

**NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN THE SYDENHAM-CLARE ESTATE AREA:  
A NEEDS STUDY**

by

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It is hereby declared that the opinions expressed and conclusions reached are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the above-mentioned persons or organisations.

K. HIRAMAN (Mr)

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To my mother  
Catherine Seecheran Hiramam,  
my wife Denise, and  
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## CHAPTER 1

### GENERAL ORIENTATION

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The realization that education is not only a matter of formal "schooling" - the formal system of schools, colleges, technikons and universities - but that it continues into adult life and often old age, is increasingly demanding the serious attention of educationists and national educational planners the world-over. More than ever before, adults need to develop their talents and abilities to the full and to meet with understanding the impact of rapidly changing patterns of employment and the stresses of a rapidly changing society (Russel Report, 1973; Tobias, 1980, 77). Throughout recorded history, however, it has been recognised that to deny oneself of education in later life is to deny oneself of a great part of education that is meaningful only to grown, experienced men and women (Russel Report, 1973; Turner, 1980, 60). In support of this view, the British Committee of Inquiry (1973) submitted a strong motivation for adult education and for greater government control of it. The motivation, which placed particular emphasis on the educational needs of adults, stated the following:

"The attainment of an acceptable quality of life for all and the development of a free, democratic society requires that these demands and needs be met. The formal system of schools and colleges cannot operate at full efficiency without attention to these adult needs."

Education is concerned with developing the ability of individuals to understand and to articulate; to reason and to make judgements; and to develop creativity. However, many of those who have had limited schooling - and these form the great majority - may have made only partial use of such opportunities available to them; and a large number have rejected as irrelevant to their felt needs much of the earlier education they were offered. If, therefore, adults are to be given the chance to develop their talents and abilities to the full, they require access to education in adult life as fresh needs emerge.

Thus, the formal system of schools and colleges cannot operate at full efficiency without purposeful provision for these adult needs. Much of the effort of the formal system is wasted without providing opportunities for adults to continue their intellectual, creative and recreational interests into adult life. What is required is a new form of education to support and complement the formal system.

Non-formal education (NFE) offers a wide range of adult learning opportunities to overcome much of the problem of adult education needs. In the following orientation, therefore, the main purpose is to present the problem of the growing need for NFE provision. It must also be pointed out that great emphasis is placed on the educational needs of adults and not of children, and that "adults" include out-of-school youth. Major considerations in tracing the need for NFE include: the demand for, and the growth of NFE in recent times; its increasing challenge to formal education; and the needs-based nature of NFE. Emphasis is placed on the de Lange Report and its recommendations for the provision of NFE in the RSA.

In addition to defining the three main concepts involved - "non-formal education", "adult education" and "needs", their related terms and concepts will also be discussed.

The orientation includes a short explanation of the researcher's motivation for conducting the present study.

The final section of the orientation is the chapter organisation of the present research.

## 1.2 THE DEMAND FOR AND GROWTH OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN RECENT YEARS

### 1.2.1 The Demand for Non-Formal Education

The massive growth of schooling beyond the statutory minimum, especially since the Second World War, is evident throughout the world. An ever-increasing number of societies appreciate the need to continue learning throughout life. Further evidence of this trend is the growing demand for higher education, the ever-increasing spread of industrial training, the positive response to the educational output of radio and television and the demand for leisure-time activities. These bear testimony to the way in which the pursuit of education after school has become a normal aspiration in the lives of great numbers of adults (Russel Report, 1973).

But these ever-increasing education needs are far from being matched by a corresponding increase in the provision of learning opportunities for adults in all countries. Much is being done but the provision of effective adult learning opportunities demands the development of a sound machinery emphasising facility and support. Titmus (1981, 5)

makes relevant comment in this regard in respect of less successful countries:

".... it seems that most adults have only the resources, the ability, the self-discipline or motivation to undertake limited sequential and continuing learning activities on their own initiative".

In successful countries it is because of the machinery of facilitation and encouragement, which has been built up over many years, that so many adults now engage in such a wide range of activities.

Thus the provision of learning opportunities for adults together with the development of strategies to facilitate and encourage NFE are essential requirements to make adult learning a normal practice.

Another factor that has emerged with highly significant consequences for the education of out-of-school youth is the increase in educational concepts. For example, much education in the past has been "under control and for control" and in many countries where this is the case, such education is reinforced by official and compulsory curricula which invariably terminate with the passing of approved examinations. Recently, however, more emphasis has been placed on the application and use of generic, not detailed knowledge.

This increase in educational concepts has also had the effect of creating the problem of "educational inflation" (Dore, 1976, 5). The rapidity of this process of "qualification escalation" or "certificate



devaluation" which gives rise to the educated - unemployed problem, varies from one developing country to another and different countries are at different stages in the process. However, the crux of the problem of the so-called 'educated unemployed is that these people have not in fact been educated; the effect of schooling, the way it alters man's capacity and will to do things, depends not only on what he learns or how he learns it, but also on why he learns it (Dore, 1976, 7).

The result is that ever-increasing numbers of adults have found themselves in need of a new type of education; an education which provides knowledge and skills for a 'greater chance of acquiring new and better employment and of 'deriving a more meaningful life style.

A major development and one which has had a strong influence upon changing educational concepts and prospects is that of 'growing urbaniza= tion. Thompson (1981, 124) highlights the growth of urbanization and its impact on educational interests. The growth of urbanization and its effects on educational concepts have forced an increasing number of adults to seek new knowledge and skills to adapt to their rapidly chang= ing environments.

'Cultural pluralism, which is linked to the process of urbanization, has also made a significant impact on the proliferation of educational concepts throughout the world. Together with metropolism, it has created many social problems for adults, especially those in advanced countries. This problem, however, is not confined to adults. An ever-increasing number of children are also faced with the problem of social adjustment as a result of cultural pluralism in modern-day societies. In the R.S.A.

in particular, the multi-national and multi-cultural nature of its people exert special demands for the extension of educational practice, and this problem is in no way simplified by the Government's policy of separate development (Grant, 1977, 140; Malherbe, 1977). The demands for cultural and political recognition have also tended to gather force. The criteria of diversity, however, are various and complex and pose different kinds of problems for policy-makers.

### 1.2.2 The Growth of Non-Formal Education

Solutions to numerous learning problems experienced by adults and out-of-school youth rest with research into non-formal education. This relatively new concept, which germinated out of adult education movements, provides learners with a wide and varied range of learning opportunities and has attracted the serious attention of First World and Second World countries alike. In highlighting the recent impact of NFE internationally, Coombs (1976, 290) points out,

"compared to the historically slow rate of change in education, the developments in non-formal education since 1970 have been remarkably rapid. Most conspicuously there has been a rapid spread of awareness of its existence, accompanied in many quarters by an almost electric excitement about its possibilities in sharp contrast to several years earlier".

However, some argue that the fact of NFE, broadly conceived, is not new. "What is new" states Bock (1976, 348), "is the conception of non-formal education as a new force through which educational and socio-economic changes are believed to occur at both the individual and societal level, and the vision of it as an exciting new strategy for combating poverty, ignorance, inequality, ill-health and oppression".

The rapid growth of non-formal education in recent years has also shown remarkable diversity and applicability. The significance of non-formal adult education may be seen in two contexts, the Advanced countries and the Developing Countries, and in each context the reasons for its pursuit may be markedly diverse. In most countries adult education is not an option but a necessity; in certain cases it is essential for economic survival, in others it is a necessary response to technical sophistication and changing job structures.

Most developing countries, however, experience a fundamental problem of not being able to organise their physical resources in a way that makes it possible to utilize in an optimal manner their total labour force. This problem is generally characterised by large-scale unemployment and under-employment. Efforts to resolve these problems have mainly taken the form of adaptations to their inherited educational systems since independence.

A severe draw-back has been the strong negative attitude inherited from colonial powers towards any form of education which fell outside the normal pyramid of formal advancement from school to university.

Thompson (1977, 155) thus argues,

"How free are developing countries to develop systems of education tailored to their own individual needs? The call for greater relevance in educational provision in these countries pre-dates political independence in some cases by as much as a century yet the demand continues to be loudly voiced".

It was not until the 1950's that adult education began to be recognised as a discrete and serious branch of education in Europe and North America. Strong note was taken of the contribution which it could make to the development of Third World countries.

In the context of Africa, the chance of many citizens to contribute to nation-building, in either their family or village, in productive employment or in civic matters is, regrettably, hampered by illiteracy and poor basic education. It is reasonable, therefore, to expect adult educators to endeavour constantly to reach the poorest and least educationally privileged members of society, bearing in mind that without their involvement society will progress, if at all, at a very slow rate.

However, the immediate concern of many developing countries is the need to obtain quickly the qualified manpower necessary to man their own public and private administrations, their own education and medical services and key positions in their own industrial development. The quickest and least socially divisive way of acquiring such manpower is by selecting suitable adults from amongst those already in the labour force and retraining them and upgrading their skills.

### 1.2.3 The Increasing Challenge of Non-Formal Education to Formal Education

In recent times it has become obvious that formal education per se is not the only solution to the social, economic and political problems of countries, particularly Third World countries. The tragedy, however, is that many Third World countries still regard formal education as

the only solution to these problems. In his criticism of this belief Muir (1981, 3) points out,

"In many countries and in the Third World in particular, the belief is held that formal schooling is the most important single positive factor in, for example, political and socio-economic development".

There is, however, strong support in Africa for formal education as the main instrument for solving social, economic and political problems, and Vos (1981, 2) expresses it in the following way:

"Recalling their own experience with the power of formal education to effect change ..... the Black National leaders concluded that to lead their respective countries and peoples to the riches of their erstwhile masters would require formal school education".

Fordham (1979, 2) submits the same explanation when he declares, "we are all products of formal schools and tend to think of education in these terms".

Nevertheless, the commonly held view that formal education brings about development, economic progress and improved standards of living is now being seriously questioned. Fordham (1979, 4) argues that the non-formal idea is a reaction against the failure of the formal system. In order, therefore, that the education system should meet the development needs of a country, the formal system cannot be employed alone; formal education would have to be complemented by NFE.

In more recent times NFE has presented increasing challenges to formal education. The attention given to NFE at regional level, and in the plans and programmes of several countries, suggests that a general alternative approach, even possibly a "rival system", already all but exists. The Philippines for example, appointed an Under-minister, now Deputy-Minister, for non-formal education. He holds a key political and administrative position in the Department of Education and Culture and probably in the government itself. Indonesia has recently launched a massive World Bank supported NFE programme. Despite the diversity of terms employed, including "social", and "community", as well as "adult" and "non-formal" education, a common pattern seems to be emerging. More countries are turning to NFE, however, even clutching at it as the only alternative to the obviously unbridgeable gulf between resources required to extend cost-intensive western models to the whole population and the resources conceivably available for education (UNESCO, 1978 a).

#### 1.2.4 The Challenge of Non-Formal Education in the R.S.A.

In South Africa too NFE is assuming greater importance than it used to and the South African Government has formally accepted NFE as part of the system of education provision. In addition the Government has "accepted" NFE as part of the compulsory education provision for children. Of special significance, in this regard, is the Government's endorsement of Principles "5" and "7" of the de Lange Report (1981, 15), namely: "Education shall endeavour to achieve a positive relationship between the formal, non-formal and informal aspects of education in the school, society and family" (principle 5), and "The private sector and the state shall have a shared responsibility for the provision of non-formal education" (principle 7).

Furthermore, the Government has resolved that education will be an "own affair". However, norms of financing, conditions of service, registration of teachers, standards of syllabuses and examinations and certification will be a "general affair".

The de Lange Report proposals for NFE in the R.S.A. have generated tremendous and widespread interest among South Africans. South African society and particularly South African educationists have shown considerable interest in the possible applications of NFE in South Africa and regard, with special significance, the Report's recommendation (1981, 216) that one of the priorities for education in South Africa should be: "The establishment as soon as possible of the necessary infrastructure for the provision of non-formal education". This recommendation underscores the emphasis and high value placed on NFE in the R.S.A.

The Report places particular emphasis on training and retraining. Provision of adequate programmes of training and retraining is considered an area of urgent concern for both the private sector and the government. In drawing attention to this problem the Report argues that: "The need for training and retraining is becoming increasingly urgent, particularly for those who did not have the opportunity of receiving any training at all in the past". (de Lange Report, 1981, 82).

#### 1.2.5 Non-formal Education is Essentially Needs Based

Underlying the foregoing orientation on NFE is the essential concern of the real education needs of a country as well as its individuals. In

this regard Cole (1981, 2) points out that the quality of life of a country can only be influenced by education if the system of provision meets the real needs of society.

Moreover, it is obvious that educational deprivation requiring solution through NFE means, exist in both First and Third World countries. Fordham (1979, 5) highlights this point in the following statement relating to those who had left formal institutions of education: "a concentration on non-participating target groups, i.e. those who have not been well served by the formal system - the drop-outs, the left-outs and the failures - is common to both developed and developing countries".

Principle 4 of the de Lange Report (1981, 15) suggests that adequate provision for individual needs should be an essential consideration in providing NFE in the R.S.A.. The principle reads: "The provision of education shall be directed in an educationally responsible manner to meet the needs of the individual as well as those of society and economic development and shall, inter alia, take into consideration the manpower needs of the country". This implies that a preliminary phase to the provision of NFE must be the identification of individual and regional needs. Khanyile (1982, 92) also regards the identification of needs as an important process in the provision of NFE and thus argues that non-formal education should be able to identify and understand these needs. To produce effective results, non-formal education should also be able to respond to specific needs in an area.



### 1.3 BACKGROUND TO PROBLEM AND MOTIVATION FOR RESEARCH

The researcher's initial interest in the field of NFE was prompted by the study of literature on NFE and mass media during his studies for the degree of Bachelor of Education at the University of Durban-Westville in 1980 and 1981. In particular, problems relating to adult NFE needs and provision of adult education programmes attracted his attention. Subsequent discussions of these problems with colleagues and lecturers at that university, in particular with Professor S.R. Maharaj, Professor of Comparative Education and Dean of Faculty of Education in the early 1980's, convinced the researcher of the urgency of an investigation of this kind.

A major motivational factor in the researcher's decision to embark on this study was the de Lange Report (1981). The Report, which is probably the most comprehensive investigation in education ever undertaken in South Africa, drew strong attention to the need for NFE in the R.S.A.

The importance of NFE to a large proportion of the South African population became evident. Moreover, the enormous public and professional interest occasioned by the Report's proposals for provision of NFE, confirmed the value of this form of education.

Out of the reading to establish a broader understanding of the provision and organisation of NFE in the Republic of South Africa, emerged the urgency for this investigation. Some important features became more evident to me: A wide variety of NFE programmes were presented by a

number of bodies and organisations, some with assistance and financial support from the Government and others without any support from the Government; there were many agencies providing NFE activities but there was no evidence of a clear infrastructure to monitor and co-ordinate the various non-formal programmes; many business organisations provided in-service training programmes for employees merely to boost productivity; there was a lack of research on NFE in general and adult NFE needs in particular.

In fact Dr Lee (1982), as Director of the Urban Foundation, had observed that no official (departmental) institution had carried out a study of adult education needs in the R.S.A. to appreciate problems experienced by individuals and agencies. The researcher regarded Dr Lee's observation as highly significant because at that stage of the researcher's enquiries the importance of establishing adult education needs appeared to be essential to the provision of learning programmes for adults and out-of-school youth.

Another problem which prompted the pursuit of this research project was the apparent high rate of unemployment among Indian school-leavers. As a teacher of high school pupils, the researcher was alarmed to find so many of his ex-pupils, particularly those who had matriculated on the practical grade, unable to acquire employment or pursue post-matric studies.

Another factor that influenced the undertaking of this study was the Government White Paper (1983) which accepted the de Lange recommendations for the provision of NFE in the R.S.A.

The four factors discussed above, namely the general importance of NFE to the R.S.A. particularly as highlighted by the de Lange Report; the need for a structured, co-ordinated provision for adult learning needs; the lack of research into adult education needs; and the apparent large number of Indian school-leavers who were either unemployed or unable to enter a post-matric institute, convinced the researcher of the need for this study.

#### 1.4 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS AND TERMS

In a scientific investigation such as the present study, it is essential to define meanings of key concepts and terms which pervade much of this research report. Moreover, the dynamic nature of education, in which the problem of designation and terminology have not been completely resolved, demands particular and explicit description as far as possible. In addition, non-formal adult education is a relatively recent development in the field of education and, therefore, requires a clear and unambiguous description of terms related to it. With respect to this study it is essential to define the following concepts and terms:

- (a) Non-Formal Education
- (b) Adult Education
- (c) Concepts Related to Non-Formal Education
- (d) Needs

#### 1.4.1 Non-Formal Education

Non-formal education as a concept is relatively new. While the area of non-formal education has had limited research, it is fast emerging as a subject of high priority in both advanced countries and developing countries. There is, as yet, no agreed international definition of Non-Formal education. Primarily it involves adults and thus affects that segment of the population in whose hands immediate decision-making rests, as regards family, community, group and ultimately political matters. The following definition of non-formal education is from Coombs, an internationally renowned expert on education in developing countries: "Any organised educational activity outside the formal system - whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity-that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives" (Coombs, 1973).

Non-formal education proceeds in a planned but highly adaptable way in institutions, organisations and situations outside the spheres of formal and informal education, for example, in-service training in the work situation and the pursuit of leisure time activities. Moreover, while formal education operates within a structure of schools, colleges, universities and other higher education institutions which receive major public support, non-formal education operates under widely scattered sponsorship and controlled financing among public and private agencies. In reality, the field of non-formal education is characterised by a combination of a high degree of consensus regarding need, and a low degree of co-ordinated activity to meet this need. Accordingly, co-operative initiatives are possible and essential. In drawing

attention to this reality, Harbison (1973) concludes that "non-formal education is probably best defined as skill and knowledge generation taking place outside the formal schooling system in a heterogeneous conglomeration of unstandardized and seemingly unrelated activities aimed at a wide variety of goals".

The essential characteristic of non-formal education surrounds delivery. It is a type of education that requires to be delivered to learners (mainly adults) where they are in their real life situation. It is, therefore, more user-orientated and seeks to take the initiative in ascertaining and responding to the learners' needs. Moreover, effective practitioners of non-formal adult education understand that almost every adult is able to learn almost any subject, given sufficient time and attention. Furthermore, adults vary in learning ability, but for the individual person, learning ability is quite stable during most of adulthood (Harbison, 1973). According to the de Lange Report (1981); non-formal education should be directed towards the following nine objectives: literacy, induction, in-service training, retraining, support programmes, ad hoc needs, a second chance for those people who either never entered the formal system or left it early, upgrading programmes, and satisfying the demand for leisure time activities.

In general objectives of NFE may be classified under three broad categories:

- (a) activities orientated primarily to development of skill and knowledge of members of the labour force who are already employed;

- (b) activities designed primarily to prepare persons, mostly youth, for entry into employment; and
- (c) activities designed to develop skill, knowledge and understanding that transcend the work world.

As a concept NFE has the following merits: its flexibility and adaptability give it the capacity to meet a wide variety of learner needs; its educational practice allows it to be structured for the maximum benefit of those desiring education; its educational outcomes are usually of immediate practical and personal benefit to the learners; its major aim is to resolve current problems in the field of education; it caters for a wide age range, generally from age 17 to 50.

NFE as already mentioned, is a relatively new concept which grew out of, an older concept called Adult Education.

