bill of Rights. Pretoria: Government Printers

Spigner-Littles, D. and Anderson, C. E. (1999). 'Constructivism: A paradigm for older learners', *Educational Gerontology,* 25 (3): 203-209.

Statistics South Africa. 2003. *Census 2001. Census in brief*. (2nd ed.). Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Stephens, M. D. (1989). 'Teaching methods for adults'. In Titmus, C. J. (Ed.). *Lifelong Education for Adults. An International Handbook.* London: Pergamon Press. 202-208.

Stephens, M. D. (1996). 'Teaching methods: general'. In Tuijnman, A. C. (Ed.). *International Encyclopedia of Adult Education and Training*. Paris: Pergamon. 534-538.

Svinicki, M. & McKeachie, W.J. (2011). *McKeachie's teaching tips: Strategies, research, and theory for college and university teachers (13th ed.)*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Taber, K. S. (2006). 'Beyond constructivism: the progressive research programme into learning science', *Studies in Science Education*, 42: 125-184

Theall, M. and Franklin, J. (2001). *Looking for bias in all the wrong places – A search for truth or a witch hunt in student ratings of instruction?* In Theall, P., Abrami, L. and Lisa Mets (Eds.) *The Student Ratings Debate: Are they Valid? How Can We Best Use Them? New Directions in Educational Research, no. 109.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Tobin, G. A. and Begley, C. M. (2004). 'Methodological rigour within a qualitative framework', *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 48 (4): 388-396. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2648.2004.03207.x

Tough, A. (1979). 'Learning without a teacher', *Educational Research Series*, 3. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) (2000). The Dakar framework for action. Education for all: Meeting our collective commitments. Adopted by the World Education Forum, Dakar, Senegal, 26–28 April. Including six regional frameworks for action. Paris: UNESCO

United Nations (2000). United Nations Millennium Declaration. New York, NY: UN. Accessed 26 May 2015 from http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.pdf

Van Gent, B. (1996). Andragogy. In A. C. Tuijnman (Ed.). *The international encyclopaedia of adult education and training* (pp. 114-117). Oxford, UK: Pergamon.

Voerman, L., Meijer, P. C., Korthagen, F. A. J. & Simons, R. J. (2012). Types and frequencies of feedback interventions in classroom interaction in secondary education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*: 1-9.

Walklin, L. (1990). *Teaching and learning in further and adult education*. Cheltenham: Stanley Thornes.

Weimer, M. (2002). *Learner-centred teaching: Five key changes to practice*. San Francisco: John Wiley and Sons.

Welton, M. R. (1995). 'The critical turn in adult education theory'. In Welton, M. R. (Ed.), *In Defense of the Lifeworld.* Albany: State of New York Press. 11-38

Westera, W. (2001). Competences in education: a confusion of tongues. Journal of Curriculum Studies. 33(1), 75-88.

Winterton, J., Delamare-Le Deist, F. & Stringfellow, E. (2006). Typology of Knowledge, Skills and Competences. Clarification of the Concept and Prototype: Cedefop References. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

Wood, D. and Wood, H. (1988). 'Questioning vs. student initiative'. In Dillon, J. T. (Ed.) *Questioning and Discussion: A Multidisciplinary Study.* Norwood: Ablex. 280-305.

Xu, J. (2009). 'School location, student achievement, and homework management reported by middle school students', *School Community Journal,* 19 (2): 27-44.

Yolageldini, G and Afrikan, A. (2011). 'Effectiveness of Using games in teaching grammar to young learners', *Elementary Education Online*, 10 (1): 219-229.

Young, M. F. (1993). Instructional Design for Situated Learning. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 41(1), 43-58.

APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR ADULT EDUCATORS

As part of the requirements for the award of a Doctor of Education degree in Curriculum Studies, I am conducting a study on “Methods of teaching adult learners: a comparative study of adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa”. Your answers to questions in this instrument will be used together with other information to determine the effectiveness of the various methods employed in teaching adult learners in both countries. You are kindly informed that this research is solely for academic purposes and as such you are encouraged to answer the questions as frankly as possible. Your responses will be held in strict confidence and your anonymity throughout the study is assured.

