

**EDUCATORS ENACTING NON-FORMAL EDUCATION POLICY – CASE OF THREE
SCHOOLS IN MASVINGO DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE – AN EXPLORATION**

by

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**A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the academic requirements for the degree of Doctor of
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of KwaZulu-Natal**

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Date of submission: December 2019

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I, Professor P. Higgs, as the candidate's supervisor, agree to the submission of this thesis.

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Date: 08 April 2020

I, Professor S. B. Khoza, as the candidate's supervisor, agree to the submission of this thesis.

Signed 

Date: 08 April 2020

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The decision to undertake this study was a calculated one based on the wisdom that ‘no man is an island’. Subsequently, the adage was experienced to the full, and it has culminated in the completion of this intensive project. It was simply not possible to have come this far without the valuable contributions of the family, friends, workmates and well-wishers, who either overtly or covertly made their mark on me in the indelible ink that they used. I may fail to place you in this report but my heart is warmed by precious memories of the valuable contributions that you made, and for your sacrifices on my behalf. I thank you all.

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Dedication

Most of all, to my Lord and Saviour, glory is to God in the Highest! This dissertation is also dedicated to Shumiro Sarah Crystal, my beloved grandchild, whose four-month experience with mortals is a celebration that uplifts my spirit. I dedicate this work to Irene Fatima, my spouse, and life's pillar of strength, as well as to Kudakwashe Morgan, Danai Moreen, Gardner, and the big five. Last, but not least, I dedicate this thesis to the most deserving one – my loving mother, Janet, Tukiso – the last in the Mabuto clan's line of great queens and grandmothers, who, despite her advanced age and physical health, patiently endured the arduous journey with me.

Abstract

The Zimbabwean school model for the enactment of teaching and learning of Non-Formal Education Policy (NFEP) programmes is a recent development. The policy mandated the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE), the powers to promote an alternative pathway, in order to increase access and quality education. The school- model offers new opportunities to out-of-school children, youths and adults, coupled with new insights to researchers and educators, its enactment has largely remained unexplored, against a background of resources shortages that include the lack of the discipline's curriculum and trained educators. The ministry imposed a formal education curriculum and hired educators who are deficient in Non-Formal Education's (NFE) technical, pedagogic and content knowledge (TPACK). The study sought to analyse the educators' forms of enactment in the teaching and learning of the NFEP; programmes in order to contribute to debates on improving NFE. Literature on the study's phenomenon produced three forms of enactment: the acknowledged, the communal, and the committed. The study used the three forms of enactment as an analytic lens through which to understand how educators' enacted teaching and learning and accounted for their particular enactments. From the literature also emerged the cultural historical activity theory (CHAT), which underpinned the study and facilitated access to in-depth exploration of the data. The key formal education curriculum concepts were incorporated in CHAT, in order to invigorate in-depth explorations of the educators' influence in teaching and learning. The case-study approach facilitated access to in-depth data, guided by the qualitative research methodology and interpretive research paradigm. A purposive, convenience sample of seven participants was used to generate data, using semi-structured interviews, participant observations, and document analysis methods. The guided analysis process that was hedged on the curriculum concepts in the CHAT produced eight themes that framed data generation, presentation, analysis, and interpretation. A modified version of the CHAT, the enactment activity theory (EAT), later emerged, emphasising the economic factors to enactments. The study's findings suggested that the three forms of enactment were instrumental in guiding the teaching and learning, in the context of teaching goals, where different programmes had divergent goals that demanded unique forms of enactment. The findings revealed educators' limited understanding of key enactment concepts, due to deficient TPACK, limited material resources and financial incentives. Hence, there were contradictions and inconsistencies in enactment practices.

The study recommends the continued use of forms of enactments. The MoPSE should adopt an integrated curriculum that harmonises curriculum issues in order to diffuse tensions regarding the curriculum in-use, educators' TPACK and working conditions. Further research, founded on this explorative study should be conducted, in order to increase measures of transferability of the findings.