#### 1.4.2 Adult Education

Adult education, as a concept of educational provision, has a history of more than a century. Essentially directed at adults, this education programme provided a wide range of activities though typically without providing certification. In current use the concept still carries a strong compensatory emphasis though its recent development has stressed that it may be formal or non-formal in nature.

The primary aim of adult education is to help each individual man, woman and youth to make the best of life and thus continue the process

of growth; it therefore, attempts to improve the quality of lives of individuals, young and old.

Peers (1972) argues that Adult Education becomes significant as a practice and as an instrument of social policy during periods of social crises or rapid change. This is because the adult community exercises an immediate and powerful influence on the direction and purpose of society. Its most powerful influence may be exerted on issues of political rights and, therefore, the lack of education may be regarded as a symbol of political inferiority. Thus Peers (1972, 21), in his comparative study of adult education, observes that the insistence on the need for education as a means to social and political emancipation became characteristic of all the struggling, working-class organisations. According to Fordham (1979, 8) "Adult education encompasses the human educative and political dimensions of society".

A more comprehensive definition is the one adopted by UNESCO at the Nairobi Conference in 1976. The lengthy extract below is to give the reader an idea of how widely the term is interpreted:

"The term 'adult education' denotes the entire body of organised educational processes, whatever the content, level and method, 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 or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development ....."

(UNESCO CONFERENCE, 1976).

#### 1.4.3 Concepts Related to Non-Formal Education

The various activities of non-formal education operate within three closely linked areas:

- (a) basic education,
- (b) proficiency education, and
- (c) community education

(Urban Foundation Report, 1982).

These terms require clarification:

##### 1.4.3.1 Basic Education

Basic education concerns itself with the minimum effective levels of learning required in a given society. The characteristic content of basic education programmes in both First and Third World countries includes: literacy, numeracy, language and communication, life skills, health and nutrition, citizenship and civic rights.

Basic education provision is a more pressing issue in Third World countries than in First World countries and recent studies have focussed on content, methods of delivery and ways of continuation. Current



trends in the provision of basic education reflect the following:

- (a) basic education should form the foundation of the non-formal education service
- (b) basic education should be flexible in content responding to identified "minimum learning needs", and delivered to learners in their own contexts, urban or rural
- (c) basic education must be continuable in at least two ways:
  - (i) by entry at a specified level into the formal examination system pursued by the schools and further qualifications in this manner.
  - (ii) by continuation into proficiency education programmes.

#### 1.4.3.2 Proficiency Education

Proficiency education concerns itself with the acquisition of skills, either in the technical/vocational sense, or in the sense of formal education skills, (e.g. language/communication skills). The table on p. 22 indicates a possible range of such skills:

Proficiency education service utilizes and intergrates varied resources. It makes educational resources available to individuals at varying levels and at different stages of life. In this area, as in basic education, there is great scope for employer-sponsored programmes, supported by tax allowances.

Level	Technical/Vocational	Formal
1	general vocational skills, e.g. bricklaying, carpentry, small scale agriculture, etc.	language and maths skills, e.g. to std. 7 level.
2	technical skills, e.g. machine operation, lathes, or form machinery.	interpersonal skills, bookkeeping, office management.
3	higher level technical skills, retraining for skilled work.	entrepreneurship, small business, management, organisation leadership.
4	advanced skill upgrading	professional continuing education (medical engineering, etc.).

(URBAN FOUNDATION REPORT, 1982)

#### 1.4.3.3 Community Education

A community education service utilizing and integrating the varied resources of a given community and supported by the state would be responsible for:

- (a) leadership training at community levels;
- (b) community service and development;
- (c) cultural education at a local level;
- (d) education for leisure and personal recreation and

- (e) organisation development (trade unions and voluntary organisations).

The value of this aspect of NFE services is usually assessed in terms of its capacity to meet the needs of local communities.

The goal of the community education service is the development and enrichment of the local culture of any given community. This, in the South African context, would necessarily be extremely varied. The development of a community involves a range of actions in which the following characteristics are considered important: the growth of viable and effective leadership; the growth of community and national organisations; the growth of community power, particularly the power to change the conditions and circumstances of deprivation; and the encouragement of individual initiatives in leisure and recreation.

#### 1.4.4 Needs

Information about educational needs is a major requirement for the creation or modification of non-formal study programmes. Most practitioners draw ideas from local, personal experience. In general, the types of information acquired include:

- (a) expressed preferences of educational needs by potential participants,
- (b) demonstrated willingness to respond to study programmes when offered, and

- (c) conclusions of experts regarding educational needs of a category of adults and their proficiency levels.

However, the question of needs should not only consider the wants of receivers of education. It should also consider the needs of providers of education. According to Morphet (1987), providers' needs include the following considerations:

- (a) to provide the valid academic currency to selected people,
- (b) to produce knowledge useful to selected people, and
- (c) to provide services useful to selected people.

In any programme of education providing for adult needs, the starting point should be an assessment of their unsatisfied needs. In this regard, Godfrey (1979, 1993) states the following:

"The starting point for planning is not the existing distribution of purchasing power but the existing distribution of unsatisfied needs. Education and training are important in this context in two ways. A minimum level of basic education, including literacy, numeracy, science and general knowledge could be regarded as a need in itself. Secondly, those involved in providing other needed services and products for others require appropriate training".

In the present study, data about adult NFE needs include:

- (a) family educational and employment background,
- (b) interviewee's educational and employment details,
- (c) interviewee's choice of NFE course need, and
- (d) interviewee's attendance preference at such NFE courses.

It must also be pointed out that all NFE activities needed by interviewees were placed into one of the three categories of NFE defined earlier, namely basic education, proficiency education and community education.

#### 1.5 CHAPTER ORGANISATION OF PRESENT RESEARCH

In addition to this first chapter on orientation, four further chapters are presented in this report. Chapter two provides an overview of NFE with particular emphasis on the South African scene. Chapter three provides a description of the survey procedure. Chapter four contains the analyses of the data from the interview survey and Chapter five deals with conclusions and recommendations of the research.

CHAPTER 2HISTORY AND CURRENT STATUS OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION2.1 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN WORLD PERSPECTIVE2.1.1 Introduction

Although the history of adult education is long and varied, it is only in recent years that the notion of adult non-formal education has become a great deal more prominent internationally. Various landmarks may be cited in the conceptualisation of this area of education but much credit must be given to the pioneering work of UNESCO, which sponsored the First International Conference on Adult Education in 1949 in Denmark (Turner, 1980).

2.1.2 Contribution by UNESCO: Tokyo Conference 1972

Perhaps the most significant contribution by UNESCO towards the conceptualisation of NFE was made at the Third International Conference held in Tokyo in 1972. In attempting to highlight the changing conception of Adult Education since the Second Conference held in 1960 in Montreal, the Tokyo Conference conveniently summarised the changes which had taken place in the previous twelve years. The major changes noted at the Tokyo Conference were: the emergence among governments of a wide consensus of opinion regarding the vital importance of adult education in a technological age; increasing acceptance, if not the

practical elaboration, of the concept of life-long education; the emergence and rapid spread of functional literacy schemes within the framework of economic and social planning; increasing recognition by educationists of the value of self-directed learning; increasing government involvement in the co-ordination and financing of adult education; the adoption by adult education agencies of more sophisticated organisational methods; the spread of purpose-built educational community and cultural centres; the spread of residential centres; striking innovations in educational technology associated with the adoption of novel methods and techniques of communication; the rapid professionalisation of the field of adult education; the rapid development of adult education as an academic field of study; growing recognition of the need to define objectives with precision and to test results empirically; and a notable expansion in international co-operation.

These changes had a profound influence on the reconceptualisation of NFE in recent years.

### 2.1.3 The Faure Report

The Faure Report "Learning to Be" (UNESCO, 1972) also made an important contribution towards the concept of NFE, especially in poorer countries. The immense value of the Faure Report was that it drew attention, in a document which had the widest possible circulation, to the notions of non-formal and life-long education which had been evolving during the 1960's. The idea of education as part of a democratising process

intended for all citizens rather than merely for an élite minority, permeated the whole report. This view implied the displacement of the so-called 'front-end' model of education in which all schooling is reserved for the years of childhood, and its replacement by a model in which education would be available to all at any stage in their lifespan. In this model, access to education would be available to all according to their need and wish for it and would be life-oriented rather than qualification-oriented. As the Faure Report summarised it in one of its closing paragraphs:

"The concept of education limited in time (to school-age) and confined in space (to school buildings) must be superseded. School education must be regarded not as the end but as the fundamental component of total educational activity which includes both institutionalised and out-of-school education. A proportion of educational activities should be deformed and replaced by flexible diversified models. Excessive prolongation of compulsory schooling, which is beyond certain countries' capacities, must be avoided. The extension of continual training will more than compensate for the shorter average duration of initial studies. Briefly, education must be conceived of as an existential continuum as long as life"

(Faure, 1972, 233)

These ideas were very influential in the 1970's and, together with the impact of the significant changes in adult education summarised at the Tokyo Conference, made a very strong case for change in the definition of adult non-formal education. Four years later, at its General Conference in November 1976, UNESCO adopted these ideas in its revised definition which states that the term



"denotes the entire body of organised educational processes, whatever the content, level and method, 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 adult 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 the two fold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic, and cultural development".

(UNESCO, 1976)

It will be noted that the above definition adopted by UNESCO does not regard education as a predominantly school-based activity. Education is viewed as a life-long activity relating both to vocational/professional and personal development. The main differentiation within this comprehensive definition is between those who are children and those who are regarded as adult by the society to which they belong.

#### 2.1.4 Disillusionment with Formal Education

Another major contribution towards the conceptualisation of NFE in recent years, is the growing disillusionment with formal education because of its failure to resolve the development problems both of industrialised societies and of the Third World. The value of formal education is being questioned more and more. Some of the main causes of this disillusionment are: education has come to be valued for the credentials which it offers rather than for the knowledge and skills which it imparts; these credentials often seem to be largely unrelated

to the development needs or the job opportunities within the country concerned; the fact that education no longer brings a guarantee of a job at an appropriate level, causes the learner and his parents to lose their faith in the educational process; there does not seem to be any close relationship between the length of education and the financial rewards of the educated. It is often the less-well-educated, such as entertainers and those who have well-placed relatives, who get the large salaries denied to the educated (Turner, 1980).

In addition to these main causes of disillusionment, there is a more fundamental objection which is directed at the western educational system. The basic argument of this objection is that the western educational system is designed for a western industrialised state in which the only motive which seems to be effective in appealing to the individual is a desire for personal wealth. Unfortunately the only people who seem to benefit from this system are those who already hold power and wealth and who can secure for their children the education appropriate to the ruling classes (Turner, 1980).

These factors have led to a massive re-examination of the purpose of education and contributed significantly towards the reconceptualisation of adult non-formal education in recent years.

## 2.2 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN AFRICA

### 2.2.1 Introduction

Africa has a substantial history of non-formal educational activity but, until recently, much of this activity had still not been collated and presented in any coherent way. Thompson (1981, 211) links the beginnings of non-formal educational activity with early adult extra-mural and mass education activities. According to Thompson, extra-mural activities were not intended as instruments of mass education but as means of training small numbers of local men and women to assume positions of leadership in their communities. Together with extra-mural activities, mass education activities were developed to provide programmes of mass literacy, community development and agricultural extension.

### 2.2.2 Early Activities: 1960's

The early activities of NFE were characterised by an almost total lack of co-ordination. The full significance of these activities was unlikely to be realised until they were placed in a clearer conceptual framework. Until this began to happen, adult NFE had to remain a cinderella service operating largely in the shadow of the formal school system (Thompson, 1981, 213). Nevertheless, some significant attempts were made to improve the image and functioning of adult NFE. Kenya provided a notable initiative in seeking to introduce order into a confused situation when in 1965 it set up a Board of Adult Education. The Board, representing all major providing agencies and with a permanent secretariat, was to survey and co-ordinate adult education

activities both at central and local level. According to Thompson (1981, 213), two things more than any other contributed to change in this confused scenario in the early 1970's: The first was the growing recognition that formal education was not adequately serving the bulk of the population, and the second was the new consciousness of the need for greater equity for enabling the masses to have greater opportunity to share in the benefit of development.

The value of adult education and its NFE activities as a vital contributor to development in its own right, was most clearly recognised in Tanzania where President Nyerere declared that the year 1970 would be devoted to adult education to achieve three objectives:

"To shake ourselves out of a resignation to the kind of life Tanzanian people have lived for centuries past; To learn to improve our lives, To understand our national policies of socialism and self-reliance."

(Nyerere, 1976)

This development in thinking led to the emergence of what Coombs and Ahmed (1974, 24) have categorised as co-operative self-help approaches. These approaches were based upon the belief that national development involved rural transformation which must begin with fundamental changes in the attitudes and aspirations of rural people themselves.

### 2.2.3 More Recent Activities: 1970's

The second stage of adult NFE in Africa built upon the first helping people to work out what kind of change they wanted and how to create it. The earlier activity had not normally been regarded as

adult education and the second stage would provide a clearer framework for its recognition.

The subsequent call for greater self-reliance among African nations was most powerfully expressed in the "ujama" movement in Tanzania from the late 1960's. The movement spread rapidly, taking different forms in other African countries. However, as the idea took hold and practical men began to examine how best to put it into effect, thinking took a further step forward: self-help demanded a new kind of partnership with central authorities to break down fundamental obstacles to the old habit of dependence on such authorities. It was necessary to abandon traditional approaches to community development and to adopt an integrated development approach in which all forms of development activity would be co-ordinated under a single management system.

The history of NFE in Africa shows that a wide variety of techniques may be employed to meet a wide range of needs and situations, even within a single community. Furthermore, non-formal activities may be provided by government agencies and/or by voluntary community initiatives. Finance, however, appears to be one of the major drawbacks in promoting NFE to its fullest potential (Thompson, 1981).

#### 2.2.4 Non-Formal Education Activities in Africa

Non-formal education activities in Africa were characterised by many different forms of action undertaken by many different organisations, both official and voluntary, and under many different titles: (Thompson,

1981, 212). Furthermore, overlapping and competition were inevitable though the extent of the need and the local nature of these activities made overlapping and competition unimportant.

Thompson (1981, 223-252), examines nine NFE activities in Africa which have provided some of the major sectors of activity: literacy programmes; extension services, animation rurale; training programmes; brigades; village polytechnics; national youth services; self-development programmes in Tanzanian; and multi-purpose centres.

These nine activities are examined briefly in this section, with particular emphasis on their purpose and application.

#### 2.2.4.1 Literacy Programmes

Efforts to reduce rates of adult illiteracy in Africa have a substantial history. In the 1950's and 1960's, literacy programmes developed into large scale mass literacy campaigns which were greeted with considerable enthusiasm on the whole. However, the results of such campaigns proved disappointing. One of the main problems experienced was the difficulty to encourage people to persevere with literacy programmes that very rarely led to immediate practical benefit, high production or increased incomes. And although there were examples of more successful mass literacy campaigns, their impact was at this time insufficiently widespread to make significant inroads into rates of illiteracy among Africa's rapidly growing population.

Arguments for and against literacy programmes were rife in Africa in the 1960's and the advocates of adult literacy programmes did not find it easy to present a convincing case against their critics whose basic argument was the expenditure on making rural population literate might drain funds away from more fundamental undertakings. The numerous arguments together with the limited degree of success of earlier mass literacy campaigns, led UNESCO to abandon its proposed campaign of education for mass literacy and to adopt in 1965 a new strategy of functional literacy on an experimental basis. A number of African nations including Algeria, Guinea, Malagasy, Ethiopia, Mali, Sudan and Tanzania participated in this programme.

Relatively few of all socio-economic changes advocated in the various literacy programmes were in fact ever adopted by participants. However, the findings of studies drawn from various parts of the world by UNESCO in 1970 show that, in respect of increasing production and reducing family size, literacy programmes made a significant contribution in Africa.

#### 2.2.4.2 Extension Services

One form of such services was the agricultural extension service which existed for many years in most African countries. Extension services continue to be operated by agricultural departments and ministries which seek to persuade farmers to increase and diversify production through the introduction of new farming practices. In most African countries, however, extension services sought to promote the production of certain kinds of cash crop for export with a corresponding neglect of food crops and subsistence agriculture.

The efficiency of extension services depended upon a number of factors of which the number and quality of the field workers was the most crucial. In Kenya and Zambia extension staff came to number one to every 1 000 farm holdings, a proportion which made it impossible for them to meet the majority of their clientele on a regular and individual basis. While the concept of extension service appears to have much to offer, it may not be an easy matter to apply in practical terms. Moreover, the history of extension services like that of many other non-formal education programmes has been one of inadequate finance.

Another kind of extension service was "animation rurale" which was an approach which sought to combine extension with training activities. First developed in Morocco in the 1950's and subsequently in some French-speaking countries, the technique was taken up, notably in Senegal after 1960, and by Mali more recently.

Animation rurale is typically concerned with harnessing the energy and resources of local communities in their own development. One of its principal functions was to provide living links between the somewhat limited numbers of expert extension workers and the local people by training the more progressive local people to serve as animateurs. Animateurs would act as catalysts of self-development at village level.

However, the movement suffered from too much stress upon self-help and too little upon providing material and technical assistance. Other difficulties were also experienced. In the 1970's animation rurale was reorganised, its production-oriented activities taken away, and it became a cultural and social organisation concerned primarily with rural youth.



#### 2.2.4.3 Training Programmes

A high proportion of non-formal education projects in Africa in recent years have been directed at skill training. Within the wide range and variety of programmes provided, three main categories of activity may be noted. These are pre-employment training programmes for mainly urban industry, skill-upgrading programmes for industry, and training programmes for farmers and craftsmen in rural areas.

Pre-employment training programmes for industry mainly focussed on school leavers, and many of these programmes were developed by non-governmental agencies such as the Young Women's Christian Association which operated training workshops in Kenya, Tanzania and Zambia. Examples also existed of community-based centres such as that at Luanshya in Zambia.

Skill-upgrading programmes mainly providing on-the-job training for employees are largely sponsored by governments. Examples of these are the National Vocational Training Institute in Ghana and the Industrial Development Centres at Zaria and Owerri in Nigeria. A number of programmes are also operated by larger firms and in this regard the efforts of the Kenya Government to encourage firms through the introduction of a compulsory levy used to support those firms operating training programmes, are worthy of note.

Farmer training and associated programmes have been widely provided, notably in Eastern and Central Africa. Often they take the form of farmers training centres, many of which are long established and which

provide short residential courses in improved agricultural practice to the farmers. Possibly the best known examples of such centres are the farmer training centres in Kenya which were established from 1954 onwards.

Another non-formal training programme was for political development. The self-development programme in Tanzania was designed for leadership training directed at the strengthening of local institutions. From 1970 the Ministry of National Education has provided courses of study for higher levels of political leadership. These courses have for many years been provided at Kirukoni College in Dar-es-Salaam and have contributed a great deal to the ideological unity and commitment of the ruling party, the Tanganyika African National Union, now the Chama cha Mapinduzi. In 1978 the Rural Training Centres were remodelled as Folk Development Colleges to provide facilities for a wider variety of courses for local leadership cadres.

The problems faced with providing self-development programmes have been considerable. Nevertheless, this imaginative approach to the production of local leadership offers a most interesting model of NFE activity to community self-development.

#### 2.2.4.4 Programmes for Out-of-School Youth

One such programme was the brigade. This programme of non-formal training for out-of-school youth originated in Botswana in 1965 and has been taken up in Ghana and Kenya. Brigades were conceived of as a means of providing a more appropriate form of post-primary education

and training than was offered by conventional secondary school courses. Initially providing training in fields such as textiles, mechanics, and handicrafts, the brigades today differ considerably in character and provision.