SECTION A: METHODS EMPLOYED IN TEACHING ADULT LEARNERS

1. Which methods do you use in teaching the learners?
2. What factors do you consider when selecting teaching methods for your learners?

SECTION B: EFFECTIVENESS OF THE TEACHING METHODS

B(i) Subject-matter Comprehension

3. How effective are the teaching methods indicated in Question 1 in terms of their ability to successfully promote learners’ subject-matter comprehension?

B(ii): Level of Participation

4. How effective are the teaching methods indicated in Question 1 in promoting learners’ participation in the lesson?

SECTION C: Effectiveness of Methods of Assessment Employed in Assessing learners’ work

5. What method(s) do you use in assessing learners’ progress?
6. Do the assessment methods help you to identify areas where learners need redress?
7. If no, why?

SECTION D: Nature and Effectiveness of Feedback Provided to Learners after Assessment

8. How do you provide feedback to the learners?
9. How does your feedback on learners’ work help to enhance their learning?

APPENDIX B: UNSTRUCTURED OBSERVATION GUIDE

Date……..

Lesson topic……

Number of learners……

Starting time ……

Ending time …….. ……

Description of classroom. (Including seating arrangement, pictures, and posters in the classroom). (Use supplementary sheets if necessary)

Comment on teaching method(s) employed in the lesson. (Use supplementary sheets if necessary)

Comment on how the teaching method(s) employed by the educator promote subject-matter comprehension amongst learners? (Use supplementary sheets if necessary)

Comment on how the teaching method(s) employed by the educator promote the participation of learners in the lesson. (Use supplementary sheets if necessary)

Comment on how learning is assessed. (Use supplementary sheets if necessary)

Comment on the effectiveness of the method(s) of assessment in the teaching and learning encounter. (Use supplementary sheets if necessary)

Comment on the nature and effectiveness of the feedback given to learners after assessment. (Use supplementary sheets if necessary)

APPENDIX C: FOCUS-GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE

Preamble

As part of the requirements for the award of a Doctor of Education degree in Curriculum Studies, I am conducting a study on “Methods of teaching adult learners: a comparative study of adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa”. This is a focus group discussion session. We will be discussing your thoughts and ideas about the effectiveness of the various methods employed in helping you to learn as well as other aspects of the teaching and learning encounter. Your answers to questions in this interview will be used together with other information to determine the effectiveness of the various methods employed in teaching adult learners. You are kindly informed that this research is solely for academic purposes and as such you are encouraged to answer the questions as frankly as possible. I will be tape recording the discussion because I do not want to miss any comments from you. Your responses will be held in strict confidence and your anonymity throughout the study is assured.

Questions

1. What teaching methods does your educator use in helping you to learn in the classroom?
2. How effective are each of the teaching methods mentioned above in promoting your understanding of the subject matter? **Researcher would focus on each of the methods identified by the learners.**
3. How effective are each of the teaching methods mentioned in Q1 in promoting your participation in the lesson? **Researcher would focus on each of the methods identified by the learners.**
4. How is your learning assessed?
5. How effective are the methods employed in assessing your learning?
6. What is the nature of feedback given to you after assessment?
7. How effective is the feedback given to learners in the process of teaching adults?

APPENDIX D: LETTERS REQUESTING PERMISSION

The Director
Non-Formal Education Division
Ministry of Education
P.O. BOX M45
Accra

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN ADULT LEARNING CENTRES

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is David Addae, and I am a Doctor of Education student at the University of South Africa, Muckleneuk Campus. I am conducting a research for my Doctoral thesis titled "Methods of teaching adult learners: A comparative study of adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa". The study focuses on examining the effectiveness of the various methods employed in teaching adult learners in the Non-Formal Education Programme of Ghana and South Africa's Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign. This study will be conducted under the supervision of Prof. VI Mckay (Unisa) and Prof. KP Quan-Baffour (Unisa).

I am hereby seeking your permission to approach a number of adult literacy schools in the Greater Accra Region to provide participants for this study. The study is solely for academic purposes and as such the participants are assured of strict confidentiality and anonymity. I have attached a copy of the approval letter which I received from the Unisa Research Ethics Committee (Education) for your perusal.