Key words: Enactment, policy, curriculum, CHAT, school-model, guided analysis, case study

Abbreviations and acronyms

CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CHAT	Cultural Historical Activity Theory
DAS	Data Analysis Spiral
EAT	Enactment Activity Theory
FE	Formal Education
FLE	Functional Literacy Education
HEXCO	Higher Education Examination Council
HW	Hardware
ICT	Information Communication and Technology
IW	Ideological-ware
KE	Knowledge Environment
MoPSE	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NFEP	Non-Formal Education Policy
PTCE	Part-Time Continuing Education
SW	Software
TIE	Technology in Education
TOE	Technology of Education
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific Cultural Organization
ZABEC	Zimbabwe Adult Basic Education Course

ZIMSEC Zimbabwe Schools Examinations Council

ZPD Zone of Proximal Development

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Candidate's statement

I undertook this study because of my personal experience as a schoolteacher, a non-formal educator, with the desire to extend the frontiers of my personal and profession life. I have had a rich teaching experience across most education landscapes after having trained and worked as a primary-school teacher for half a decade. I then upgraded my qualifications to those of a high-school teacher and taught for another half a decade before taking a bold step to balance my formal education expertise by seeking qualifications in the enactment of teaching and learning in non-formal education. I pursued my ambition by enrolling for the diploma and degrees in adult education with a local university. As a professional adult educator, I rose to the level of head of training and development, in a large private milling company in Zimbabwe. Later, became a university lecturer, specialising in teaching non-formal education and progressed to department chairperson, senior lecturer, and acting Deputy Dean of a school of education at a government university, in the south of Zimbabwe. As such, my personal identity is that of an educationist across all age groups of learners, inclusive of human resources development and management in private sector organisations.

The personal committed enactment use in this study is rooted in my simple upbringing in a village. I reflect on this vision as I trace my professional and academic sojourn on planet Earth, in which I find signposts for the current stage of my life's endeavours, namely the PhD study. I was motivated to embark on this study because I aspire to make a difference to my NFE community of learners, to the NFE profession, and to myself, based on the knowledge and experience that I have become endowed with over several decades. I firmly believe that the opportunity has come for me to study, and conduct an exploration study on the enactment of teaching and learning within the NFEP programmes phenomenon. I need to analyse and understand the phenomenon, informing my professional and academic 'club' of the deep insights that have escaped the attention of many researchers to date. I have been motivated by the desire to make this difference in an area in which many learners are still to access relevant, quality, non-formal education. This has been largely owing to the lack of supporting frameworks and theories on non-formal education for the local contexts. Now, with a framework in place, namely, the non-formal education policy (NFEP) for Zimbabwe, attention should be given to NFE that provides basic life skills for socio-economic development.

Of the three programmes within this NFEP school model, out-of-schoolchildren, who, in urban centres are ‘former street children’, attend the Zimbabwe adult basic education course (ZABEC). This is a course for both adult and non-adult learners. The youths and adults who feel that they have been left behind in the fierce battle for employment and essential life skills, enrol in the part-time continuing education (PTCE) programme, while the functional skills education (FLE) programme is attended by youths and adults seeking skills leading to a better life. The education needs of learners, who enrol in that Zimbabwe NFEP school-model programmes, are addressed by volunteer educators whose forms of enactment determine the achievement of their learning outcomes.

Undertaking this study was destined to give me satisfaction at having explored the way educators enact teaching and learning within the NFEP school-model programmes. The intention of NFEP is to promote access to relevant education for the out-of-schoolchildren, youths, and adults. In this study, I chose to explore the enactment phenomenon across the three programmes that schools have the potential to offer. Such is primarily based on available learning spaces that non-formal educators and learners can access: the NFEP has directed all schools to operate a dual-education system that embraces non-formal education. However, because it requires more than physical facilities to educate learners, I was motivated to explore how educators enacted teaching and learning in NFEP programmes. I realised only too well that current practices are framed by psycho-social conditions of work overload, resource shortages, and use of formal education pedagogy for enacting non-formal education.

These programmes combine to frame the NFE ‘alternative pathways’ that the NFEP (2015) has mandated the current NFEP school-model programmes to undertake. Reflecting on the mandate by government, the most critical question that dominated my thinking was the forms of enactments used by educators, ways in which they use them in teaching and learning, and educators’ reasons for teaching in the particular ways they did. Therefore, I sought a holistic picture of teaching and learning in school-model programmes being offered to address the education needs of out-of-schoolchildren, youths, and adults. As such, I explored NFEP programmes’ teaching enactment in three schools, guided by literature on enactment, NFEP curriculum concepts, and van den Akker et al’s (2010) empirical curriculum concepts subsequently; a theory would emerge to contribute knowledge to the discipline of non-formal education, locally.