Among the many problems of the brigade system is that of management. Experience in Botswana has shown that management skills of a higher order are necessary if they are to cope successfully with the problems presented by the often low standards of motivation by trainees.

Another NFE programme for out-of-school youth was the village polytechnic. These polytechnics, as developed in Kenya are another way of attacking the larger number of development problems of third world African countries. They originated in 1966 at the instance of the National Christian Council of Kenya and their activities focussed on primary school providing generalisable skills associated with the farming activities of the neighbourhood. By 1970 the strongly agricultural focus of the programmes had been modified by the inclusion of more technical skills, including trades training.

However, the crucial problems of improving the employment opportunities of the rural areas still remain since only a small percentage of school leavers can be accommodated even in the increased number of polytechnics envisaged.

As in the case of brigades, polytechnics may well have an important contribution to make to absorbing school leavers and promoting rural

development, but they need to keep in step with, rather than move ahead of that development.

A third youth-oriented programme is the national youth service. Since its introduction in the form of the Ghana Young Pioneers in 1955, several African countries have established national youth services. Their main purpose has been to mobilise unemployed youth for undertaking project work in the cause of national development. A further major emphasis, particularly important in the National Youth Service Corps of Nigeria, has often been to inculcate those attitudes desirable for the promotion of national unity, the work ethic and a spirit of service.

The popularity of these programmes is attested to by the fact that applicants exceed in number those who can be accepted, by low drop-out rates and by the satisfactory performance reported in the field. Costs, however, constitute the main restraint upon the expansion of national youth services.

#### 2.2.4.5 Multi-purpose Centres

As yet multi-purpose centres are in the early stages of development. Consequently it is with their potential we are concerned, and Kenya offers the best example. The Kenyan approach shows that multi-purpose centres attempt to provide a wide range of training services in response to local needs. Training programmes are designed by the various ministries in a well co-ordinated way and ministries share facilities and staff. In this way national development will take place

through the interaction of the various ministry activities. Rural development is seen as a multi-faceted process with development taking place through a wide range of NFE activities.

The Kenya model, which seeks co-ordination through largely autonomous local institutions rather than central bureaucracy, may be a model worthy of replication.

### 2.3 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

#### 2.3.1 Introduction

A fairly comprehensive account of non-formal educational activities in South Africa was available from research conducted by The Urban Foundation, a private sector organisation. Since its inception in 1977, the Foundation has identified education as one of its main areas of activity and has decided to make the study of provision of NFE and training as one of its four national programmes. The Foundation, therefore, welcomed the appointment of the HSRC investigation into Education (June 1980) and determined to devote resources to making a relevant input in its work. However, as the HSRC investigation proceeded, it became clear to the Foundation that, while the area of NFE provision was emerging as a high priority, no formal research would be conducted in respect of this topic. As a consequence, the Foundation determined to undertake its own independent study of the NFE field. On concluding its research, the Foundation released its findings in a Report entitled: "Design Study for the Provision of Non-Formal Education in South Africa", in October 1982.

It should be emphasised that the Foundation conducted the research from the standpoint of a concerned private organisation and did not intend it to be an academic research programme. "The purpose was to provide a reasonable basis for policy decision-making, by assembling and interpreting information relevant to the design of a "system" for the provision of non-formal education" (par. 3.1, p. 2).

In the research, 530 agencies were contacted in four regions: Natal, Eastern Cape, Transvaal and Western Cape. The results showed that these agencies conducted activities in three main areas of NFE, namely basic or compensatory education, proficiency education and community education.

(a) Basic or Compensatory Education

Activities in this category of NFE include the various educational opportunities for people outside the formal school system. The prime objectives of these educational activities are provision of assumed basic needs in a "modernizing" society, and/or compensation for lack of formal education earlier in life.

(b) Proficiency Education

Activities in this category of NFE are intended primarily for people in employment and include all training opportunities to acquire skills, knowledge and attitudes which are related to economic activities and employment. The aim of these training opportunities is the advancement or greater productivity of the individual employee.

(c) Community Education

Activities in this category of NFE include all opportunities to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes relevant to the development of the individual's community; or educational opportunities spontaneously organised by the community. The aim of these activities is to stimulate development of the community in which they are located and the initiative is generally that of self-help groups and local cultural organisations.

In addition to the three main areas of NFE described above, the Report observes that some NFE opportunities do exist for young people who are of normal school-going age but who are not at school. In the main, the opportunities are available to high school-age youth, and are related to the examinations for form 3 (standard 8) or, more often, form 5 (standard 10).

The Report also observes that evidence of investigation and research in the field of NFE for adults and out-of-school children is scanty. Professional or public exploration of issues related to NFE activities or to the design and implementation of solutions is also very limited to formulate any concrete conclusions about development in this area of education. Moreover, with the exception of proficiency education, there is little public recognition of the achievements of adult learners and most non-formal courses do not lead to more advanced courses.

A very large majority of people have no access to NFE opportunities and what provision there is, varies from one community to another. Those

with no access include very large numbers in need of basic education. For example, in 1980 there were no official literacy classes for the 1,5 million illiterate people in KaNgwane, KwaZulu and Transkei and only 100 000 adults attended literacy classes annually.

With regard to the pattern of provision, the determining consideration appears to be ethnicity as is illustrated in the following comparison of two areas in greater Johannesburg: In one, an Indian area, there appears to be very few NFE activities, and what provision exists, focusses on cultural and religious education for young people of a particular religion. Young people of different religions study separately. In the Black areas, however, whatever there is in the way of NFE activities shows variety of access, with learners of different religions, languages and home backgrounds typically learning together. The Report, therefore, concludes that it is unusual for in the field of non-formal educational activities (with the exception of proficiency education) for people of different population groups to learn together as peers.

Another important finding contained in the Report is the lack of training in effective agencies in providing information and/or services. In fact, it is extremely rare for learners to negotiate curriculum or methods with teachers/trainers, "choice" being limited to selecting or rejecting learning packages and situations devised by others. This problem serves to emphasise the need to create training courses for adult educators. In proficiency education, however, the situation is much better; teachers/trainers frequently receive short inservice training.



With the exception of proficiency education, the provision of facilities for NFE and the location of facilities in relation to residence, is generally unsatisfactory. This problem is, moreover, made more complex by the fact that a very limited number of employers offer a shortened working day to workers wishing to attend NFE classes. The Report suggests that a partial solution to this problem is the use of mass media in all its forms for the provision of NFE 'campaigns'.

The Report concludes that most problems in the provision of NFE are associated with a lack of funds. Apart from proficiency education, all other forms of NFE are grossly under-financed, their main source of income being donations/grants.

### 2.3.2 The De Lange Report: A Landmark in the Development of Education - Both Formal and Non-Formal - in the RSA

The de Lange Report - a report of the Human Sciences Research Council on education - provides a major landmark in the history of NFE in the RSA. Because of the highly significant role of the Report in the recognition and acceptance of NFE by the government, the researcher considers it important to discuss in some detail the government's initial request to the HSRC: In June 1980 the South African Government requested the HSRC to conduct a comprehensive investigation into all aspects of education in the RSA. The request expressly asked for recommendations on:

- "(a) guiding principles for a feasible education policy in the RSA in order to allow for the realization of the inhabitants'

potential; to promote economic growth in the country; and to improve the quality of life of all the inhabitants,

- (b) the organization, control and finance structure in education,
- (c) machinery for consultation and decision-making in education,
- (d) an education infrastructure to provide for the manpower requirements of the RSA and the self-realization of its inhabitants,
- (e) a programme for making available education of the same quality for all population groups.

The investigation was to be conducted in the light of, among other things, the present educational situation, the population composition in South African society and the means that can be made available for education in the national economy. The investigation must cover all levels of education, i.e. pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary" (de Lange Report, 1981, 1).

#### 2.3.2.1 The de Lange Report Proposals for NFE

Before the completion of the de Lange Report in October 1981, the term "non-formal education" was seldom used in South Africa. It was only after the release of the Report that the term and concept attracted serious attention in this country. References to NFE occur throughout the Report and particular emphasis is given to the need to recognise it as a partner to formal education. Indeed the Report of the Interim Education Working Party which reformulated the de Lange Report goes as far as

to recommend that NFE be structured right down to the third level of government, a recommendation which the researcher considers to be noteworthy in the historical development of NFE in the RSA and which is quoted in full to show the wide scope and structured levels contained in it:

- "(a) The identification of the need and planning provision for non-formal education for adults who are not of compulsory school-going age should be done by a sub-regional body which -
- (i) should identify those adult learning needs for which provision does not exist;
  - (ii) should provide a basic guarantee of standards for programmes and/or certificate courses for which special financing has to be found; and
  - (iii) should find sources of finance for programmes and/or certificate courses.
- (b) Initially, since it is necessary for non-formal education to be placed on an orderly footing but enough research has not yet been done on non-formal education, subregional educational bodies and other employer and employee organisations as well as cultural bodies and similar groups should be involved in the constitution of a subregional body.
- (c) The South African Council for Education should, through its recommended committee for non-formal education, give substance to all aspects of non-formal education."

(White Paper, 1983, 18).

One of the main contributions of the Report was the eleven guiding principles for the provision of education (including non-formal education) which were accepted by the Government but not adopted in full. However, the Government is presently investigating ways in which the accepted principles, as qualified in the Government's Interim Memorandum (par. 2), could find concrete expression in an Act or Acts. But of crucial concern to the future development of NFE was the Government's full adoption of principles 5 and 7 which relate specifically to the provision of NFE in the R.S.A. These two principles have been quoted in chapter one.

Principle 5 emphasises the need for a positive relationship between the formal, non-formal and informal aspects of education in the school, society and family while principle 7 states that the private sector and the state shall have a shared responsibility for the provision of NFE.

### 2.3.3 The Government White Paper: A Response to the De Lange Report and the Interim Education Working Party

The Government's response to the de Lange Report on education was the release of a White Paper in November 1983 in which it confirmed its acceptance of the eleven guiding principles for the provision of education (including those for non-formal education). Also presented was a brief over-view of current NFE activities being provided for Whites, Coloureds, Indians and Blacks. With regard to Whites, a variety of effective NFE programmes were provided by a number of bodies and organisations which received assistance and financial support from the Government through the Cultural Affairs Directorate and the Directorate

of Sport Advancement of the Department of National Education, and others which did not receive support from the Government. In addition, Universities, technikons, technical Colleges and schools arranged their own non-formal programmes of instruction and educational activities from time to time.

It was the view of the Government that the expansion of NFE among Coloureds, Indians and Blacks was still in its infancy and was therefore, being given high priority within the education departments concerned. Some of the most important recent non-formal activities being undertaken by the education departments concerned were:

Coloureds: The appointment of more professionals to women's organisations was being considered.

Indians: Research was being carried out by the House of Delegates: Department of Education and Culture to determine the need for Community learning centres with a view to introducing classes for adults in areas where schools can be used as venues.

Blacks: The Department of Education and Training provided classes for adults in the afternoons and evenings on subjects ranging from literacy training to standard 10 courses.

(White Paper, 1983, 20).

The Government, however, held the view that technical colleges were the institutions pre-eminently suited to the planned presentation of NFE programmes, partly because they functioned efficiently and partly because their control board afforded representation to all the bodies proposed in the de Lange recommendations for provision of NFE.

#### 2.3.4 Selected Responses to the de Lange Report and the Government's Proposals for Non-Formal Education

##### 2.3.4.1 Introduction

The inclusion of non-formal education as a major component in the system of education provision in the RSA generated enormous public interest. Moreover, in appointing the Interim Education Working Party, it was the government's wish that the Working Party considered the reactions of interested persons and bodies to the de Lange Report before preparing its recommendations. Thus, interest in NFE proposals was also created by the government's declared intention to consider reactions of all concerned.

Two of the most influential bodies to respond to the proposals for NFE were the "1820 Foundation" and the South African Association for the Advancement of Education. Both bodies devoted their annual conferences to the de Lange Report. In this section, some views of selected contributors to each of these conferences are examined.

#### 2.3.4.2 The National Education Conference 1982 Organised by the 1820 Foundation

In response to the government's Interim Memorandum which invited comment on the de Lange Report, the 1820 Foundation invited leading educationists and persons involved in education from throughout the country to a National Education Conference. The Conference was designed "as much as to inform delegates of the contents of the Report as to stimulate discussion on a number of its most important features" (Bozzoli, opening address). The proceedings of the Conference were submitted to the Minister of National Education and the general public of South Africa.

Examined here are some issues on the provision of NFE. These were raised by selected participants at the Conference (National Education Conference, 1982).

##### 2.3.4.2.1 The Significance of NFE

As Director of Planning and Development of the Urban Foundation, Dr. Lee was eminently suited to the task of commenting on NFE in the RSA. Dr. Lee argued that the de Lange Report failed to provide substantial discussion on the importance of NFE, an area of education which the Report recognises as highly important. He argued that:

"The Main Committee Report on the Investigation into Education reveals a somewhat ironic perspective on non-formal education. It is consistently identified as one of the highest priorities in the future provision of education in South Africa; yet no work

committee was established to investigate this theme, and there is no sustained discussion of it. Instead, references - some 20 in all - are scattered throughout the Report." (Proceedings of the National Education Conference, 1982, 50).

Dr. Lee also highlighted the Report's lack of information on the importance to link NFE with the stage of development of the RSA. He, therefore, argued that the role of NFE would be more easily identified if the Report provided more useful statistical data.

Dr. Lee, however, regarded the Report as having clearly established the high priority for NFE and stressed that a positive view be taken. The field had at least been identified and effort must be made to devise and implement an effective provision.

#### 2.3.4.2.2 NFE and the World of Work

As head of the Division of Adult Education and Director of the Centre for continuing Education at the University of Witwatersrand, and as former Professor of Adult Education and Director of Adult Education at the University of Zimbabwe, Professor Russel was eminently qualified to comment on proposals of NFE contained in the de Lange Report.

Russel's view of the Report's proposals on NFE provision was a positive one. In examining the proposals Russel regarded the integration of formal and NFE as the most significant aspect of the Report. This would pave the way for the implementation of a sound principle that education should be interspersed with work throughout life. (Proceedings of the National Education Conference, 1982, 58).



His view was that NFE should be available to all, over the individual's whole lifetime, at stages related to his own needs; and his particular concern was for the large number of early school leavers and adult workers. For the majority of school leavers, often those who were forced to seek employment, adult education became the dominant component in the system.

#### 2.3.4.2.3 The Respective Roles of the Government and the Private Sector

As Director of Industrial Relations for the Ford Motor Company in Port Elizabeth since 1968, and as Chairman of Task Groups 1 and II of the Implementation of the Sullivan Code (Desegregation of the Races in Facilities and Equal and Fair employment practices), Ferreira was most suited to the task of commenting on the de Lange Report proposals on the role of government and private sector in NFE.

In examining the role of the private sector in the provision of NFE, Ferreira believed that the private sector could make a constructive contribution towards improving the quality of life of unskilled adults. He suggested that, apart from pooling resources or buying services from each other to teach basic common skills, "Groups of firms could also jointly build community centres for non-formal education, thus involving the community not only as learners, but also as active participants." (Proceedings of the National Education Conference, 1982, 69).

Ferreira suggested that there should be greater co-operation between the private sector and the government in providing education for working adults. His view was that co-ordination should be expanded right across

the country with the private sector involved in career counselling in schools co-operating with teacher-psychologists.

In considering the role of the State in NFE, Ferreira suggested that it should mainly be concerned with the provision of an infrastructure: co-ordination; dissemination of information; provision of facilities and funding. It could also help by setting out learning objectives and developing audio-visual aids.

Ferreira concluded by suggesting that government should give stronger encouragement to the private sector to play a greater role in the provision of NFE by reforming tax-concessions.

#### 2.3.4.3 South African Association for the Advancement of Education (SAAAE)

The South African Association for the Advancement of Education devoted its 1984 Conference to the theme of the inclusion of NFE in the system of education provision. The Conference was opened by the President of the HSRC, Dr. J.G. Garbers, whose views should, therefore, be particularly significant. In his opening address, which formed a critique of the White Paper proposals regarding NFE, Dr. Garbers raised a number of important issues. Because of the significant nature of these issues, the discussion in this section will be confined to the issues raised by Dr. Garbers (Conference of SAAAE, 1984).

His address concentrated on guidelines for control measures and co-ordination in implementing NFE. Some of the issues raised by Dr. Garbers are discussed below.

#### 2.3.4.3.1 Problems of Co-ordination

The problem of co-ordinating the varied aims of NFE demanded serious consideration. Some of the aims included: compensatory education; manpower training and the acquisition of vocational skills; improvement of the quality of life; social development programmes; and in-service training programmes.

Another aspect of the problem of co-ordination related to the unique characteristics of NFE such as methods, time, content and venue. In Dr. Garbers' view, NFE must enjoy a large measure of autonomy and must be conducted in a democratic fashion, otherwise it would merely revert to formal education.

#### 2.3.4.3.2 Expansion of Education Provision Through NFE

The intention to inspan NFE as one of the means of effecting expansion of education provision in the RSA was sound, and both the private and formal education sectors had roles to play in it. Dr. Garbers, however, pointed out that the expansion envisaged, involved overlap which would necessitate the inclusion of a liberal component in NFE. This would also imply that both formal and NFE should contain a component of general formative education.

Dr. Garbers further asserted that in order to ensure expansion,

"The point of departure throughout will be maximum rationalisation, minimum institutionalisation, maximum decentralisation and devolution of control, and the deliberate use of scarce resources."

(Garbers, 1984, 9)

However, the problem of co-ordinating formal and NFE in RSA was still new and proven models did not exist. In this regard, le Roux (1985, 20) argues as follows:

"Proven management models of the co-ordination of formal and non-formal education do not exist. The RSA will virtually have to approach the education provision via non-formal education and the co-ordination of the two forms of educations de novo."

#### 2.3.4.3.3 The Problem of Credibility

In raising the issue of the credibility of NFE within the compulsory education provision, Dr. Garbers referred to a key recommendation contained in the HSRC Report and approved in principle by the Government that the nine years compulsory learning be made up as follows: six years compulsory school attendance and further three years of FE or NFE. Dr. Garbers stressed that as far as NFE was concerned, these three years should be spent at accredited institutions (1984, 18).

Dr. Garbers was also concerned that political problems could undermine this credibility proposal. He suggested a solution to the credibility problem: the inclusion of a component of liberal education in the curricula of NFE (See 2.3.4.3.2).

#### 2.3.5 Selected Statistical Material Relevant to the Demand for Non-Formal Education Among Indians in S.A.

It is generally acknowledged that a firm statistical base is essential for estimating the quality and nature of the demand for education.

This is particularly true of the field of NFE in South Africa. In highlighting the significance of a statistical base for the provision of NFE in RSA, the Urban Foundation Report (1982, 20), argues that,

"Having a good understanding of the quality of the challenge is, in our opinion, the basis for sound planning to meet it qualitatively."

It must be pointed out that the main purpose of providing the following statistics is to show the 'potential' target group among Indians for provision of NFE. The tables presented and discussed are from the Urban Foundation Report, "Design Study for the Provision of Non-Formal Education in South Africa" (1982). Statistical data in this report were based on material supplied by the Research Unit for Educational Planning, University of the Orange Free State.

#### 2.3.5.1 The South African Population Growth and Size (Tables 2.1-2.2)

The South African population is presently characterised by rapid growth. Examination of table 2.1, however, shows that the peak in rates of population growth for Indians may have been reached in the decade 1960-1970, and that current rates of growth may be declining. The total population will, nonetheless, continue to increase for many years. Therefore, plans and provisions for NFE have to be long term.