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide the Department of Education with a bound copy of the full research report. If you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on 0735747486 and blazedawee00725@gmail.com. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Yours sincerely,

David Addae

The Director
Department of Basic Education

Sol Plaatje House
222 Struben Street
Pretoria
0001

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN ADULT LEARNING CENTRES

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is David Addae, and I am a Doctor of Education candidate at the University of South Africa, Muckleneuk Campus. The research I wish to conduct for my Doctoral thesis is titled “Methods of teaching adult learners: A comparative study of adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa”. The study focuses on examining the effectiveness of the various methods employed in teaching adult learners in the Non-Formal Education Programme of Ghana and South Africa’s Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign. This study will be conducted under the supervision of Prof. VI Mckay (Unisa) and Prof. KP Quan-Baffour (Unisa).

I am hereby seeking your permission to approach a number of adult learning centres in the Gauteng Province to provide participants for this study. The study is solely for academic purposes and as such the participants are assured of strict confidentiality and anonymity. I have attached a copy of the approval letter which I received from the Unisa Research Ethics Committee (Education) for your perusal.

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide the Department of Education with a bound copy of the full research report. If you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on 0735747486 and blazedawee00725@gmail.com. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Yours sincerely,

David Addae

APPENDIX E: LETTERS REQUESTING FOR CONSENT FROM THE PARTICIPANTS

LETTER OF CONSENT TO ADULT LEARNERS

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is David Addae, a doctoral student at the University of South Africa. As a requirement for the award of the Doctor of Education degree I am conducting a study titled Methods of teaching adult learners: A comparative study of Adult Education Programmes in Ghana and South Africa. In particular, I am interested in finding out the effectiveness of the various methods in teaching adult learners in the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign of South Africa and Ghana's National Functional Literacy Programme. This research will require the researcher to observe teaching and learning activities in the classroom as well interviewing learners. As such the researcher will be present in your classroom for about 1-2 hours of your time per week for one month. During this time how you are taught will be observed and you will be interviewed about the effectiveness of the various methods employed by the education in teaching you. You will be asked to constitute a group of 10 learners to discuss issues pertaining to the study. The interviews will be conducted in your classroom and will be tape-recorded. There are no anticipated risks or discomforts related to this research.

Several steps will be taken to protect your anonymity and identity. While the interviews will be tape-recorded, the tapes will be safely kept in a filing cabinet once they have been typed up. The typed interviews will not make mention of your name and any information that seeks to identify you will be removed. Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. However, you may withdraw from the study at any time for any reason. If you do this, all information from you will be destroyed. If you wish to receive a copy of the results from this study, you may contact the researcher via the telephone number given below. If you require any information about this study, or would like to speak to the researcher, please call David Addae on 0735747486 or via blazedawee00725@gmail.com.

I have read (or have been read) the above information regarding this research study on the experience of, and consent to participate in this study.
Signature:_____
Date:_____

LETTER OF CONSENT TO VOLUNTEER FACILITATORS

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is David Addae, a doctoral student at the University of South Africa. As a requirement for the award of the Doctor of Education degree I am conducting a study titled Methods of teaching adult learners: A comparative study of Adult Education Programmes in Ghana and South Africa. In particular, I am interested in finding out the effectiveness of the various methods in teaching adult learners in the Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign of South Africa and Ghana's National Functional Literacy Programme. This research will require the researcher to observe teaching and learning activities in the classroom as well interviewing both educator and learners. As such the researcher will be present in the classroom for about 1-2 hours of your time per week for one month. During this time your teaching will be observed and you will be interviewed about the effectiveness of the various methods employed by you to teach your learners. The interviews will be conducted wherever you prefer (e.g. in your home), and will be tape-recorded. There are no anticipated risks or discomforts related to this research.

Several steps will be taken to protect your anonymity and identity. While the interviews will be tape-recorded, the tapes will be safely kept in a filing cabinet once they have been typed up. The typed interviews will not make mention of your name and any information that seeks to identify you will be removed. Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. However, you may withdraw from the study at any time for any reason. If you do this, all information from you will be destroyed.