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CHAPTER ONE: ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The MoPSE school model of the enactment of teaching and learning in non-formal education policy programmes was launched in 2015. It is a fairly recent development that was mandated by the Zimbabwean government through the Zimbabwe NFEP, as an education initiative that aims to promote alternative education pathways towards increasing access to quality education for citizens. While the school model offers new opportunities, it has largely remained unexplored. This study sought to explore the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP school-model programmes, in order to contribute to current debates on improving access to relevant quality non-formal education.

The launch of the NFEP (2015) witnessed the proliferation of non-formal education programmes under a unique school model that mandated the adoption of the formal education curriculum and the use of formal education teachers. The model seeks to address the lack of access to quality non-formal education by using various programmes. Among them were the Zimbabwe Adult Basic Education Course (ZABEC); the Part-Time Continuing Education (PTCE) programme, and the Functional Literacy Education (FLE) programme. In these efforts, the government is constrained primarily by the lack of an NFEP curriculum and the discipline's educators. The Secretary's Minute Circular 13 of 2016, directed formal school educators to teach non-formal education, based on the formal education curriculum. Formal education school educators were recruited to perform the enactment roles of non-formal education's educators, despite a lack of the discipline's technological, pedagogic and content knowledge (TPACK). There were also other areas of concern, such as the lack of adequate resources for teaching, the low incentives for the educators, and the insufficient time for enacting the teaching and learning (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Strategic Plan, 2016-2020) document. It behooved this study to explore the forms of enactments that the educators used, how they deployed them, and the fundamental reasons that explain the particular ways of enacting, that characterised teaching and learning in the complex environment of the NFEP's school model. The researcher also observed the paucity of research work and theory on the enactment of teaching and learning in non-formal education in general, and in the NFEP's school-model programmes, in particular.

This introductory chapter presented the outline of the entire research study. A detailed description of the background to the study, the rationale of the study, and the problem statement, were discussed, in order to highlight the basis for embarking on this research study. The chapter further unpacked the critical questions and objectives that guided this research project. Furthermore, overviews of each of the chapters of the research study were presented, as a lens on the entire research study, followed by an epilogue of each chapter.

1.2 Background to the Study

Until the promulgation of the NFEP (2015), Non-formal education (NFE) activities were fragmented and marginalised for several years, despite the reports in the Nziramasanga Education and Training Report (1999) that recommended that the government should intervene. In response, the Zimbabwean government, through the MoPSE, developed a NFEP school-model for the enactment of NFEP programmes. The goals of the policy are: the provision of high-quality, relevant and inclusive non-formal education; increasing access by non-formal means, as well as providing adult learners, youths, and out-of-schoolchildren with functional skills (MoPSE Education Sector Strategic Plan 2016-2020). Admittedly, the current dynamics of the non-formal education sector in Zimbabwe cannot be fully comprehended without knowledge and understanding of the nature and policies that preceded the NFEP (2015), in the colonial era (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011) and the post-independence period.

1.2.1 Educational policy antecedents in pre-independent Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe, formerly known as Rhodesia, is a country that was administered by British White settlers from 1890 to 1980. The colonists were guided by a philosophy of a dual-society, “based on racial divisions where no African was expected to aspire to live in the manner of a European and vice-versa” (Maravanyika, 1990, p. 4). Richards and Govere (2003) indicate that this philosophy gave rise to a racial society that implemented a concoction of legal, political, economic, and social policies. As was expected, these legal frameworks severely restricted the academic and professional development of Africans. Maravanyika (1990) comments that the settler philosophy could be better understood through remarks by a White missionary who stated that the natives

were being taught religion and how to work. This suggests that only the White minority had the right to formal education. This situation was perpetuated for almost a century, to ensure economic and social monopoly for the minority race. For instance, the ordinances of 1899 and 1903 used the unequal distribution of state funding in education, as means of denying access to education for many years, for the Africans (Maravanyika, 1990). The long-term impact of these policies that promoted the segregated educational provision resulted in an insignificant percentage of Africans pursuing technical and vocational education. By 1978, only twenty per cent of the total enrolment of students at technical colleges in Rhodesia comprised Africans (ColClough, Lofstedt, Manduvi-Moyo, Maravanyika & Ngwata, 1990). The observation is that, while the policies denied the Black majority access to formal education, no efforts were made to promote non-formal education; yet the rest would look for alternative education which was not officially provided for them by government (Zvobgo, 1982). Eventually, the denial of education rights became a key catalyst for the Africans in waging a war of liberation, which featured the participation of a large number of school leavers (Richards & Govere, 2003). As a consequence, Zimbabwe became a democracy in 1980.