TABLE 2.1

ANNUAL RATES OF POPULATION GROWTH FOR INDIANS

TOTAL % GROWTH						
1936-46	1946-51	1951-60	1961-70	1971-80	1981-90	1991-2000
2,9%	5,06%	2,81%	2,88%	2,65%	2,22%	2,82%

Table 2.2 indicates that the population in 1990 will be just under one million and in 2 000 just over one million. These figures suggest a potential demand for NFE from those Indians who are disadvantaged.

TABLE 2.2  
POPULATION PROJECTIONS FOR INDIANS

	1980		1990		2 000	
	Indian Pop.	% of Tot. Pop.	Indian Pop.	% of Tot. Pop.	Indian Pop.	% of Tot. Pop.
High	813 210	3,0	973 270	2,9	1 127 660	2,8
Low	813 050	3,0	960 420	2,9	1 086 810	2,8

#### 2.3.5.2 Age Distribution (Table 2.3)

Table 2.3 provides relevant data in respect of age of Indians. Data indicate a large percentage of adults in the 15-64 year category. Many of these would not have had enough formal education opportunities and would be seeking NFE.

TABLE 2.3  
AGE DISTRIBUTION  
Percentage of Indian Population by Age Group

1980		1990 (projection)		2000 (projection)	
0-14 yrs	15-64 yrs	0-14 yrs	15-64 yrs	0-14 yrs	15-64 yrs
36,9%	60,5%	30,9%	65,3%	26,1%	68,6%

### 2.3.5.3 Urbanization (Table 2.4)

The growing South African population is becoming more urbanized and this phenomenon introduces special educational challenges in the South African situation. Table 2.4 shows that very significant numbers of Indians are urbanized. These numbers suggest a high potential demand for NFE as many Indian adults are in semi-skilled and blue collar occupations.

TABLE 2.4  
URBANIZATION OF INDIANS

1980		1990		2000	
Urban Population		Urban Population		Urban Population	
No.	% Of Indian Population	No.	% of Indian Population	No.	% of Indian Population
726 000	91%	952 000	94%	1 154 000	95%

### 2.3.5.4 Educational Levels of Indians in South Africa (Table 2.5)

Table 2.5 provides the educational profile of the South African Indians in 1980. Data show that 26% of the population had no formal education at all which suggests a potentially big demand for NFE. In addition, a proportion of the 31% who had achieved an educational level between the first year of schooling and standard five would be candidates for NFE.

TABLE 2.5EDUCATIONAL PROFILE FOR INDIANS: 1980

No Formal Education	Standard 5 and Below	Standards 6 - 10	Diploma	Degree
26%	31%	40%	2%	1%

2.3.5.5 Illiteracy Rate Among South African Indians (Table 2.6)

Literacy and numeracy are two elements of every South African's set of minimal essential learning needs. According to unpublished preliminary statistics derived from the 1980 census 39,45% of all South Africans are illiterate. (The census figures exclude the "independent states"). For the purpose of the 1980 census, people who had not completed standard 3 at schools were identified as illiterate. A 11,76% illiteracy indicates that Indians have a major challenge in the field of literacy that can only be met by extensive NFE programmes.

TABLE 2.6LITERACY PROFILE FOR INDIAN ADULTS: 1980

Age Group	No. Literate	No. Illiterate	% Illiteracy
15 - 24 yrs	163 640	1 760	1,06
25+ yrs	313 420	37 420	10,7



CHAPTER THREERESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of this investigation was to establish the NFE needs of persons who were not engaged in formal study. The nature of the present study is primarily descriptive. According to Good (1963, 244) and Borg (1967, 202) descriptive research precedes other types of research because before progress can be made in solving certain problems one needs to show what the existing facts and prevailing conditions are. The descriptive study reveals existing facts and prevailing conditions in an unambiguous way.

While descriptive research is primarily concerned with conditions as they are, it nevertheless involves much more than a process of fact-finding; "it must seek to discover cause and effect relationships, and attempt to give interpretations as well" (Behr, 1973, 10).

Moreover, descriptive research is of value to decision-makers and policy-designers when they identify and illuminate emergent problems.

Behr (1973, 10) states that descriptive research can be classified into three main types:

- (i) surveys
- (ii) developmental studies; and
- (iii) case studies

### 3.1 CHOICE OF RESEARCH DESIGN: THE SURVEY

The research design chosen for this investigation is the survey. The survey design has been defined simply as "gathering information" about a large number of people by interviewing a few of them (Black and Champion, 1976, 84). The number of functions performed by any research design largely depends upon the degree of sophistication of the design coupled with the researcher's concerns. Some of the most important functions of the survey as a research design are: the accumulation of information from individuals at relatively low cost; generalizability to the larger population is more legitimate because of the generally large numbers of persons included in a survey; surveys allow flexibility in data collection techniques; they sensitise the researcher to potential problems that were originally unanticipated or unknown; and are useful tools that enable investigators to verify theories.

### 3.2 CHOICE OF FORM OF DATA COLLECTION: THE INTERVIEW

Having decided upon the survey design, the researcher then gave consideration to the various forms of data collection before selecting the interview technique. Because of its characteristic verbal interaction between investigator and respondent, the interview is regarded as the most sociological of all research techniques (Black and Champion, 1976, 353). Moreover, many insist that the best way to find out why persons behave as they do is to question them about their conduct directly by talking to them.

Some of the main advantages of the interview are: it enables the investigator to obtain desired information more quickly; it permits

the investigator to be sure that respondents interpret questions correctly; it allows for greater flexibility in the process of questioning; and information can be more readily checked for validity on the basis of non-verbal cues by the respondent (Black and Champion, 1976, 370).

However, the main reason for the researcher's decision to employ this technique was that it provides the investigator with an opportunity to explain the requirement of questions and thereby eliminate incorrect responses, and to complete partial responses. One of the shortcomings of the interview technique is that it usually takes much more time to complete than is at first envisaged.

### 3.3 CHOICE OF INTERVIEW TYPE: THE STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

The structured interview was chosen in preference to the unstructured type. The structured interview is an act of verbal communication for the purpose of eliciting information and it can be conducted with groups of persons as well as with individual members of the group. In the conduct of this type of interview, the precise questions are shown in the form of the wording which is to be adopted, and the investigator is in fact a reader of a questionnaire. Furthermore, all information is recorded by the investigator rather than the respondent which ensures greater reliability of data. For research purposes beyond the pilot and exploratory stage, the structured interview has the advantages of relative objectivity, uniformity and reliability (Burroughs, 1975).

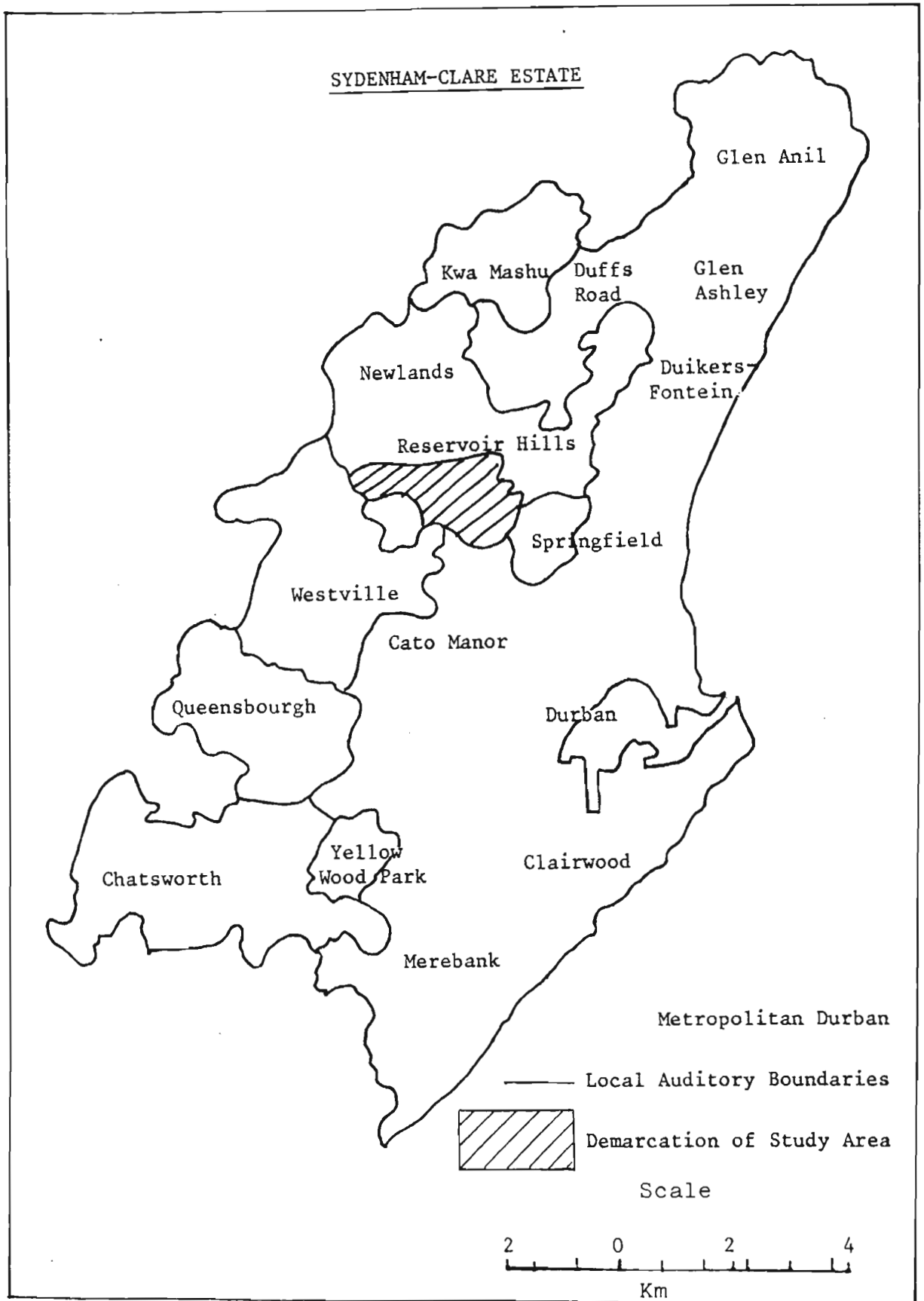
According to Cohen and Manion (1980) the structured interview is one of the most frequently used methods of eliciting information in social and educational research. Few other data collection tools offer as wide a range of asking formats to the investigator as the structured interview technique. Such an amount of structural variability allows for a greater degree of mutual understanding of both the questions and the answers on the part of the interviewee and the interviewer (Black and Champion, 1976).

#### 3.4 CHOICE OF LOCALE

In deciding on the locale of the present study, namely Sydenham - Clare Estate, the researcher gave consideration to the following factors:

- (a) The area is a long-standing Indian residential area which has not been "spoilt" by developments in commerce and industry to any significant extent.
- (b) There is a reasonable cross-section of social, educational and occupational backgrounds among the Indian residents in the area.
- (c) The area is within reasonable travelling distance of the researcher's home and place of work.
- (d) The researcher has lived in the area since birth and has taught at five schools in the area over a period of seventeen years.
- (e) The study area is clearly demarcated and within the boundaries of Metropolitan Durban.

FIGURE 3.1: MAP OF STUDY AREA



### 3.5 CHOICE OF SAMPLE AND TECHNIQUES

#### 3.5.1 Sample Selection

The selection of the sample involved a two-stage procedure:

- (a) the compilation of a comprehensive list of addresses of prospective adult subjects in the study area, using a questionnaire, and
- (b) the selection of adult interviewees from the comprehensive list of addresses to administer the interview schedule.

#### 3.5.2 Choice of Techniques for Gathering Data

Two separate instruments were used to gather the data in this study:

- (a) a pupil questionnaire which was administered to Indian pupils from standard three to standard ten, in the area under study, to obtain addresses of prospective adult subjects to be interviewed, and
- (b) an interview schedule which was administered to selected Indian male and female adults in the area under study (the main investigation).

### 3.6 FIRST STAGE OF THE SURVEY: THE PUPIL SURVEY

#### 3.6.1 Selection of Schools

To obtain a comprehensive list of prospective subjects in the area studied, it was decided to use pupils of all the schools in the area

to acquire information about their families. The schools involved were Indian primary and secondary schools: six primary and three secondary.

Below is a list of the Indian primary and secondary schools selected:

PRIMARY

COLLEGEVALE 14	-	College Road, Sydenham
OVERPORT S.R.S.	-	West Road, Overport
SPRINGFIELD MODEL	-	Daintree Avenue, Asherville
SYDENHAM 58	-	Clare Road, Sydenham
CLAREVILLE	-	Tagore Road, Clare Estate
S.M. JHAVARY	-	Clare Road, Clare Estate

SECONDARY

OVERPORT	-	cnr. Ward and Essendene Roads, Overport
CENTENARY	-	Dunnottar Avenue, Asherville
BURNWOOD	-	Burnwood Road, Sydenham

3.6.2 Pupils in the Sample

Almost all pupils in these schools were residents of the study area. Each questionnaire was to provide details about one specific household in respect of persons who were not in formal educational institutions. Therefore, members of the same family were provided with a single questionnaire. To avoid younger brothers or sisters also completing questionnaires, the researcher commenced with the highest standard in a school and progressed downwards, asking students who had older

brothers and/or sisters not to fill questionnaires. Pupils in the junior primary classes were excluded on the basis that they were too young to undertake the requirements of the questionnaire. Besides, the strong likelihood existed that older brothers or sisters of these juniors would have already filled a questionnaire.

### 3.6.3 The Pupil Questionnaire: Purpose and Nature

It was decided to use the questionnaire method to obtain information from pupils because of the vast extent of the area (Sydenham - Clare Estate) and the large number of pupils involved. According to Behr (1973, 11) the questionnaire method continues to be, if properly constructed and administered, the best available instrument for obtaining information from widely spread sources.

The main purpose of the pupil questionnaire was to obtain a list of addresses of prospective adult subjects from which to select the sample for the area under study. In the designing of the questionnaire, careful consideration was given to 'pupils' reading and comprehension abilities since the pupils' class levels ranged from standard three to standard ten. The questionnaire was also designed to take as little class teaching time as possible; it was estimated that a poor reader in a standard three class would be able to complete it in about five minutes. Any problems experienced by pupils would, however, be resolved by the researcher administering the questionnaire.

The questionnaire contained five items. Item I (What is your home address?) required the pupil to enter his/her home address in the space



provided. As mentioned earlier, this information formed the main purpose of the pupil questionnaire because the addresses were required to compile a comprehensive list of prospective adult interviewees from the study area.

Items 2 (Do you have a father/step-father?); 3 (Do you have a mother/step-mother?); 4 (How many of your brothers have left school?) and 5 (How many of your sisters have left school?) were all designed to establish the adult composition of families in the study area.

On examination of responses it appeared that the pupils followed the instructions easily as the number of errors made was negligible.

#### 3.6.4 Administration of Pupil Questionnaires

The researcher was able to acquire the co-operation of principals and teachers of the selected schools through the kind co-operation of the Director of Indian Education who granted permission to conduct this research in the schools selected.

The researcher wrote to all the principals concerned about the intended administration of questionnaires. He followed this up with visits to all the selected schools. In one school the researcher personally administered pupil questionnaires. In the remaining schools administration was by school counsellors and teachers who were briefed about the procedure with the aid of an explanatory hand-out.

To ensure the anonymity of the pupils concerned, provision was made for the entry of the pupil's standard and division only on the questionnaire.

Spoilt questionnaires were removed and not considered in the sample. These, however, totalled 55 out of 2 210 which was considered negligible.

### 3.6.5 Responses to Pupil Questionnaire (Table 3.1)

The general administration of the questionnaire went as planned and the ease with which it was distributed, completed and returned must be attributed to the simple, unambiguous nature of the questionnaire and the ready co-operation of principals, teachers and pupils of the selected schools.

Table 3.1 shows the distribution of adults according to sex. This information was extracted from the pupil questionnaires.

TABLE 3.1

#### MALE-FEMALE DISTRIBUTION OF ADULTS

Total No. of Male Adults		Total No. of Female Adults		Total No. of Adults	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
2 899	48	3 107	52	6 006	100

The data shows a small difference between the number of males, 2 899 and females, 3 107.

### 3.7 SECOND STAGE OF THE SURVEY: THE ADULT SAMPLE

The present study was located in an area with a predominantly Indian population, and it was necessary to examine the non-formal education needs of adult males and females with a wide age range (17 to 70 years). It was decided, therefore, that a fairly large representative sample should be selected in order to produce statistically dependable results. Another reason for a fairly large sample was the need to cover a wide range of the socio-economic stratum of the community to be surveyed. The researcher also gave consideration to the cost involved in the sampling process and the convenience and accessibility of elements in the population to be studied, before finally deciding on the sample size and sampling method. According to Black and Champion (1976, 269), the above considerations are important in deciding on sample size and sampling method. It was, therefore, decided to interview a sample of 400 families, which constituted 44.4% of all the families whose pupils completed the pupil questionnaire.

#### 3.7.1 Choice of Sampling Technique: Proportionate Stratified Random Sample

After a careful study of the various sampling methods employed in population studies, the researcher considered the proportionate stratified random sampling technique to be most appropriate for the present study. This sampling technique is employed where the population is a conglomerate, proportional mixture such as the present population under study (Ferguson, 1966, 134). According to Black and Champion (1976, 281); "such a plan is useful for obtaining a sample that will have specified characteristics in exact proportion to the way in which those

same characteristics are distributed in the population." In this method of sampling the first step is to effect a separation of the several discrete elements in the total population and from each of the individual groups; and the second step is to select a random sample proportionately representative of the numerical strength of each of the components within the entire conglomerate structure (Leedy, 1980, 120).

Because the adult age span in the present study was very wide (seventeen to seventy years), it was necessary to create appropriate age categories. In creating age categories the researcher also considered the following: education needs of unmarried adults; education needs of young married adults with children in primary school; education needs of married adults with children in primary or high school; education needs of married adults with children in high school and/or tertiary institutions; and education needs of adults nearing retirement age and/or in retirement.

On the basis of the above considerations and the age distribution of the population, the following age categories were created: 17 to 25 years; 26 to 35 years; 36 to 45 years; 46 to 55 years; and 56 years and over.

According to Black and Champion (1976, 284), some of the main advantages of the proportionate stratified random sampling method are: it enhances the representativeness of the sample; the sampling error associated with the sample as a population estimator is reduced over that found to occur with a simple random sample of the same size; and it eliminates the necessity to "weight" the elements according to their original distribution in the population.

One disadvantage of this method of sampling is that it is more difficult to obtain - it requires that the researcher knows something of the composition of the population and distribution of population characteristics prior to the draw of the elements; this method involves more time than a simple random sample; and there is always the likelihood that classification errors might result. Fortunately for the researcher, two factors helped to overcome this disadvantage:

- (a) the area is within reasonable travelling distance of the researcher's home and place of work, and
- (b) the fact that the researcher was a member of the community which formed the population for this survey.

### 3.7.2 The Interview Schedule

The provisional interview schedule was divided into three parts for convenient collection and collation of data. (See Appendix A of Interview Schedule in final form).

#### PART A: GENERAL INFORMATION OF FAMILY MEMBERS

The main purpose of this part of the interview schedule was to select one appropriate interviewee from adult members in each family visited. In addition, this part of the interview schedule was designed to elicit information about all adult members of the family in respect of: age, standard passed at school, occupation, current studies pursued, nature of studies, name of institution/agency where studies were pursued and whether current studies were job-related.