If you wish to receive a copy of the results from this study, you may contact the researcher via the telephone number given below. If you require any information about this study, or would like to speak to the researcher, please call David Addae on 0735747486 or via blazedawee00725@gmail.com.

I have read (or have been read) the above information regarding this research study on the experience of, and consent to participate in this study.
Signature:_____
Date:_____

APPENDIX F: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: REPUBLIC OF GHANA

In case of reply, the
Number and date of this
Letter should be quoted.
Email:nflp_nfed_gh@yahoo.com
Tel. No. 233-0302-220462

My Ref

Your Ref No.

Republic of Ghana

Non-Formal Education Division
Ministry of Education
Ministry Branch Post Office
P.O. Box MB.45
Accra

8TH SEPTEMBER, 2015

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN ADULT LEARNING CENTRES

We have no objection to your request to conduct research on **"Methods of teaching adult learners: A comparative study of adult education programmes in Ghana and South Africa"**, in Adult Learning Centres in the Greater Accra region. This is due to the relevance of the topic to the development objectives of the Non-Formal Education Division of the Ministry of Education.

We however recommend that:

1. The researcher will ensure that the Greater Accra Regional Coordinator is notified in advance of arrangements made for each activity.
2. The research do not interrupt the programmes of adult literacy classes.
3. Your research and interviews will be limited to the proposed classes and approved by the Regional Coordinator.
4. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings and recommendations or a full report/dissertation/thesis is to be submitted to the Division addressed to the Director.
5. Your work will not extend beyond the stipulated period (October – December, 2015).

We wish you well in your endeavour.

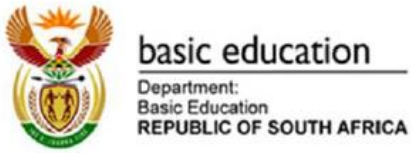
Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

CHARLES D. AFARE
(ACTING DIRECTOR, NFED)

MR. DAVID ADDAE
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
MUCKLENEUK CAMPUS

APPENDIX G: LETTER OR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION



Mr David Addae

University of South Africa

Department of Adult Education

South Africa

Dear Mr Addae

RE: THE KHA RI GUDE MASS LITERACY CAMPAIGN: REQUEST FOR MR DAVID ADDAE TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE KHA RI GUDE CAMPAIGN

Thank you for requesting permission to conduct research on the Kha Ri Gude Campaign.

I am very pleased that you have chosen the Kha Ri Gude Mass literacy campaign to help with your research in pursuing your studies and wish to inform you that I have granted approval for you to conduct such research in the Kha Ri Gude Campaign.

Kindly note that all expenses pertaining to your research will be borne by yourself and the Department of Basic Education will not be responsible for any expenses incurred by yourself. We will also appreciate if you will share your research with the Department.

Kindly liaise with Dr S Malapile for more information: 012 357 3811 or malapile.s@dbe.gov.za

MRamarumo

Yours sincerely

DR M RAMARUMO

CEO: KHA RI GUDE CAMPAIGN

APPENDIX H: ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNISA university of south africa

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

15 July 2015

Ref #:**2015/07/15/90228650/37/MC**
Staff#: Mr D Addae
Staff Number #: 90228650

Dear Mr Addae

Decision: Ethics Approval

Researcher
Mr D Addae
Tel: +2712 429 6250
blazedawee00725@gmail.com

Supervisor
Prof VI McKay
College of Education
Acting Executive Dean
Tel: +2712 429 8636
mckayvi@unisa.ac.za

Co-supervisor
Prof. KP Quan-Baffour
College of Education
Department of Adult Basic Education and Youth Development
Tel: +2712 429 6870
quanbkp@unisa.ac.za

Proposal: Methods of Teaching Adult Learners: A Comparative Study of Adult Education Programmes in Ghana and South Africa

Qualification: D Ed in Curriculum Studies

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Final approval is granted for 2 years.

For full approval: *The application/ resubmitted documentation was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee on 15 July 2015.*

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

2) *Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the College of Education Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.*
3) *The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.*

Note:

The reference number **2015/07/15/90228650/37/MC** *should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants, as well as with the College of Education RERC.*

Kind regards,

Dr M Claassens
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC

Prof VI McKay
ACTING EXECUTIVE DEAN

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za