1.2.2 Early non-formal education developments in post-independent Zimbabwe

On attaining independence in 1980, the Zimbabwe government was faced with thousands of Black people who needed basic education (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). In response, the new government constituted a Department of Non-Formal Education (Report on the Development and State of the Art of Adult Learning and Education in Zimbabwe, 1997-2007). The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education and Culture was tasked with championing non-formal education as a vehicle for ensuring that any person who was out of school but wanted to continue with education, could be assisted to do so. This could be either through private study groups, night school, correspondence, or open and distance learning. Operationally, the then-ministry of education proceeded to establish programmes, namely, the Zimbabwe adult basic education course (ZABEC), functional literacy and part-time and continuing education course (PTCEC), in order to address the education needs of non-formal education learners. Owing to increased demand, the ministry solicited the assistance of other private and public organisations, so as to increase access to education and contribute towards socio-economic development (Dokora, 2015). These

concerted efforts resulted in Zimbabwe attaining a remarkable 92% literacy rate at the dawn of the new millennium, compared with the 61% rate at independence (Zimbabwe National Statistics for Education, 2014).

However, since the end of the 1990s, NFE has been experiencing numerous socio-economic challenges that impact on the sustainability of the NFE programmes (Kasowe, 2018; Midzi, 2001; Midzi, 2013; Nziramasanga Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training Report 1999). These reports are among the few sources of literature that have raised concern on the deteriorating NFE sector, with the Nziramasanga Commission pointing to the lack of a broad NFE policy. The problems consisted of poor funding strategies, inadequate training of critical human resources including educators, a lack of incentives and allowances for staff, and a shortage of teaching and learning materials. Consequently, the Nziramasanga Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training Report (1999) recommended that the country should institute a national NFE policy that would boost accessibility, maintain quality, and provide for the systematic planning, provision, and coordination of activities, while stimulating community participation.

Later, Dokora (2015), the then minister of education, while alluding to similar challenges, added that the education sector was negatively affected by Zimbabwe's economic meltdown of 2007-2010, during which many teachers deserted the classroom for greener pastures. In that case, the gains of the previous literacy campaigns were reduced from 92% in 2002 to 83% (UNESCO, 2015). Similarly, large numbers of schoolchildren dropped out of school, while others never got the chance to attend school, owing to socio-economic hardships. Such people would need to enrol in NFE, later in life.

In 2015, the government renewed its interest in NFE, as an alternate pathway that complements the formal. Dokora (2015) acknowledged that, while on one hand the formal education sector was well structured and organised, on the other hand, NFE was not. In fact, the provision of NFE programmes had become fragmented, owing to a lack of a national policy. In this case, it was anticipated that the policy would make NFE accessible, acceptable, available, and adaptable, in contributing to human-capital development (Ololube & Egbezor, 2012). The National NFE policy, whose enactment is the phenomenon of the study, was launched in 2015, in order to address non-formal education learners' needs for basic education, continuing education, and basic life competencies.

1.2.3 Current non-formal education developments in Zimbabwe

The Zimbabwe school model of NFE falls under the auspices of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary education (MoPSE). The ministry derives its mandate from the Constitution of Zimbabwe which states that education is a basic human right. Every citizen of Zimbabwe, regardless of race, creed, gender, or age, has a constitutional right to be educated. The Education Act of 1987, as amended in 1996, 2006, and in 2013, is the government's commitment to providing quality and relevant education to all. The government recognises the role of the NFE in national development, and has adopted effective measures to: (a) develop NFE so that it becomes integrated with education as a whole, and (b) to implement the national non-formal education policy for Zimbabwe (NFEP) framework in order to champion the alignment of NFE with the country's national socio-economic development needs.