Most of the questions were of the closed form requiring the interviewee to merely give a number, for example, "age"; or a name, for example, "occupation". There were two questions of the fixed - alternative type requiring a "yes" or "no" response from interviewees.

#### PART B: INTERVIEWEE'S EMPLOYMENT AND EDUCATION PARTICULARS

The main purpose of this part of the interview schedule was to obtain information about the interviewee's employment locality and education interests with the intention of examining possible relationships between these and the interviewee's later response to what NFE study course provision he/she desired, in part C of the interview schedule. With regard to employment particulars, the intention of the questions was to ascertain convenience or inconvenience of the employment locality.

With the exception of questions 1 and 4.3, all questions were of the fixed - alternative type requiring the interviewee to give a "yes" or "no" response or to choose from more than two alternatives. In the case of the latter, provision was also made for "other" possible responses.

#### PART C: INTERVIEWEE'S CHOICE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION NEED

The purpose of PART C of the interview schedule was to establish the precise NFE course need of the interviewee, before entering it into one of three categories namely, basic, proficiency and community education (see chapter one for definitions). Also considered important was the interviewee's main reason for his/her choice. Most of the questions were of the closed form requiring a response to one of several possible answers.

### 3.7.3 The Pilot Study

The pilot study is an important preparatory step in the conduct of the interview form of survey (Robinson, 1981, 142). According to Black and Champion (1976, 112):

"Obtaining the reactions of a smaller sample of people who parallel the characteristics of those to be examined more intensely and on a larger scale at a later date will help to uncover potential weaknesses and flaws in the construction and content of the measuring instrument as well as illuminating various problems of approaching the target group and studying it most effectively."

The present pilot study was therefore planned and administered with considerations such as the time element, intrusions into the normal working day of workers, recording of data and the order of questions, given high priority. Moreover, the researcher needed the interview context experience which was important for the success of the survey.

#### 3.7.3.1 A Brief Description of the Pilot Study (Table 3.2)

The pilot study was conducted over a period of three weeks and administered to twelve adults who were made up of friends and professional colleagues (teachers) of the researcher as well as a few local residents not known before. The selected interviewees were made up of 6 females and 6 males whose ages ranged from 19 years to 50 years and whose educational levels varied widely. The following summarised table provides the important information of the 12 interviewees.

TABLE 3.2

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT DATA FROM PILOT STUDY

INTERVIEWEES	AGE	EDUCATION LEVEL	OCCUPATION	DO YOU NEED MORE EDUCATION?		NATURE OF EDUCATION/ STUDY COURSE NEEDED	
				Yes	No		
i)	A	40	B.Com	Insurance cons.	x		Community ed.
ii)	B	38	B.A.	teacher	x		Proficiency ed.
iii)	C	20	Std. 9	unemployed	x		Basic ed.
iv)	D	19	Std. 9	unemployed	x		Basic ed.
v)	E	50	Std. 7	glass cutter		x	-
vi)	F	48	Std. 8	clerk/sec.	x		Proficiency ed.
vii)	G	42	Dep.	teacher	x		Proficiency ed.
viii)	H	35	Std. 9	housewife	x		Community ed.
ix)	I	24	Std. 10	salesman	x		Proficiency ed.
x)	J	22	Std. 9	unemployed	x		Basic ed.
xi)	K	55	Std. 8	driver	x		Community ed.
xii)	L	62	Std. 5	housewife		x	-

3.7.3.2 Results of Pilot Study

The data summarised in table 3.2 is not presented to provide analysis or to seek any significance thereof but to broadly illustrate the main facts of the pilot study. As mentioned earlier, the main purpose of the pilot study was to establish problem areas in conducting interviews with a view to overcoming them in the interview proper. However, some facts contained in the table ought to be noted:

- (a) Two of the 12 adults indicated they would not attend an education/ study course at all.



- (b) Of the 10 adults who indicated a willingness to attend an education/study course of their choice, three chose community education, three chose basic education and four proficiency education.

It must be pointed out that in the case of the 3 adults choosing basic education, all three chose exactly the same education/study course, namely completion of the matriculation (Std. 10) examination. Another point to be noted was that in two instances the interviewees indicated a first and a second choice of an education/study course; the researcher selected the first choice. After a careful examination of the interviewees' responses and observations recorded during the conduct of interviews, it was decided to make the following adjustments to the interview schedule:

- (i) the interview schedule be divided into three parts, namely information about the interviewed family, information about the interviewees' employment and educational pursuits, and information about the interviewees' choice of education/study course
- (ii) information about adult family members be more comprehensive to provide the researcher with a wider range of possible interviewees to choose from
- (iii) interviewees be categorised into five age groups ranging from 17 to 70 years

- (iv) interviewees give the "most" important reason for their choice of an education/study course
- (v) the interview schedule be designed to be less time-consuming, and questions therefore be largely of the "fixed alternative" type with the provision for an "other" category wherever applicable
- (vi) use of tape-recorders be avoided because they caused uneasiness during the interviews and this affected the validity of responses

#### 3.7.4 Problems Experienced During Administration of Instrument

In an education survey such as the present, it was important to point out the various problems experienced in the conduct of the interview since they could affect the research findings. In the present research interview, the researcher experienced problems before and during the interview. It must, however, be pointed out that, in the opinion of the researcher, these problems did not affect the research findings in any appreciable way.

These problems have, however, been presented in two separate categories:

- (a) problems experienced in conducting the survey, and
- (b) problems encountered in conducting interviews.

### 3.7.5 Problems Experienced in Conducting the Survey

The researcher experienced certain problems which, although not unexpected, often hampered the smooth progress of the survey which was conducted by the researcher alone. It was the researcher's intention to complete the 400 interviews within a period of four months but this task was only completed at the end of eight months. The basic problem was the time factor. Apart from the large number of interviews, some interviews, generally because of communication difficulties, proved to be excessively time-consuming and frequently resulted in the researcher having to reschedule and increase his programme of home visits.

However, rescheduling home visits did not always resolve the problem because on some occasions the researcher visited homes and discovered that there was no senior member of the family present with whom to conduct the interview. It must also be mentioned that part of the survey was conducted during the fasting period (Ramadaan) of the Muslims. This too forced the researcher to reschedule his home visits.

### 3.7.6 Problems Experienced in Conducting Interviews

Apart from the problems experienced in conducting the survey, there were certain problems encountered in the actual interview. An occasional but minor difficulty was trying to establish which adult member of the family was most suitable to provide correct information to PART A of the interview schedule; it sometimes appeared that parents were less reliable than their more highly educated adult children. In

such situations the researcher considered the responses of both parents and the most highly educated adult son/daughter, a procedure which also served to check responses. This difficulty, however, did not occur frequently and the researcher was able to overcome it whenever it did.

Another problem that the researcher encountered from time to time was the inability to select an appropriate interviewee from a particular family to maintain the required ratio (1:1) of male and female interviewees in the respective age groups. The problem arose when an interviewed family did not have the required adult as a member of its household. The researcher was able to resolve this by taking the "best" adult available and correcting the imbalance when selecting the next interviewee. It was, therefore, necessary to adjust for proportionality on the basis of the availability of appropriate adults.

CHAPTER 4FINDINGS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Underlying the de Lange Report's (1981) recommendation that adequate provision for individual needs should be an essential consideration in providing NFE in the RSA, is the process of identifying NFE needs in South African society. However, the lack of reliable research findings on such needs has given rise to much speculation on this issue. The observation of Lee (1982) that no official (departmental) institution has carried out a study of present provisions for NFE or problems experienced by individuals, is of special significance in emphasising the need for research.

Khanyile (1986, 92) also argues for the identification of NFE needs in South African society when he states that non-formal educators should be able to identify and know these needs.

The purpose of this survey was to identify the NFE needs of Indian adults who were not engaged in formal education studies. The survey also considered the various factors influencing their needs.

4.1 LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The present study was beset with a variety of expected and unexpected problems, both in its initial planning and in its execution. The foremost problem was that the researcher had to accept the information obtained from the survey subject to the potential limitations on it.

Moreover, the selection of the interview method for this survey involved the sacrifice of some desiderata in order to retain others (See Chapter 3).

The credibility of the results of this research was dependent on the reliability of the interviews and the validity of the items in the interview. In order to interview subjects successfully the researcher had to read extensively and acquire experience in conducting interviews. The pilot study (See Chapter 3) helped to overcome problems related to inexperience in interviewing.

The survey was restricted to a community, namely Indian. Findings and recommendations should therefore be viewed against this restriction.

A minor problem related to the sampling technique, namely, the proportionate stratified random sample. The researcher was occasionally unable to satisfy proportionality in respect of the elements of age and sex, but this was resolved partly by making a slight adjustment (See Chapter 3). This sampling technique, however, has a lower margin of error than the simple random sampling technique.

Finally, whatever the limitations of the present study, it is hoped that it will in some way highlight the problems of NFE.

#### 4.2 PROCEDURE IN THE PRESENT STUDY

The present study was divided into three parts, namely PART A: information of family members, PART B: information about interviewees'

employment and educational background, and PART C: information about interviewees' NFE needs. The information gathered in each of the three parts of the survey is presented under the following headings:

- (a) Analysis of data pertaining to interviewees and their adult family members (PART A OF SCHEDULE).
- (b) Analysis of 400 interviewees' employment and educational background (PART B OF SCHEDULE).
- (c) Analysis of interviewees' NFE needs (PART C OF SCHEDULE).

#### 4.3 Analysis of Data Pertaining to Interviewees and their Adult Family Members (PART A OF SCHEDULE)

##### 4.3.1 Introduction

Family members were restricted to male and female members of the interviewee's household who were seventeen years or older. For statistical reasons members of the family were divided into six categories, namely fathers, mothers, sons, daughters, grandfathers and grandmothers.

Information about family members was restricted to the following: age; level of schooling; occupation; current studies; institution of current studies; and study-job relationship.

All data presented in this section represent the results of PART A of the interview schedule. Six separate analyses are presented with a supporting table for each.

#### 4.3.2 Test of Significance: $X^2$

The Chi square statistic ( $X^2$ ) is a test of significance which compares observed frequencies with expected frequencies (Downie and Heath, 1970, 197). It is a measure of the discrepancy between observed and expected frequencies (Freund and Wilbourne, 1977, 330). Observed frequencies are obtained empirically while expected frequencies are generated on the basis of some hypothesis or theoretical speculation (Ferguson, 1966, 191).

In this study the  $X^2$  statistic was used to test differences for significance. Critical values for  $X^2$  are taken at the 5% and 1% levels. Symbols used will be:

- (a)  $p < 0,05$  to denote significance at the 5% level.
- (b)  $p < 0,01$  to denote significance at the 1% level.

#### 4.3.3 Analysis of Adult Members of Families Interviewed (Table 4.1)

The researcher adopted the proportionate stratified random sampling method for the survey. The numerical relationship was dictated by this sampling method. Table 4.1 shows the distribution of the 1 098 adults who were members of the 400 families interviewed.



TABLE 4.1

DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERS OF FAMILIES INTERVIEWED

	Males		Females	
	No.	%	No.	%
(a) fathers	371	69	-	-
(b) mothers	-	-	375	67
(c) sons	115	21	-	-
(d) daughters	-	-	111	20
(e) grandfathers	56	10	-	-
(f) grandmothers	-	-	70	13
TOTAL	542	100	556	100
%	49,4		50,6	

The results presented in table 4.1 show that of the 1 098 adults in the 400 families interviewed 542 (49,4%) were males and 556 (50,6%) were females. These figures reflect almost equal representation between males and females which basically confirms good sampling because the ratio of male is to female in the Indian community is about 1:1. This numerical equality between the sexes is reflected not only in the case of fathers and mothers (371:375), but also in the case of sons and daughters, namely, 115:111 and both ratios are equivalent to 1:1. The sample is representative of the population and according to Black and Champion (1976, 284), this increases the validity of generalisations to be made.

However, the frequencies for grandfathers and grandmothers, 56 and 70 respectively, show a slightly larger number of grandmothers, the difference however, is not significant as a  $\chi^2$  of 1,56 ( $p > 0,05$ )

indicates. This is not unexpected as statistics reveal that South African women have, on the average, a longer life span than men.

#### 4.3.4 Analysis of Ages of Adults in Families Interviewed (Table 4.2)

The accompanying table (4.2) shows the distribution of 1 098 adult males and females in terms of age. An examination of the table reveals that the greatest number of adults fell within the age groups 36-45 years (29%) and 46-55 years (28%). Moreover, the percentages were about the same for the two age groups.

Although the percentages for the age groups 17-25 years and 55 years and over were the same (16%), they were considerably lower than the percentages for the age groups 36-45 years and 46-55 years. The lowest percentage (11%) fell within the age group 26-35 years.

On examination of the five age groups, the following emerged:

A large majority of sons and daughters (75% and 85% respectively) fell into the 17-25 years age group. This was regarded normal for sons and daughters since many in this age group were still single or unmarried members of their parents' households.

It was interesting to note that in the 26-35 years age group, mothers (49) exceeded fathers (20) by 29. This difference is significant as the calculated  $X^2$  was 12,03 ( $p < 0,01$ ). The relatively large disparity is explained by the fact that Indian men generally marry women who are younger than themselves. This was further borne out

TABLE 4.2

AGE DISTRIBUTION

Member of Family	17-25 Years		26-35 Years		36-45 Years		46-55 Years		56 Years		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
(a) Fathers	-	-	20	5	156	42	156	42	39	11	371	100
(b) Mothers	-	-	49	13	167	45	151	40	8	2	375	100
(c) Sons	86	75	29	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	115	100
(d) Daughters	94	85	17	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	111	100
(e) Grandfathers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	56	100	56	100
(f) Grandmothers	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	4	67	96	70	100
TOTAL	180		115		323		310		170		1098	
%	16		11		29		28		16		100	

by the data for grandparents, where in the age group 46-55 years there were 3 grandmothers but no grandfathers, and in the age group 56 years and over there were 56 grandmothers and 67 grandfathers.

The data relating to fathers and mothers in the age group 56 years and over reflected a disparity similar to that observed in the age group 26-35 years, with fathers (39) exceeding mothers (8) by 31. As explained in the analysis of the age group 26-35 years, the reason for this disparity is probably due to the fact that amongst Indians, men are generally older than women at marriage. Further the difference is significant with  $\chi^2 = 20,01$  ( $p < 0,01$ ).

#### 4.3.5 Analysis of Educational Levels of Adults in Families Interviewed (Table 4.3)

The educational background of a community is an important factor in any social science research, more particularly in an education needs study such as the present one. For statistical reasons the educational levels were divided into four categories namely, primary school (up to standard 4), junior secondary (standard 5 to standard 7), senior secondary (standard 8 to standard 10), and tertiary. As in earlier analyses relating to adults in families interviewed, the five established family member groups were used to categorise adults according to education level.

An examination of data contained in table 4.3 showed that the highest number of adults (476) fell in the junior secondary level. This represented 43%. A relatively large number of 409 (37%) fell in the

senior secondary level which together with the junior secondary level number of 476, resulted in a combined figure of 885 (80%) adults in the SECONDARY level (standard 5 to 10).

The frequencies for tertiary level (8%) and primary school level (12%) were considerably lower than for the secondary school levels.

A further examination of the data in the tertiary level of education revealed the following interesting results:

- (a) Of the 88 interviewees who had tertiary level of education, 41 were fathers and 21 were sons. These figures represented a total of 70% of the 88 interviewees.
- (b) Mothers (14) and daughters (12) represented 30% of the 88 interviewees in this level of education.
- (c) Compared to 62 males who had attended tertiary institutions, only 26 females had done so. This difference is significant.  $X^2 = 14,72$  ( $p < 0,01$ ). Amongst Indians, tertiary education has until very recently been male-dominated.
- (d) In the senior secondary category, data showed that fathers had the highest frequency - 162 (44%) - while mothers had a considerably lower frequency - 95 (25%). A  $X^2$  of 17,40 ( $p < 0,01$ ) shows that the difference is significant. The low frequency for mothers may be attributed partly to the fact that a fairly large number of Indian girls left school at the junior secondary level. This,

a diminishing practice among the Indian community, has its roots in the religious/cultural background which expected young women not to be seen in public. Young women were expected to stay at home and acquire training in house duties. In recent times, however, this practice is being observed less and less.

- (e) The higher number of boys (85) than girls (67) is regarded as normal because the schooling restraints for Indian boys were considerably fewer than for girls. However, this difference is not significant as  $X^2 = 2,14$  ( $p > 0,05$ ).
- (f) At the junior secondary level, mothers had the highest frequency of 227 (61%). The frequency of 165 (44%) for fathers was much lower and the difference was significant.  $X^2 = 9,8$  ( $p < 0,01$ ). The reason for this is that more men than women continue with education into the senior secondary and tertiary levels.

It was noted that the highest level reached by grandparents was the junior secondary; the frequency for grandmothers was 21 (30%) and for grandfathers, 22 (39%). The majority of grandparents had primary school level of education with grandmothers comprising 49 (70%) and grandfathers 34 (61%). This difference, however, is not significant.  $X^2 = 2,69$  ( $p > 0,05$ ).

Educational levels of grandparents were low and the explanation for this is that many grandparents were not provided the opportunity for schooling beyond standard four.

TABLE 4.3

## DISTRIBUTION OF ADULT EDUCATION LEVEL

Member of Family	Tertiary Level		Senior Secondary Level		Junior Secondary Level		Primary School Level		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
(a) Fathers	41 (47)	11	162 (40)	44	165 (35)	44	3 ( 3)	1	371	100
(b) Mothers	14 (16)	4	95 (23)	25	227 (48)	61	39 (31)	10	371	100
(c) Sons	21 (24)	18	85 (21)	74	9 ( 2)	8	-	-	115	100
(d) Daughters	12 (14)	11	67 (16)	60	32 ( 7)	29	-	-	111	100
(e) Grandfathers	-	-	-	-	22 ( 5)	39	34 (27)	61	56	100
(f) Grandmothers	-	-	-	-	21 ( 4 )	30	49 (39)	70	70	100
Total	88	8	409	37	476	43	125	12	1098	100

#### 4.3.6 Analysis of Occupations of Adults in Families Interviewed

(Table 4.4)

Table 4.4 shows data relating to occupations of adults in families interviewed. Eleven occupational categories were considered, plus an "other" category for unusual and odd-job workers.

An examination of data on occupation categories shows that the highest number (282) representing 25,68%, fell in the category "housewife". This high percentage is not surprising because the Indian woman is by tradition still regarded as a keeper of the house. A  $\chi^2$  value of 41,72 ( $p < 0,01$ ) shows that the frequency for "housewife" was significantly greater than that of the next highest category, namely clerical worker.

The remaining occupation categories, in order of magnitude, were "clerical workers" 148 (13,48%), "sales-persons" 138 (12,57%) and "professional persons" 118 (10,75%). Close behind professional persons were tradesmen 102 (9,29%) and "unemployed persons" 88 (8,01%). The five categories accounted for a total of 54,10% of the 1098 adults in the families interviewed.

A cross-analysis of data revealed that the majority of unemployed persons were young adults who had not acquired a matriculation exemption to qualify to enter college or university. The adults belonged to the age group 17-25 years. A large number of older adults (56 years and over) were also unemployed and their reasons ranged from old age to staff retrenchment. The "unemployed" category data also showed that a larger number of females (53) than males (35) were unemployed. However, the



difference is not significant.  $\chi^2 = 3,68$  ( $p > 0,05$ ). This large number of females may be explained by the fact that many Indian females do not continue with formal education and, therefore, find themselves in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs where unemployment is more prevalent than in other categories of occupation.

An examination of data pertaining to males and females in the various occupation categories showed that a larger number of females than males were "factory workers": females 22 (88%) and males 3 (12%). A partial explanation for this is that the Sydenham-Clare Estate area is situated close to the city centre (Durban) where there is a high concentration of clothing factories employing large numbers of females.

The distribution of "clerical workers" showed a greater percentage of males (60,81%) than females (39,19%). This difference between males (90) and females (58) is significant  $\chi^2 = 6,92$  ( $p < 0,01$ ). A partial explanation for this is the higher educational attainment of men over women.

The proportions among "sales-persons", "professional persons" and "retired/old-age" people were generally the same for males and females: 71,74% and 28,26%; 72,03% and 27,97%; and 71,05% and 28,95% respectively. These differences between males and females were all significant. ( $p < 0,01$ ) with  $\chi^2$  having respective values of 26,08, 22,92 and 6,74.

No women (mothers, daughters or grandmothers) were "drivers", "tradesmen" or owned their "own businesses".

TABLE 4.4  
DISTRIBUTION OF OCCUPATION

Occupation	Males		Females		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
(a) Housewife	-		282 (52%)	100	282 (26%)	25,68
(b) Factoryworker	3 (0,5%)	12,00	22 (4%)	88,00	25 (2%)	2,27
(c) Driver	33 (6%)	100	-	-	33 (3%)	3,01
(d) Clerical Worker	90 (16%)	60,81	58 (11%)	39,19	148 (14%)	13,48
(e) Sales-Person	99 (18%)	71,74	39 (7%)	28,26	138 (13%)	12,57
(f) Tradesman	102 (19%)	100	-	-	102 (7%)	9,29
(g) Own Business	44 (8%)	100	-	-	44 (4%)	4,01
(h) Professional	85 (15%)	72,03	33 (6%)	27,97	118 (11%)	10,75
(i) Retired/Old Age	27 (5%)	71,05	11 (2%)	28,95	38 (4%)	3,46
(j) Disabled	4 (0,7%)	66,67	2 (0,4%)	33,33	6 (0,6%)	0,55
(k) Unemployed	35 (6%)	39,77	53 (10%)	60,23	88 (8%)	8,01
(l) Other	31 (6%)	40,79	45 (8%)	59,21	76 (7%)	6,92
Total	553 (100%)		545 (100%)		1098 (100%)	100%

4.3.7 Analysis of Adults' Involvement in Current Studies (Tables 4.5; 4.6; 4.7)

Item 3(e) was designed to establish how many adults in the survey were involved in current studies. The results showed that only 69 (6,4%) of the 1098 adults in the survey were involved in current studies which meant that 1029 (93,6%) were not involved in current studies. The difference is highly significant  $\chi^2 = 839,34$  ( $p < 0,01$ ).

The 1029 persons not involved in current studies were such a big majority that the researcher felt anxious to ascertain reasons for this situation among adults in the study area. Moreover, the situation suggested that the problem of adult education needs, which was the main concern of the present study, was a real one.

Of those adults who had responded positively to item 3(e) above, namely the 69 adults who were involved in current studies, a further question required them to describe the nature of the studies they pursued. It was, therefore, left to the researcher to categorise the respondent's answer into one of the three categories of NFE, namely basic, proficiency and community education. This data is shown in table 4.5.

TABLE 4.5

NATURE OF CURRENT STUDIES

Basic Education	Proficiency Education	Community Education	Total
6 (9%)	55 (80%)	8 (11%)	69 (100%)

The data showed that a very large majority (55) of the adults were pursuing studies related to proficiency education, and the rest (14) were involved in studies related to basic or community education. A  $\chi^2$  of 24,03 ( $p < 0,01$ ) shows that the majority is significant.

The large number of adults involved in proficiency education suggested that most adults pursued studies which were job-related.

Another question directed at these 69 adults required them to name the institution or agency at which they were pursuing their studies. It was thereafter left to the researcher to enter the respondents' answers into the appropriate category of institutions which were: private; club; business; agency; technikon; college and university. It must be pointed out the category "club" included stated activities such as keep-fit classes, cultural activities, civic and local affairs activities, and sporting clubs. This data is shown in table 4.6.

TABLE 4.6

TYPE OF STUDY INSTITUTION

Insti- tution	Private	Club	Business	Agency	Technikon	College	Univer- sity	Total
No.	7	6	6	20	2	0	28	69
%	10	9	9	29	3	0	40	100

A study of data contained in table 4.6 showed that the majority of the 69 adults were involved in studies at university and a relatively large

percentage (29%) at agency. Comparatively small percentages of adults were involved in studies through "private institutes" (10%), "clubs" (9%), "business institutes" (9%) and "technikon" (3%). No adults were studying through a college. Once again the relatively large majority of adults involved in studies through universities and agencies suggested that proficiency and basic education were pursued more widely than community education.

Another item directed at the 69 adults who had responded positively to item 3(e) was to establish whether the respondent's study was job-related or not. It was the researcher's intention to examine responses to this question to establish the extent to which adults pursued studies to improve their job efficiency. This data is shown in table 4.7.

TABLE 4.7

JOB-RELATEDNESS OF STUDIES

job-related	not job-related	Total
46	23	69
67%	33%	100%

Data examined showed that 46 (67%) adults were involved in studies which were job-related and 23 (33%), in studies that were not. A significantly greater number were pursuing job-related studies.  $\chi^2 = 7,57$  ( $p < 0,05$ ).

It must be pointed out that among those people who indicated their studies were not job-related (23), some were involved in studies which did have

have an indirect influence on their jobs. For example, those people whose study course was attendance at a keep-fit class or dance club would have derived a degree of physical fitness which may have positively influenced their job efficiency.

#### 4.3.8 Selection of the Sample of Interviewees

Item 3(g) was a recording column used by the researcher who entered a tick (✓) against the member of the family selected to be interviewed. It must be remembered that the researcher had to select an appropriate adult from each family so as to maintain the required proportional relationship between the various age and sex groups. Consequently the recording column served an important function in the process of selecting the sample of interviewees for the present survey.

#### 4.4 ANALYSIS OF DATA PERTAINING TO INTERVIEWEES' EMPLOYMENT AND EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND (PART B OF SCHEDULE)

##### 4.4.1 Introduction

One of the main objectives in PART A of the interview schedule was selection of the sample of 400 interviewees. In part B of the schedule the 400 interviewees were asked to respond to questions pertaining to their employment and educational background because these two factors were considered highly significant in influencing the education/study course needs of adults. Analyses of employment data and education data are presented separately in this section.

With regard to employment data, three separate analyses are presented with a supporting table for each.

##### 4.4.2 Analysis of Interviewees' Daily Travelling Distance to Work (Table 4.8)

An adult worker's education/study course needs may be influenced by his/her daily travelling distance to and from his/her place of work. Apart from the distance travelled, consideration of time taken to travel is also important. In table 4.8 below, data relating to interviewees' travelling distance from their homes to their place of work are presented. For statistical reasons, distance has been divided into six categories.

TABLE 4.8

DISTANCE FROM INTERVIEWEES' HOME TO PLACE OF WORK

Distance	0-3 km	4-6 km	7-9 km	10-12 km	13-15 km	16+ km	Total
No.	14	38	58	87	18	49	264
%	5,3	14,4	22	33	6,8	18,5	100

An examination of data contained in table 4.8 showed that the total number of interviewees who travelled to work daily was 264 which represented 66% of the study sample of 400 interviewees. Thus 136 interviewees (34%) did not travel to work and this number included housewives and the unemployed.

The results also showed that most interviewees travelled a daily distance of between 7 and 12 km from home to their place of work. They numbered 145 and represented 55% of the total. A small number of 14 (5,3%) travelled a distance of 0-3 km and a similarly small number of 18 (6,8%) interviewees travelled a distance of 13-15 km to their place of work. Travelling was a problem for 49 (18,5%) interviewees whose single journey to work was 16 km or more.

#### 4.4.3 Analysis of Interviewees' Travelling Frequency to Work (Table 4.9)

In addition to a worker's travelling distance to work, travelling frequency to work could also create problems which would influence a worker's education/study course need. Table 4.9 shows the data relating



to the interviewees' travelling frequency to work. Frequency is reflected in three categories, namely daily, weekly and other.

TABLE 4.9

INTERVIEWEES' TRAVELLING FREQUENCY TO WORK

Frequency	Daily	Weekly	Other	Total
No.	264	Nil	Nil	264
%	100	0	0	100

Data examined in table 4.9 showed that all 264 (100%) interviewees travelled to work daily. The daily travelling frequency is explained by the fact that the Sydenham-Clare Estate area is close to the City centre and within comfortable travelling distance of the major industrial and commercial concerns in the Greater Durban area. It must, however, be noted that the researcher expected to find a small number of interviewees who would be away from home for at least a part of the working week, for example, sales representatives and contract workers.

4.4.4 Analysis of Interviewees' Mode of Transport to Work (Table 4.10)

In addition to a worker's travelling distance and travelling frequency to work, mode of transport to work could also influence a worker's education/study course need. In this regard the convenience of mode of transport was given consideration. It must be pointed out that possible financial considerations involved in workers' mode of transport, such as subsidised or shared transport costs, were not taken into account in

this analysis. Emphasis was placed on time, comfort and reliability of mode of transport, which together determined convenience.

TABLE 4.10

INTERVIEWEES' MODE OF TRANSPORT TO WORK

Mode	Own car	bus	train	co-transport	other	Total
No.	102	73	0	40	49	264
%	38,6%	27,7%	0	15,2%	18,6%	100%

An examination of data in table 4.10 showed that 102 (38,6%) workers used their own car to travel to work and 73 (27,7%) used bus transport. This difference is significant.  $X^2 = 4,79$  ( $p < 0,05$ ). While the frequency for "own car" (102) suggested that most workers experienced least inconvenience with regard to mode of transport, the frequency for "bus" (73) suggested that a fairly large proportion of workers experienced some degree of inconvenience. Bus mode of transport in the study area was considered as being only moderately inconvenient because of two factors: the proximity of the study area to the City centre where the majority of commercial and industrial concerns are located; and the fact that the present study area is well-served by both municipal and private passenger transport.

Those workers who used "company transport" accounted for 15,2% of the 264 interviewees who were employed. This frequency of 15,2% consisted largely of tradesmen (plumbers, bricklayers, carpenters, catering employees, etc.) who had to be transported daily to and from their

place of work. Company mode of transport was regarded as moderately inconvenient and time-consuming because a very large majority of tradesmen had to walk home from their "disembarking" points.

Those workers who used "other" means of transport consisted mainly of persons running their own businesses from home and, therefore, had no need for transport. There was, however, a very small number of workers in this category who lived within walking or hitch-hiking distance of their place of work. It must, nevertheless, be noted that the frequency of 18,6% of this mode of transport was considered rather large.

With regard to the analyses of data on education background, three separate analyses are presented with a supporting table for each.

#### 4.4.5 Analysis of Study Courses Pursued by Interviewees After Leaving School, Technikon, College or University (Table 4.11)

In an education needs study such as the present, it is important to establish the precise educational interests of the population concerned before ascertaining their specific needs. With this consideration in mind, items 4.1 and 4.2 of the interview schedule were designed to reveal the interviewees' special study interests as well as the institutions at which these interests were pursued.

It must, however, be noted that the term "study course", for this stage of the interview, did not include activities which are defined as community education (for definition of community education see Chapter

1). All basic and proficiency education activities were included. The researcher decided to do this because he felt that the concept of NFE was not yet understood by a large number of interviewees. The researcher also felt that interviewees should not be asked to give a response to a question which included such diverse community education activities as cultural and hobby activities at this stage of the survey; this question was presented in PART C of the interview. In this analysis, study courses were decided in terms of the institute at which such studies were pursued by the respondent. Five groups of institutes were used including an "other" group. Table 4.11, therefore, presents the distribution of interviewees who pursued studies according to institution attended by them.

TABLE 4.11  
DISTRIBUTION OF INTERVIEWEES WHO PURSUED STUDIES,  
ACCORDING TO INSTITUTION ATTENDED

Institute Where Study was Pursued	Number of Interviewees Who Studied	As a Percentage of Total No. of Interviewees (400)
(a) University	21	5,25
(b) College	5	1,25
(c) Technikon	3	0,75
(d) Agency	6	1,5
(e) Other	18	4,5
Total	53	13,25

An examination of data in table 4.11 showed that 53 (13,25%) interviewees pursued studies after leaving school, college, technikon or university and 347 (86,75%) did not. Those who did pursue studies represented a significantly smaller number in comparison to those who did not.  $\chi^2 = 216,10$  ( $p < 0,01$ ).

Eighteen interviewees pursued studies at "other" institutes. This number was high when compared with figures for interviewees who pursued studies at the more popular institutes listed in the table. For example, only 5 interviewees pursued studies at college and only 3 interviewees at technikon. It must, however, be noted that a very large number of the 18 interviewees who pursued studies at "other" institutes were participating in in-service training courses. Some were involved in the pursuit of social club activities.

The 21 interviewees who pursued studies at university were largely students in post graduate studies, many of whom had enrolled for the B.Ed. degree.

The 6 interviewees who pursued studies at an agency were mainly students of computer-related studies.

With regard to the 5 interviewees who pursued studies at college, all were in-service teachers who had enrolled to complete either the M+2 or M+3 teachers' diploma course.

4.4.6 Analysis of the Nature of Study Courses Pursued by 53 Interviewees  
 (Table 4.12)

In addition to ascertaining how many adults pursued studies after leaving school, college, technikon or university; and the institute at which such studies were pursued, it was considered important to establish the nature of studies pursued by them. Nine categories of studies were used, including a category for "other". Table 4.12 shows the distribution of the 53 interviewees according to nature of studies pursued.

TABLE 4.12

NATURE OF STUDIES PURSUED BY 53 INTERVIEWEES

Nature of Study	No. of Interviewees	As % of 53
(a) B.Ed.	9	17
(b) B.Com	5	9,4
(c) B.A.	2	3,8
(d) Computer ed.	5	9,4
(e) Salesmanship	2	3,8
(f) Trade	7	13,2
(g) Nursing	3	5,6
(h) Police Force	3	5,7
(i) Other	17	32,1
Total	53	100

An examination of data contained in table 4.12 revealed a fairly wide distribution of interviewees over the nine categories of study courses listed. The category "other" showed the highest frequency of 17 interviewees which represented 32,1%. This was considered high for an "other" category. The explanation for this is that a fairly large number of interviewees in this group could have been included in the categories "trade" and "salesmanship" as these people were involved in obscure inservice/upgrading programmes.

It must be recalled that the researcher had decided not to refer to the concept NFE and its three categories of education at this stage of the interview. It was, therefore, considered not necessary to categorise the various study courses into basic, proficiency and community education, particularly since community education activities were excluded from the term "study course".

4.4.7 Analysis of Interviewees' Reasons for not Having Pursued Studies After Leaving School, College, Technikon or University  
(Table 4.13)

In the present investigation of education/study course needs, it was perhaps more important to establish why adults did not continue with education after leaving school, college, technikon or university than to establish the nature of studies they had pursued. A clear understanding of the various obstacles to their acquisition of education, if in fact there were any, would provide useful information for the present study purposes. Table 4.13 shows the interviewees' reasons for not having pursued studies after leaving school, college, technikon or university.

TABLE 4.13

INTERVIEWEES' REASONS FOR NOT HAVING PURSUED STUDIES AFTER LEAVING SCHOOL,  
COLLEGE, TECHNIKON OR UNIVERSITY

Reason	No Time	No Interest	No Money	No Provision	Any Other	Total
No.	146	101	36	16	48	347
%	42,1	29,1	10,4	4,6	13,8	100

Because 53 interviewees were involved in current studies, they were excluded and a total of 347 interviewees were asked to respond to this question.

It must be pointed out that the researcher expected a significantly large percentage of interviewees to advance "no provision" as their reason for not having pursued studies. The reasons for the researcher's expectation are contained in chapter one - need for the present study. However, interviewees' responses to this question were immensely interesting and informative to the researcher.

A study of table 4.13 showed that a large percentage (42%) of interviewees answered "no time". This response was not unexpected from persons working the normal exhausting office or factory hours. The researcher, however, feels that the question of TIME could also have significance in terms of the nature and scope of the study courses available to them. For example, if a part-time diploma course in teaching were provided over a period of five years with tuition twice a week (one hour a night), the



question of time would apparently not become such an inhibiting factor to adults to pursue such a course. The researcher, therefore, regarded this response - "no time" - to be of special significance when these interviewees were questioned later on their choice of frequency to attend studies of their own choice; this question is contained in PART C of the schedule.

Twenty-nine percent of the interviewees advanced the reason "no interest". This percentage is surprisingly large for the Indian community which is well-known for its willingness to work hard for success. The researcher, however, feels that, as in the case of interviewees who advanced the reason "no time", the question of interest can also have significance in terms of the nature and scope of study opportunities available to them. The researcher, therefore, regarded this response - "no interest" - to be of special significance when these interviewees were questioned later on their choice of a study course to be provided for them; this question is contained in PART C of the schedule.

It must also be noted that responses to the above two categories of reasons - "no time" and "no interest" - together accounted for 247 (71%) interviewees who did not pursue studies after leaving school, college, technikon or university.

The 36 interviewees who advanced the reason "no money" represented 10,4% of the interviewees. Finance is a real problem to many members of the Indian community.

The 16 interviewees who advanced the reason "no provision" represented 4,6% of the 347 interviewees. This low percentage was surprising.

In the category "any other" there were 48 (13,8%) responses and this number appeared to be large when compared to the number who advanced "no provision". This relatively large number forming the "any other" category is explained by the fact that a large majority of this number were housewives who found it difficult to pursue studies. It was also noted that some of those Indian female interviewees who were still single, were dissuaded by their parents from pursuing studies. That women should not work is a fading Indian tradition.

#### 4.5 ANALYSIS OF DATA PERTAINING TO INTERVIEWEES' NON-FORMAL EDUCATION NEEDS (PART C OF SCHEDULE)

##### 4.5.1 Introduction

Having determined the employment and educational backgrounds of the 400 interviewees, it was then left to establish their choice of NFE needs. This was the main concern of the present study. Interviewees' NFE needs were categorised into basic, proficiency and community education (for definitions, see chapter one). Interviewees were also asked to give the main reason for their choice of NFE need. Four separate analyses are presented with a supporting table for each.

##### 4.5.2 Selection of Interviewees to Form the Final Sample for Adult NFE Needs (Table 4.14)

Of the selected 400 interviewees forming the study sample, a small number were involved in "current" education studies. The researcher felt that these people would have, to a large extent, satisfied their need for a NFE course of their choice. It was, therefore, decided to exclude these people from the final sample for adult NFE needs. The purpose of this analysis was, therefore, to separate interviewees not involved in current studies from those who were. Table 4.14 shows this separation. Data for this table was extracted from PART A of the interview schedule, namely general information of family members.

TABLE 4.14

INTERVIEWEES' INVOLVEMENT IN CURRENT STUDIES

Interviewees Involved in Current Studies		Interviewees Not Involved in Current Studies		Total
No.	%	No.	%	
21	5,25	379	94,75	400

Data showed that 21 (5,25%) adults were involved in current education studies and 379 (94,75%) were not. This meant that the final sample for NFE needs study was 379 interviewees.