The Zimbabwe school model was expected to meet the criteria for integration, since the two systems were to merge into a dual system of education, sharing physical facilities, learning resources, and educators. It is argued that the MoPSE did not engage stakeholders about which curriculum was to drive the integration, since what obtained was a deliberate effort to legalise the adoption of the FE curriculum and integrate only the learners. How this evolved is of interest to this study; since specialist formal education teachers have been mandated to teach NFEP programmes, for which they are not trained to do. The major elements of the Zimbabwe NFEP are the definition, mission, vision, goals, objectives, educator roles, activities, and rules. The Zimbabwean official definition of NFE is:

“Non-Formal Education refers to planned educational programmes for adult learners, youths and out-of-school-children that aim at improving skills and competencies, outside but supplementary to the formal education curriculum” (The National Non-Formal Education Policy, 2015:7).

This definition specifies the target beneficiaries of NFE, who are adult learners, youths, and out-of-schoolchildren. This allows educators to develop their forms of enactment around particular programme goals and the learners. Inasmuch as Khoza (2016) presents findings of a study in which managers used Moodle visions to manage the curriculum successfully, NFE educators are expected to drive NFEP programmes of teaching and learning, based on knowledge of the concepts of the curriculum that will be in use. An educator must focus on how to make best use of resources/tools,

forms of evaluation, and time (Gunderman, Williamson, Frank, Heltkamp & Kipfer, 2003), among other guiding curriculum concepts. Van den Akker (2010) argues that there is more to planning and enacting an education policy or curriculum. The full set of curriculum concepts from literature comprises rationale, aims, content, learning activities, educator role, materials/resources, grouping, location, time, and evaluation. Educators must understand curriculum concepts in order to attain learning outcomes (van den Akker et al., 2010). To educators, the curriculum concepts are the signals of teaching and learning (Khoza, 2016).

The current Zimbabwe NFEP offers the following programmes:

- a) Basic literacy education programme: this covers reading, writing, and arithmetic, and is meant for those who did not have the chance to attend school;
- b) Functional literacy education (FLE) programme: this is for an application of basic literacy skills required for everyday activities;
- c) Zimbabwe adult basic education course (ZABEC): this is a primary-school programme for adults leading to Grade Seven (7) examinations, taken together with formal education candidates;
- d) Part-time continuing education (PTCE): these are afternoon or evening classes for those pursuing secondary education;
- e) Open and distance learning (ODL): this is a correspondence programme for those pursuing secondary education. It is intended to serve learners who are separated by time and distance. It also serves learners who are disadvantaged socially and economically.

The viable programmes that frame the current school model are ZABEC, PTCE, and FLE. In this model, learners have access to basic education in the format of the formal school system, in the same hierarchical grades system. The grades are grouped into levels as follows: Level One (Grades One to Three) Level Two (Grades Four and Five) and Level Three (Grades Six and Seven). The PTCE programme promotes continuing education from Form One to Form Six; and the Functional Literacy Education promotes engaging in projects in which the learners apply their already acquired basic literacies of reading, writing, and numeracy (functional literacy programme). According to Freire (1970), functional literacy means possession or acquisition of literacy skills which are adequate for self-sustenance, and that of the society. It is an education whose priority is

to meet economic goals of production. Functional literacy education programmes will combine reading, writing, and numeracy skills with vocational skills linked to one's occupation, such as agriculture for rural-based farmers, and marketing and budgeting skills for the learners who operate informal markets.

It is observed that the NFEP programmes school model also provides the foundation for the social, cultural, and economic growth of the country (Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2016-2020:1). According to Adewale (2009), education should protect participants from socio-economic challenges, such as illiteracy, poverty, hunger, disease, conflict, unemployment, and marginalisation. As such, NFEP programmes aim to facilitate accessibility to basic primary school education as well as opportunities for advanced education and functionality for all citizens. Accordingly, policy document objectives reflect the moral obligations of government on the right to education for a better life for all its citizens.

Generally, the NFEP teaching and learning in the school model represents the latest attempt by government to improve on the previous NFE frameworks. The Nziramasanga Commission Report (1999) maintained that these frameworks had failed to reach out to out-of-schoolchildren, youths, and adults in all parts of the country. Therefore, they were not adequately addressing their learning needs. In other words, the intended beneficiaries failed to physically access NFE because of the unavailability of learning spaces that were dedicated to them. Furthermore, in cases where the facilities existed, learning needs were not addressed, owing to the use of untrained 'cadres', adds the Nziramasanga Commission Report (1999). How the educators are enacting teaching and learning in the current NFEP school model remains to be seen, since it also uses qualified formal education teachers who are 'unqualified' NFE teachers. In addition, the MoPSE Education Sector Strategic Plan 2016-2020 confirms the existing challenges:

"Fees for participation in NFE programmes which deter people from commencing, continuing and completing classes; reduced teaching time available-shorter hours of NFE classes in the afternoons and evenings rather than the normal five hours in formal learning; the introduction of the new curriculum and need to provide teachers with the professional competencies, to prepare materials and teaching strategies..." (p. 20).