#### 4.5.3 Analysis of Interviewees Who Would/Would Not Attend NFE Courses of Their Choice (Table 4.15)

With provision of adult NFE courses as a major concern of the present study, it was regarded as important to ascertain how many interviewees would attend such courses of their choice. It was also decided to limit provision locality to just two areas, namely in the district of the interviewee and in central Durban. The district of the interviewee was decided upon because of obvious factors of time and travelling convenience. Central Durban was considered a suitable locality for the large number of interviewees whose place of work was the city centre.

TABLE 4.15

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERVIEWEES WHO WOULD/WOULD NOT ATTEND NFE COURSES OF  
THEIR CHOICE

Interviewees Who Would Attend				Interviewees Who Would Not Attend	
in their district only	% of total (379)	in their dist. or C. Durban	% of total (379)	No.	% of total (379)
352	92,88	87	22,96	27	7,12

Table 4.15 showed that 27 (7,12%) of the 379 interviewees did not wish to attend any NFE course what-so-ever. This resulted in 352 of the 379 interviewees completing the remainder of the interview. It must be pointed out that a very large percentage of the 27 interviewees not wishing to attend any NFE course what-so-ever were made up of disabled or aged grandparents. Their responses were, therefore, not unexpected.

Table 4.15 also showed:

- (a) All 352 interviewees indicated that they would attend NFE courses of their choice if offered in their district.
- (b) Only 87 of the 352 were prepared to attend NFE courses offered to them in central Durban, that is, away from their district. Apparently they were prepared to travel to or delay their return from the city centre after work to attend classes.

- (c) Of the 352 interviewees, a significantly large majority (265), representing 75%, stated that they would not be able to attend NFE courses offered outside their district.  $\chi^2 = 159,60$  ( $p < 0,01$ ). The reason for this was that a large majority of interviewees travelled daily to work and would experience problems with regard to time, travelling and added travelling expense to attend NFE courses. This strongly emphasized the need to provide NFE courses in the district of the community concerned.
- (d) The 352 interviewees for the important next stage of the survey - choice of NFE needs - were those who would attend NFE courses of their choice if offered to them.

#### 4.5.4 Analysis of Interviewees' Choice of NFE Needs (Table 4.16)

This part of the interview schedule formed perhaps the most important part of the survey since interviewees were required to express their precise NFE needs. It is necessary to emphasize that the researcher had given the interviewees a clear understanding of various activities in the three categories of NFE during the interview. This was necessary to show the interviewee the wide field of educational opportunities in NFE. It was the responsibility of the researcher to place the interviewee's choice of NFE need in the appropriate education category.

Table 4.16 is provided to show the interviewees' choice of NFE needs according to education categories.

An examination of the data contained in table 4.16 showed that a significantly large number (228) of interviewees, representing 65% of the respondents, chose proficiency education activities as their NFE need.  $X^2 = 30,72$  ( $p < 0,01$ ). By comparison, a smaller number (67) representing 19%, chose community education. A similarly smaller number (57) representing 16%, chose basic education activities. This data suggested that a very large majority of people required NFE activities which were job-related, and that the demands for community and basic education were smaller but not insignificant.

One explanation for the large number choosing proficiency education activities is possibly linked to the relatively high and ever-increasing unemployment problem in the RSA. The initial feeling of the researcher was that most adult workers would be more concerned about learning new skills with the intention of holding on to their present jobs and warding off the threat of retrenchment. The results appear to confirm this. This fear of unemployment can also be discerned in the reasons for the choice of NFE advanced by the interviewees: of the 228 interviewees who chose proficiency education, 118 (52%) advanced the reason "to up-date education skills" - a big majority.

TABLE 4.16

INTERVIEWEES' CHOICE OF NFE NEEDS ACCORDING TO CATEGORY OF EDUCATION

Basic Education		Proficiency Education		Community Education		Total	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
57	16	228	65	67	19	352	100

Another possible explanation for the large number of choices in proficiency education is the fact that a large majority of interviewees were made up of workers between the ages of 26 and 55 years, and workers would naturally want to update their skills, not only for job security, but also for promotion purposes.

It must also be pointed out that almost all working interviewees who desired basic education did so for purposes of continuing their secondary school education. Many of them desired tuition in subjects such as English, accountancy and computer education. Also most of them came from the age category 17-25 years, suggesting that they were still relatively young enough to attempt to complete the senior certificate requirements.

With regard to the interviewees who desired community education, there were almost equal numbers of people who desired cultural activities and sporting/recreational activities respectively. Most of those who desired cultural activities were from the older age groups, and most of those who desired sporting/recreational activities from the younger. These results are compatible with the social life styles of the Indian community.

#### 4.5.5 Analysis of Interviewees' Reasons for Choice of NFE Need

(Table 4.17)

In addition to the interviewees' choice of NFE needs, it was important to know the reasons for their choice. These reasons serve to highlight need and give direction for provision of NFE. This information was,



therefore, considered an important component in the analysis of needs among interviewees in the study area. In the supporting table 4.17, seven categories of reasons are presented, including an "any other". The various reasons are also analysed in terms of the three categories of NFE, namely basic, proficiency and community education.

Before analysing the data on interviewees' reasons for choice of NFE need, it must be pointed out that some interviewees submitted reasons with hesitation and appeared to have second thoughts about the reasons "to raise his/her status" and "to supplement family income". It is possible that interviewees were embarrassed to submit either of these two reasons and offered instead the reason "to continue their education". However, this group of interviewees formed a small percentage of the sample, but mention of this observation is necessary because the researcher was often compelled to examine further an interviewee's reason to establish the correct education category of his/her choice.

On examination of the data contained in table 4.17 the following results emerged:

The frequency for the reason "to update education/skills" was the largest (119) and represented 34% of the 352 interviewees. A partial explanation for this high frequency was discussed earlier, in the analysis of proficiency education. Moreover, of the 119 interviewees in this frequency, 118 belonged to the education category "proficiency education".

TABLE 4.17

INTERVIEWEES' REASONS FOR CHOICE OF NFE

Category of NFE	Reason for Choice														Total
	a.		b.		c.		d.		e.		f.		g.		
	to supplement family income		to update education skills		to continue education		for recreation cultural pursuit		to occupy spare time		to raise status		any other		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Basic Education	-		1	2	56	98	-		-		-		-		57
	-		1%		75%		-		-		-		-		
Proficiency Education	35	15	118	52	11	5	2	1	12	5	-		50	22	228
	97%		99%		15%		5%		57%		-		88%		
Community Education	1	2	-		8	12	41	61	9	13	1	2	7	10	67
	3%		-		10%		95%		43%		100%		12%		
Total	36		119		75		43		21		1		57		352
%	10%		34%		22%		12%		6%		0%		16%		100

The data also showed that a fairly large frequency (75) appeared in the column "to continue education" and this represented 21% of the interview sample. Of the interviewees forming this frequency, 56 (75%) belonged to the education category "basic education". The figures for "proficiency education" and "community education" were 11 (15%) and 8 (10%) respectively. As pointed out earlier, the frequency of 75 for the reason "to continue education" could be slightly inflated. This would consequently result in a slight drop in frequencies for the reasons "to supplement family income" (36) and "to raise status" (1), which did, in fact, result in low frequency percentages of 10% and 0% respectively.

The frequency for the reason "for recreation/culture" was 43 and this represented 12% of the interviewees. Of the 43 interviewees 41 chose community education. Because of the nature and scope of recreational and cultural activities, this extremely high percentage (95%) for community education was understandable.

A small number of interviewees (21), representing 6%, indicated that their reason was "to occupy spare time". Of this number 12 belonged to proficiency education and 9 to community education. It was a little surprising to note that the 12, who belonged to the education category "proficiency education", gave the reason "to occupy spare time".

4.5.6 Analysis of Interviewees' Attendance Preferences at NFE Courses, According to Time of Week and Day (Table 4.18)

With provision of NFE needs being one of the major aims of the present study, the research required a clear indication of interviewees' attendance preferences to such NFE courses. Three categories of attendance were provided, namely "weekdays", "weekends" and "any other". The category weekdays was subdivided into morning, afternoon and evening, and the category weekends into "including Sundays" and "excluding Sundays".

A examination of data contained in table 4.18 showed that the largest number of interviewees (316) preferred to attend on weekdays; this represented a significantly high percentage (89%) of the 352 respondents. Some possible reasons for this high percentage are: the provision of NFE courses would be in the interviewee's district and, therefore, within quick reach; a large majority of interviewees had sufficient time after working hours to attend one to two-hour sessions of NFE courses; the researcher indicated to the interviewees that duration of lessons and courses would, to a large extent, be designed to suit the circumstances of interviewees; the Indian community, like others, generally reserve weekends for business, social and cultural affairs.

A comparatively small number (27) of the interviewees, representing 8%, preferred to attend at "weekends". In the "any other" category there was a small number of 10 interviewees, representing 3%. It must, however, be mentioned that all 10 respondents were teachers who wanted refresher courses during school holidays.

Further examination of data in table 4.18 showed the following interesting results:

- (a) Of the 315 interviewees who preferred to attend during weekdays, 200 (64%) wished to attend in the evening, 97 (30%) in the morning and 18 (6%) in the afternoon. A partial explanation for the high percentages wishing to attend in the evening was that a very large number were working adults.
- (b) Of the 27 interviewees who preferred to attend during weekends, 28 wished to attend on Saturdays and 9 wished to attend on Saturdays and Sundays.
- (c) The "any other" category had a small number of interviewees, namely 10.

TABLE 4.18

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERVIEWEES' ATTENDANCE PREFERENCES TO NFE  
COURSES

Weekdays			Weekends		Any Other	Total
evening	afternoon	morning	including Sundays	excluding Sundays		
200	18	97	9	18	10	352
64%	6%	30%	33%	67%	100%	
	315		27		10	
	89%		8%		3%	100%

4.5.7 Analysis of Interviewees' Attendance Preferences at NFE Courses  
According to Number of Days per Week (Table 4.19)

In addition to the data on interviewees' attendance preferences according to time of day, it was also important to ascertain how many days per week interviewees liked to attend such study courses. This information was also required to formulate recommendations for the provision of NFE. Bearing in mind the essential need to satisfy adult learner's demands when compiling such study courses, this information served to satisfy a fundamental requirement of provision planning. This analysis is shown in Table 4.19.

TABLE 4.19

INTERVIEWEES' ATTENDANCE PREFERENCES AT NFE COURSES ACCORDING TO NUMBER  
OF DAYS PER WEEK

	Weekly Attendance Preference						Total
	1 day	2 days	3 days	4 days	5 days	6 or more days	
No.	21	189	37	1	4	0	352
%	34	54	11	0	1	0	100

An examination of the data contained in Table 4.19 showed the following results:

More than half the interviewees (189) wished to attend on two days a week and a relatively large number, 121 (34%) wished to attend on one day a week. Taken together, this accounted for 310 interviewees who

represented 88% of the 352 interviewees; this was considered a large majority over the other preferences. It must be pointed out that the researcher expected the majority of interviewees to opt for one day a week. However, it should also be mentioned that many interviewees reacted enthusiastically at the notion of having provision of their own choice of education course in their district. This positive reaction may have prompted the choice of two days instead of one. Moreover, a very large number of interviewees chose proficiency education activities and this suggested that the need to earn more and thus improve socio-economically was a strong motivational factor in choosing two days a week.

A smaller number of interviewees (37) wished to attend on three days a week and a very small number (5) chose to attend on more than 3 days. These interviewees were largely young, unemployed adults who were still desirous of completing the matriculation examination; time was not a problem for them.

(iii) There were no respondents in the category "6 or more days".

CHAPTER 5SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section the main findings of the present study are summarised and their implications highlighted. All findings and discussions are based on specific areas which comprised the investigation. The discussions which follow will also clear up some misconceptions about the attitude of Indian adults to educational studies. Recommendations follow later in this chapter.

All data referred to in this summary are contained in Chapter 4. The discussion in summary form will be presented in accordance with the three divisions of the interview schedule. The discussions are therefore as follows:

- (a) Findings related to adult members of families interviewed (1098 adults).
- (b) Findings related to the selected sample of interviewees (400 interviewees).
- (c) Findings related to the reduced sample and their adult NFE needs (352 interviewees).



5.1 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS RELATED TO ADULT MEMBERS OF FAMILIES  
INTERVIEWED (1098) ADULTS)

5.1.1 Composition of Adults

The findings in respect of the adult composition of families visited showed that in 400 households there were 1098 adults, made up of 542 males and 556 females (see table 4.1). These figures also reflect almost equal representation of the sexes which basically confirms good sampling because the ratio of males and females in the Indian community is about 1:1. In addition to confirming representativeness of the population, this desired ratio increases the validity of generalisations to be made.

5.1.2 Age

With regard to age distribution (see table 4.2), the greatest number of adults fell in the age group 36 to 55 years, representing 57% of the 1098 adults. This large majority of "mature" adults suggested that the families visited contained potential interviewees with a reasonably high level of maturity and therefore, a clear understanding of their educational needs. Thus their choice of NFE needs (which was required in PART C of the schedule) was expected to be reasoned ones. This also serves to increase validity of findings.

An interesting feature reflected in the data on age was the consistently younger ages of females. This finding, considered together with the findings that 52% of females were housewives and 10% were unemployed (see table 4.4), implied that the majority of females were relatively

young and at home during the day. These findings suggested a high potential for female attendance at NFE courses provided in their district during the day. When one considered the finding that some females were forced to discontinue senior secondary school education through religious/cultural dictates (see findings on educational level in chapter 4), the potential for attendance was further increased.

### 5.1.3 Educational Levels

With respect to educational levels, 80% of the adults had received secondary school education (see table 4.3). The high percentage in this educational level is accounted for by the inclusion of standard 5 and 6 pupils. This large number suggested that a great majority of Indian adults did not experience a literacy problem which forms one of the major components of basic education. It, therefore, seemed that the need for basic education would not represent a great demand and that one could expect a relatively bigger demand for proficiency and/or community education. This expectation was in fact confirmed by the results of subsequent questions in the interview (see table 4.5) in which adults were required to indicate the nature of their current studies. Of the 69 adults involved in current studies, a very large number (55) representing 80%, were involved in proficiency education and 46 of them pursued studies which were job-related.

A further finding was that a small number of adults had had tertiary education - 88 (8%) - and, as in the case of senior secondary education, males were in a large majority compared to females. This percentage (8%) was regarded as low. The explanation for this is

partly related to the fact - emphasised in the motivation for the present study - that there was a large number of matriculants who did not satisfy entrance requirements for university and/or college studies. Data for senior secondary education (the senior certificate), confirmed this fact - a relatively large percentage (37%) was recorded in this category. It was expected that a fairly large number of adults would require educational courses to enable them to enter tertiary institutions.

#### 5.1.4 Involvement in Current Studies

Findings in respect of adults' involvement in current studies showed that a large majority (93,6%) were not involved in current studies (see table 4.5). The researcher was encouraged by this fact because this situation confirmed that the problem of adult educational needs was a real one in the study area. Of special significance therefore, were the various reasons submitted by interviewees who did not pursue studies after leaving school, college, technikon or university. This question was put to interviewees in PART B of the schedule.

A very small minority (6,4%) were involved in current studies and the study institution attended by most of them was university (see table 4.6). Those who studied through university were largely professional people among whom school teachers, endeavouring to improve their professional qualification, formed a large majority. It was expected that these adults would also desire other forms of education in their adult lives, although job-proficiency appeared to be their main motivation.

An interesting finding was the very low percentage (3%) of adults who pursued current studies at "technikon". This was surprising to the researcher who had expected a fairly high frequency for technikon because of the strong adult-directed and job-oriented studies offered by a technikon.

#### 5.1.5 Occupation

With regard to occupation, the findings showed that the majority of adults were employed in "white collar" jobs. This number represented 40% of adults (see table 4.4). Taking into consideration that 25% were housewives, 8% were unemployed persons, and 7% were "other", this left a relatively small percentage (20%) of adults who were employed in a lower category of employment. The high percentage of "white collar" employees indicated that the potential need for proficiency and/or community education activities outweighed the demand for basic education. However, "housewives" and "unemployed" persons together represented 33%, a fairly large percentage and, therefore, the possibility existed that these persons could appreciably influence the relative need for basic, proficiency and community education.

#### 5.1.6 Conclusion

Findings in this section revealed the following:

- (a) a high potential for female (housewives) attendance at NFE courses provided during the day,
- (b) a great majority of adults did not experience a literacy problem,

- (c) a very large majority were not engaged in current studies,
- (d) the majority of adults were employed in "white collar" jobs.

## 5.2 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS RELATED TO THE SELECTED SAMPLE OF INTERVIEWEES (400 INTERVIEWEES)

### 5.2.1 Employment Background

The findings on interviewees' employment background related basically to travelling distance, and frequency and mode of transport to work.

#### 5.2.1.1 Travelling Distance to Work

Findings related to travelling distance showed that 264 interviewees, representing 66%, travelled to work daily (see tables 4.8 and 4.9). Shift workers represented a negligible percentage. Daily travel to work implied that such working adults returned home every day and would possibly be able to attend NFE courses provided in their district during evenings. This possibility was increased by the further finding that working adults experienced only slight inconvenience from travelling distance, most travelling a daily distance of between 7 and 12 km from home to their place of work.

Another important finding related to travelling distance was the relatively large number of interviewees (34%) who did not travel at all, and of whom housewives formed a big majority. These adults, unlike those who had to travel daily to work, were evidently not inconvenienced by the need to travel. It was expected that they would be at home

during the day. Even allowing for the small number of disabled/aged adults and home-based workers who comprised the 34%, this percentage represented a fairly high potential for adult attendance at NFE courses provided in the study area during the day.

It was, therefore, concluded that travelling distance to work presented little inconvenience to a large majority of adults and that a fairly high potential for attendance at NFE courses provided in the study area in the evenings existed.

#### 5.2.1.2 Travelling Frequency

An examination of data contained in table 4.9 showed that all 264 persons who travelled to work did so on a daily basis. It was a little surprising to the researcher that there were no adults who travelled on a weekly basis. The high percentage in the "daily" frequency implied that a large number of adults would be at home each day after work. This also indicated a high potential for adult attendance at NFE courses provided in the study area in the evenings.

#### 5.2.1.3 Mode of Transport

Findings related to mode of transport to work (see table 4.10) showed that a large majority of adults experienced little inconvenience generally. An examination of data in table 4.10 revealed the following favourable features:

- (a) 102 (38%) workers used their own car (little inconvenience);

- (b) 73 (27,7%) used bus transport (moderate inconvenience);
- (c) 40 (15,6%) used company transport (moderate inconvenience) and
- (d) 49 (18,6%) used other mode of transport and the majority were adults running their own business (slight inconvenience).

Thus the conclusions for travelling distance and travelling frequency (5.2.1.2) also applied for mode of transport to work.

### 5.2.2 Educational Background

The following findings on the educational background of interviewees related to two aspects, namely, the study interests of adults and the reasons why adults did not pursue study courses after leaving school, college, technikon or university.

#### 5.2.2.1 Study Courses Pursued by Interviewees After Leaving School, College, Technikon or University

Findings with respect to the number of interviewees who pursued a study course after leaving school, college, technikon or university (see table 4.11) showed that a surprisingly small number of interviewees (53) representing 13,25%, pursued study courses. This low percentage was surprising because the Indian community is well-known for the high value it places on schooling, and education in general. However, this did not imply that the rest (347), who represented a very large majority (86,75%) were not involved in any form of study what-so-ever. Bearing in mind that community education (which was not considered in this part of the interview - see chapter 4 for reasons) included a

wide range of recreational/cultural activities in which many people are involved, it was conservatively estimated that a fair percentage of interviewees would be involved in this form of study course.