These challenges characterise the context in which educators enact teaching and learning. The context has a defining impact on the way in which educators interpret and translate teaching goals

into practise, the way they do. The CHAT refers to such factors which mediate meaning-making processes of educators (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). For instance, when instruction time is reduced, an educator will engage a process of modification and creativity based on a form of enactment, such as the committed enactment in which the educators use their experience to solve the problem.

Educators are undoubtedly the major actors in any school education programme (Edwards, 2000; because they influence behaviour change in learners (Torombe, 2013) whose technological, pedagogical and content knowledge (TPACK) has great influence on their enactment principles and practices (Guerrio, 2014) Currently, how the educators enact the education intervention remains unknown until a research is conducted (Mudyahoto, 2017), despite literature by Honig (2006) and Young and Lewis (2015) that policy implementation actors often face challenges that result in complexities and contradictions which affect the attainment of learning outcomes. Likewise educators in the study were bound to face similar challenges that were to affect their choice of forms enactments, how they subsequently negotiated the challenges as they enacted teaching and learning, and eventually accounted for their enactment decisions

From the background information, it is clear that NFE lobbyists, such as the Nziramasanga Commission succeeded in persuading the government to develop and launch the NFEP. In response, the MoPSE proceeded to establish the NFEP school model, despite that it did not have adequate human, financial and material resources. There are also reports that often some educational policies are not enacted due to various challenges, Mthethwa (2012) conducted a study on challenges to enactments in South Africa, which include unclear guidelines, a lack of leadership, scanty resources and the absence of feedback and monitoring systems. It can be observed that, above all, the greatest challenge could be a lack of leadership that does not prioritise the role of educators and their needs for a discipline's teaching competences. This assertion underscores the influence of TPACK for enacting suitable goals that result in effective learning outcomes. Hence, these were some of the gaps that concerned this study, while recognising that the NFEP is a living organism that needs to be appraised and revitalised in order to respond to the enactment phenomenon for it to remain both current and futuristic in its outlook and projections.

Hence, the major motivation for this research study is to contribute to the debate that supports educators in their enactments, from an informed position of quality research findings. Furthermore, the researcher observes a positive shift towards interest in the enactment of NFE policies. Several

researchers concur that NFE policy implementation attracts interest from governments, academics and researchers who intend to understand the policy enactment process, and its impact on practice (Cohen and Ball, 1990; Cohen and Hill, 2001). Such interests are bound to produce improvements in educators' enactment of the NFEP's school-model programmes in Zimbabwe.

1.3 Rationale for the study

The researcher's motivation in undertaking this study was premised on McClelland's Needs Achievement theory, in relation to three areas of academic pursuit in a challenging and unexplored area of study (achievement), interest in enactment phenomenon that contributes to improved livelihoods by communities (affiliation and , and the development of related theories (power). First, the researcher's professional engagement amounts to thirty-three (33) years in various organisations, of which twenty-five years were in NFE teaching and learning. The rest of the time was spent in various capacities of policy-making, and implementation, and currently, as lecturer of NFE coordinators at university level.

In the current post, the researcher teaches NFE coordinators the design of NFE programmes, teaching materials development, and the TPACK of NFE. In interactions with the learners, the researcher became aware that educators in public schools were facing challenges of inadequate resources and educators for enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP school- model, four years after the policy was launched in 2015. This was a concern to the researcher since: resources influence teaching and are essential components (Reinders & White, 2009). Furthermore, the MoPSE alluded to the use of untrained NFE educators and the FE curriculum (MoPSE Strategic Plan, 2016-2020), for reasons that are best known by government. The reality of NFEP programmes' enactment in the school-model was that it was being championed by para-professionals who perform dual roles.