It therefore appeared that a large majority of adults would have to be encouraged and assisted to pursue NFE courses provided specifically for them.

#### 5.2.2.2 Institution at Which Study Courses were Pursued

As regards the institution at which those who pursued studies did so, the findings revealed that 21 of the 53 interviewees who pursued studies did so through university (see table 4.11). This formed the highest frequency of interviewees. A surprising finding, however, was the absence of attendance at a technikon. Because of the relatively wide range of professional, cultural and recreational courses that technikons offer, especially to adults, the researcher expected the attendance figures for technikons to exceed that for university. Moreover, the M.L. Sultan Technikon and the Natal Technikon, two of the largest in the province, are situated in the city centre which is within reasonable travelling distance by bus from the study area. The researcher felt that there was a need for an investigation into the attitude of the Indian community towards technikons and technical education.

#### 5.2.2.3 Reasons for not Studying Further

Findings related to reasons why interviewees did not pursue studies after leaving school, college, technikon or university (see table 4.13)



proved interesting and informative:

- (a) Results showed that 101 of the 347 adults who did not pursue studies advanced the reason "no interest". This percentage was regarded as high because, as mentioned earlier, the Indian community places high value on schooling and education in general. These respondents could be "victims" of a situation in which interest in education was not kindled in early life or destroyed in their schooling days. The possible causes for this include poverty and the non-provision of education that was more meaningful to real life demands. The researcher consequently probed the "no interest" response by asking further questions such as; "Is there a private or personal field of knowledge you would like to know more about?"; "Would you be interested to meet adults of your age in your community to study a subject of common interest?" "Is there a field of study you feel embarrassed to mention?" etc. In these discussions it became evident that a fair number of respondents did in fact have some interest in education, broadly. It also became clear that adult interest in NFE studies could be positively generated by provision of learning opportunities for adults from early adulthood throughout life, and a well-designed counselling programme on adult NFE opportunities.
- (b) Results also showed that the majority (146) representing 42,1%, advanced the reason "no time". Although this percentage was regarded as reasonable for adults who were basically working persons, the researcher felt the need to probe this response by

asking further questions such as: "Would time have been a problem if a study course was provided in your district after your working hours?"; "Would time be a problem if your study course was conducted once a week?" etc. In these discussions it became evident that the majority of these respondents experienced mild problems with regard to time. The researcher, therefore, interpreted the "no time" response to imply that generally these interviewees would have pursued a study course if such a course satisfied firstly their personal needs, and secondly their personal time convenience.

As in the case of the response "no interest", the researcher felt that the response "no time" could also have significance in terms of the nature of study opportunities available to them (satisfying their personal needs) and provision suited to their attendance convenience. It was also noted that responses to these two categories of reasons accounted for a big majority (71%) of interviewees who did not pursue studies after leaving school, college, technikon or university.

- (c) The third important reason was "no money". Data showed that 36 interviewees (10,4%) advanced this reason. The researcher probed this response by asking further questions such as: "Is there a study course you wished to pursue which you could not afford?"; "Would you have pursued a study course of your choice if cost of study was low?" etc. In these discussions it became evident that about half of the respondents experienced a moderate problem with respect to financial costs of studying.

- (d) A very small number of interviewees (16), representing 4,6%, advanced the reason "no provision". The researcher had expected a bigger response. A possible explanation for this was the fact that the concept of NFE was relatively new in the RSA, and demand for it by adults had risen sharply in recent years.

#### 5.2.2.4 Conclusion

Findings in this section revealed the following:

- (a) a large majority of adults experienced only slight inconvenience from travelling,
- (b) a large number of adults were available to be encouraged to pursue NFE courses,
- (c) a large majority of adults did not pursue study courses for reasons which are not difficult to overcome.

### 5.3 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS RELATED TO THE NFE NEEDS OF ADULTS (352 INTERVIEWEES)

The findings in this section focus on interviewees' choice of NFE activities and reasons for their choice. Discussions about these two considerations also relate to interviewees' attendance preferences with relation to NFE courses.

### 5.3.1 Selection of Reduced Sample

The final adult sample to investigate the NFE needs of the study area was 352 interviewees. This number was obtained by excluding those adults involved in current education studies (21) and those who would not attend NFE courses at all (27), (see tables 4.14 and 4.15).

Reasons for exclusion are contained in analyses 4.5.2 and 4.5.3 in Chapter 4. It must be noted that before conducting this part of the schedule, the researcher gave the interviewee as full and clear a definition of NFE as possible.

### 5.3.2 Location of Study Centres

Findings showed that all 352 interviewees indicated they would attend NFE courses of their choice if such courses were provided in their district, and 87 of this number would attend even if provision was in central Durban (see table 4.15). This resulted in a significantly large majority (265) of adults who wanted provision of NFE courses in their district.  $\chi^2 = 159,60$  ( $p < 0,01$ ). Bearing in mind the various reasons why the large majority of interviewees did not pursue study courses (see discussion in previous section), it was obvious why so many adults wanted provision in their district. Moreover, this large number strongly emphasized the need to provide NFE courses in the district of the community concerned. It must be pointed out that the positive response of the 352 interviewees towards attendance at NFE courses was due largely to the following:

- (a) the researcher's clear explanation of the variety of NFE activities and

- (b) the researcher's emphasis that provision would attempt to accommodate adult preferences in respect of venue, time, frequency of attendance and duration of courses.

### 5.3.3 NFE Needs

The results in respect of adult NFE needs formed the most important area of investigation in the present study. Findings showed that a significantly large number (228) of interviewees, representing 65%, chose proficiency education activities as their NFE need.  $\chi^2 = 30,72$  ( $p < 0,01$ ), (see table 4.16). Basic education (57) and community education (67) accounted for 16% and 19% of interviewees respectively. The large majority of interviewees requiring proficiency education suggested that adults were more concerned about job-related courses than acquiring basic and community education. It also implied that the business sectors which employed these adults did not provide sufficient in-service and/or upgrading programmes for employees.

A more fundamental implication relates to the question of the appropriateness of the formal schooling received by these adults. The question could be raised: "Has the formal school system provided these adults with the necessary education to cope successfully with the demands of adult life?"

In the light of the ever-increasing unemployment problem in the RSA, and the consequent threat of retrenchment that faced older adult workers in particular, choice of proficiency education also implied that adult workers were more concerned about holding on to their present jobs than about acquiring promotion or wage increase.

As regards basic education, the comparatively small number (57) who required it, did so for purposes of continuing their secondary school education.

With respect to community education, a similarly small number (67) chose this form of NFE, and there were almost equal numbers of adults who chose cultural activities and sporting/recreational activities respectively. It must, however, be noted that a fairly large number of interviewees were involved in various forms of community education activities but were satisfied with the existing provisions, and therefore did not make this form of NFE their first choice.

#### 5.3.4 Reasons for Choice

Findings related to interviewees' reasons for choice of NFE (see table 4.17) showed that the reason "to update education/skills" had the highest frequency (119) representing 34% of interviewees. This high frequency once again suggested the lack of provision of proficiency education programmes such as in-service training, upgrading courses and refresher courses. Also the fear of unemployment could also be discerned in the submission of this reason.

The second highest frequency (75) appeared against the reason "to continue education" and this represented 21% of the interviewees. It must be pointed out that the reason "to update education/skills" was strongly inclined towards proficiency education" but the reason to continue education was relevant for each of the three categories of NFE. It was therefore not unexpected that an exceptionally large

number of interviewees (56) chose basic education for the reason "to continue education". The interviewees were mainly young adults who wanted to complete the senior certificate and satisfy entrance requirements at college or university.

Findings with respect to the reasons "to supplement family income" and "for recreational/cultural pursuit" showed smaller frequencies of 10% and 12% respectively.

The frequency for the reason "any other" was relatively high (16%). This was mainly accounted for by business men who wanted to improve the quality of their service and employed adults who were prepared to embark on a field of employment new to them.

#### 5.3.5 Attendance Preferences

Findings in respect of interviewees' attendance preferences at NFE courses showed that a very large majority (89%) preferred to attend on weekdays as compared to weekends (8%) and the category "any other" (3%) (see table 4.18). Furthermore, of the large number (315) that preferred attendance on weekdays, a big majority (200) wished to attend in the evenings and a fairly large number (97) in the mornings.

It was generally expected that adults, a large majority of whom travelled to work daily, would prefer to attend NFE courses at the end of their working day, namely in the evenings. It was, however, interesting to find that 97 (30%) adults wished to attend in the morning. These were mostly housewives.

As regards frequency of attendance at NFE courses, the findings revealed that the majority of adults (189), representing 54%, preferred to attend on two days a week and a relatively large number (121), representing 34%, preferred to attend once a week. Taken together, these two preferences accounted for a significantly large number (310) of interviewees, representing 88% of the 352 interviewees in the sample, preferring attendance once or twice in a week. It must be pointed out that preferences of attendance at NFE courses could have been influenced by many factors, for example: interviewee's interest in NFE courses to be provided; interviewee's motivation for study; duration of NFE courses to be provided; marketing of NFE courses to be provided; etc. These factors could have appreciably influenced the interviewees' attendance preferences discussed above.

#### 5.3.6 Conclusion

Findings in this section showed the following:

- (a) a very large majority of interviewees showed a positive response towards attendance at NFE courses of their choice;
- (b) a large majority of interviewees preferred to have NFE courses of their choice provided in their district;
- (c) a large majority of interviewees required provision of proficiency education courses to update education/skills;
- (d) a very large majority of interviewees preferred to attend NFE courses of their choice once or twice a week.



#### 5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The issues of NFE and its inclusion in the educational system in South Africa are undergoing research on a national scale. No doubt many sound proposals will emerge from this undertaking. It is evident, however, that no single solution will resolve the problem of adult NFE needs in a community. The problem of providing for researched, as opposed to perceived, adult NFE needs is dependent on changes in the prevailing education system as well as in the attitude of the community. The present research has thrown much light on the NFE needs of Indian adults. In view of these findings the following recommendations, which also serve to indicate further directions for research, are made. These recommendations are presented under two headings:

- (a) facilitation, encouragement and counselling of adults to engage in NFE activities; and
- (b) provision of proficiency, basic and community education.

##### 5.4.1 Facilitation, Encouragement and Counselling of Adults to Engage in NFE Activities

Findings revealed that there was widespread ignorance of the availability of educational opportunities for adults, particularly the working class adults. The concept NFE was also new to a large majority of adults. Because of this a very large number were not engaged in study activities. These adults, nevertheless, responded positively to the

idea of attending NFE courses of their choice if provided in their area. The conclusion drawn was that there was a profound lack of information on NFE opportunities for adults. Adults must, therefore, be facilitated, encouraged and counselled to engage in NFE activities. This type of service should be provided in the following ways:

(a) Provision of NFE - A State Departmental Responsibility:

The lack of provision of NFE must be seen against the variety of needs of a large number of adults and the emphasis on child/youth-directed education of the prevailing formal system. A major drawback in the provision of adult NFE in the RSA is the lack of a legislative framework to enable Education Departments (with the exception of Blacks) to implement a significant policy of NFE. The Department of Education and Culture of the House of Delegates should be entrusted with the task of catering for adult NFE as a form of educational provision and responsibility in the same way as schooling and tertiary education are defined. Such a service would need to define all salient aspects of NFE including allocation of resources.

(b) Regional Boards for NFE:

Within the control of the Department of Education and Culture of the House of Delegates, Regional Boards for NFE should be created. Each board would have its office centrally situated in an area and should function on lines similar to University Extra-mural and Extension Units. The key functions of the board would be to identify and co-ordinate priorities for NFE, encourage adult initiatives in various programmes, and allocate resources on a regional basis.

Some of the considerations which the board should adopt in a programme to facilitate, encourage and counsel adults to engage in NFE activities are:

- (i) defining NFE for adults,
- (ii) listing various possible activities in NFE,
- (iii) emphasizing the short and long term values of NFE,
- (iv) creating convenient regional and local venues for provision of NFE courses and
- (v) giving priorities to adult attendance convenience with respect to time of day and frequency per week.

Operating within the infrastructure of the Department of Education and Culture, the Regional Board of NFE would have the necessary legislative backing to enable NFE to meet the cultural, vocational, social and political needs of the community. Moreover, it would have allocated funding which is necessary to conduct the functions of the Regional Board on an ongoing basis.

The Educational Department should also provide two services. Firstly, it should make available all educational resources at its disposal (teaching personnel, teaching aids, school venues, etc.) to commerce and industry delivering NFE programmes at the regional and local levels. Secondly, like the University Extra-mural and Extension Units, it should conduct research into problems associated with the teaching and learning of adults.

(c) The Employment Sector:

Since a large number of working adults required proficiency education, it is recommended that the employment sector embarks on strategies to facilitate and encourage adults to study. The following considerations by commerce and industry are regarded as important in this respect:

- (i) shortened working hours for workers wishing to attend NFE courses in their districts,
- (ii) the provision of employer transport to local venues of NFE,
- (iii) the provision of in-service training programmes on an ongoing basis and
- (iv) co-operation among firms by pooling resources to upgrade employment skills that are common.

(d) Co-operation Between the State Education Department and the Employment Sector:

The State Education Department and the Employment Sector must be involved in a shared responsibility to provide NFE programmes for working adults. One of the most important objectives of such a joint venture should be a development programme designed to formulate appropriate curricula, teaching methods and teaching technology for adults. The essential contribution of the Private Sector would be the enunciation of skills objectives while that of the Education

Department would be the most effective means for teaching such skills. The joint venture should lead both groups into vigorous theory-action debate involving school psychologists, school counsellors and teaching staff on the one hand, and business management and entrepreneurial experts on the other. However, in this shared responsibility for provision of adult NFE programmes, the Education Department could play a major role because of its possession of existing infrastructure and resources to co-ordinate a system of provision.

(e) Interaction Between Formal and NFE:

The adequacy of the planned provision of education in a society such as the RSA's cannot be measured purely on the basis of formal provision. It should also be evaluated in terms of its provision of NFE, especially for its tax-paying adult community. There must therefore be systematic interaction between formal and NFE. Establishing interaction would be facilitated by the fact that many non-formal and formal courses are interchangeable. It is an increasing practice that courses initially offered in one are later incorporated in the other with modifications.

Interaction between formal and NFE would introduce a challenge to find meaningful "inlets" and "outlets" for the two types of education. This problem would have to be resolved by the curriculum and syllabus designing sections of the Department of Education and Culture.

(f) Encouragement to Housewives to Engage in NFE:

Efforts to encourage housewives to engage in NFE are imperative in view of the fact that a large number of housewives and unemployed

females are at home during the day. A facilitating measure would be the formation of Housewives Leagues at the regional and local levels. Working in co-operation with Regional Boards of NFE, the role of the Leagues could be the encouragement of local initiatives among housewives, and to design and co-ordinate programmes of activities on the basis of identified needs. The main objectives of this service should be:

- (i) to provide functional knowledge and skills required for raising a family,
- (ii) to counsel parents on changing school education curricula as well as career opportunities available to children,
- (iii) to assist housewives to engage in various community affairs,
- (iv) to encourage housewives to resume basic education and
- (v) to encourage housewives to take up part-time employment and small scale home-based business enterprises .

#### 5.4.2 Provision of Proficiency, Basic and Community Education

##### (a) Proficiency Education:

The provision of proficiency education programmes should be the joint responsibility of the Regional Boards for NFE and the Employment Sector. Programmes should be directed mainly at adult workers wanting to upgrade their job skills and knowledge at venues in their districts. Development of such programmes and the creation of incentives among adult workers would be two important services of the

joint committee of the Board and the Private Sector. With regard to young adults an additional service would be career counselling.

The joint committee should also develop technical training centres within school complexes for adults to attend in-service courses, and certification should be provided.

(b) Basic Education:

Basic education for adults should be viewed as equivalent to formal schooling at the standard 8 and standard 9 level, but the curriculum and methods of teaching must be geared to adults. Consideration must also be given to syllabuses, subject groupings and methods of assessment at these levels. But the certification of adult education achievers must carry the same market value as that provided by the formal system of schooling. The Department of Education and Culture should be entrusted with the task of providing recognised certification for adult basic education examinees.

(c) Community Education:

A community education service for adults should be co-ordinated by Regional Boards for NFE. The service should operate community education centres within the region with each centre being administered by a working committee of local adults. Such a service would be responsible for leadership training, development of organisational skills, and education for leisure and personal recreation. Venues for community education activities should include libraries (including local school libraries), clinics, schools (gymnasias, class rooms,

multipurpose rooms, sports facilities) and established community centres, including those belonging to the employment sector. The role of Regional Boards of NFE would therefore be an important co-ordinating function.



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English translation of:

"Die uitgangspunt sal deurgaans moet wees dié van maksimale rasionalisering, minimale institusionalisering, maksimale desentralisering en devolusie van gesag, en meerdoelige aanwending van skaars hulpbronne (uitsluitend fisiese fasiliteite)".

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INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

A. GENERAL INFORMATION OF FAMILY MEMBERS

1. FAMILY CODE NO.: \_\_\_\_\_

2. ADDRESS: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

3. INFORMATION OF FAMILY MEMBERS:

a	b	c	d	e		f				g
				Yes	No	If Yes to (e)		Yes	No	
Member of Family	Age	Std. Passed	Occupation	Are you studying?		Nature of your studies	Name of institution	Is your study job-related?		Selection of interviewee to form the sample
i) Father										
ii) Mother										
iii) Children										
who have										
left school,										
university,										
technikon										
or college										
iv) Grandfather										
v) Grandmother										

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(Appendix A contd.)

**B. INTERVIEWEE'S EMPLOYMENT AND EDUCATION PARTICULARS**

1. Distance from home to place of work \_\_\_\_\_ km.

2. Travelling frequency to work:

daily	weekly	other .....
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3. Mode of transport to work:

own car	bus	train	Co. transport	other .....
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4. If "NO" to A. 3(e) Above:

4.1 Have you studied after leaving school, university, technikon or college?

Yes	No
-----	----

4.2 If "YES" to 4.1 above, where did you study?

university	college	other (Specify)
technikon	agency	

4.3 What did you study? \_\_\_\_\_

4.4 If "NO" to 4.1 above, what was your main reason for not studying?

(a) no provision	(e) Other (specify)
(b) no time	
(c) no money	
(d) no interest	



(Appendix A: continued)

**C. INTERVIEWEE'S NON-FORMAL EDUCATION NEED**

5. If you are involved in current study, is your current study your first choice of education need?

Yes	No
-----	----

5.1 If "NO" to 3(e) above and "NO" to 5 above, would you attend a NFE course if a course of your choice were offered to you in:

(a) central Durban 

Yes	No
-----	----

(b) your district 

Yes	No
-----	----

6. If "Yes" to 5.1 (a) and/or 5.1 (b) above, what NFE course would you want provided for you? Give the main reason for your choice:

(a)	(b)						
	MAIN REASON FOR CHOICE OF NFE COURSE						
Interviewee's Choice of NFE Course	1. supplement family income	2. update education	3. continue education	4. cultural/recreational purposes	5. occupy spare time	6. raise status	7. any other (specify)
A. basic education							
B. proficiency education							
C. community education							

6.1 If a NFE course of your choice were provided in your district, when would you prefer to attend?

(a) WEEK DAYS			(b) WEEK ENDS		(c) OTHER (SPECIFY)
evening	afternoon	morning	including sundays	excluding sundays	

6.2 How many days per week would you prefer to attend?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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