First, the educators were full-time formal-education professional teachers for most of the day; who then became part-time unqualified non-formal educators, in the afternoons and evenings. The researcher concluded that when formal education teachers enact dual teaching roles, they risk experiencing burn-out and work-overload, due to working longer hours than their counterparts. In a study on enactment of curriculum, Bouck (2008) discovered that para-professionals were unclear on their roles, and their allowances were not standardised. The para-professionals also reacted

negatively when teaching vulnerable groups. Similarly, the composition of learners in the NFE schools is that of groups of adults and non-adults learning together. In rural schools, it is common that street children attend lessons with adults. This study seeks to close the gap on how and why educators enact teaching and learning the way they do. The study sought to understand the educators' forms of enactment, so that the teaching could be enacted more effectively, based on established TPACK for NFE. Furthermore, the TPACK which characterises one's personal identity is an important and under-studied variable (Guerriero, 2014). This suggests that TPACK influences the quality of teaching and learning from each educator.

Second, there is a paucity of research on the enactment of teaching and learning in NFE that is based on the formal-education curriculum. The directive to use the formal-education curriculum was an area of concern for since the two types of curriculum address different learner needs. The FE's vertical curriculum suits learners who wish to develop the cognitive domain, while NFE's horizontal curriculum provides learners with skills (Bernstein, 1999). Furthermore, the vertical curriculum's syllabus provided suggested activities and pedagogy that were designed for teaching children, NFE's adult learners were bound to experience some discomfort with child-like treatment.

Third, how educators from another discipline that runs parallel with non-formal education were expected to cope with teaching NFE youths and adults in combined classes was another concern for this study. The instruction on the formal curriculum in NFEP programmes enacted by the ministry does not suggest alternative constructions and recontextualisation of the curriculum but was to be adopted without any adjustments (Secretary's Circular Minute Number 13 of 2016). How the educators interpreted, translated, recontextualised and enacted the NFEP programmes based on formal education teaching's TPACK, was yet to be explored.

Fourth, the MoPSE was not forthcoming with the training of educators. The main obstacle was the shortage of funds (MoPSE Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2016-2020). The purpose of training the educators would have served to induct them into the NFE discipline's TPACK. In fact, it is one's which characterises one's personal identity is an important and under-studied variable of educator-quality (Guerriero, 2014). This suggests that it should have been imperative for the MoPSE to do so for the educators. Singh, Harris and Thomas, (2013) recommend that educators be assisted with contextualising their TPACK. This was important to do since educators who enact

policy were heavily engaged in translating, interpreting and recontextualising the enactment phenomenon (Sheikh and Bagley, 2017).

How the educators were to re-define the FE curriculum to suit NFEP programmes, was a gap that this study sought to understand, since the MoPSE was to use the FE curriculum for an indefinite period. There is also little research evidence on how the enactment of teaching and learning, within the NFEP school model has unfolded in schools in Masvingo district. For example, Midzi (2013) studied the factors affecting male participation in literacy education programmes. Kasowe (2018) followed with a study on the factors affecting implementation of non-formal education programmes. According to Mthethwa (2012), the purpose of such studies is to analyse implementation problems relating to the enactment process. Inadvertently, in both researches, the educators' experiences were pushed to the periphery of events. Most studies fail to recognise that, at the core of education change processes, are the educators (Viennet & Pont, 2017), who perform the social aspect of enactment (Maguire, Hoskins, Ball & Braun, 2011). This suggests that educators were bound to develop innovative ways of enacting teaching; and to create practical solutions to the challenges that they face (Khoza, 2016). Therefore, it is crucial for people with interest in the enactment of teaching, namely policymakers, programme managers (school heads), other educators and researchers, to learn from the educators about enactment of teaching and learning. The knowledge that is obtained is important for the development of educators who are in the field and for those people aspiring to be educators. The knowledge that educators construct while enacting teaching and learning will add to the existing literature on NFEP teaching and learning enactment and, as such, help contribute to the educational debates intended to narrow the current NFEP programmes' enactment TPACK deficiency gap.

Fourth, the researcher observed that the educator-development programmes at state universities currently rely on the epistemology of other cultures, mainly from Europe and the United States of America. Lecturers and students will value home-grown knowledge since they identify with it. Such knowledge becomes horizontal knowledge, which is used in the communal enactment of teaching in NFE. Bernstein (1999) describes horizontal knowledge as knowledge which has a shared history, originating from common problems, making it context specific. The knowledge that is developed from the experiences of educators enacting teaching in NFEP programmes is relevant and culturally sound, such that the lecturers and students will relate to it and take it as

their own. In addition, the theory was developed based on the CHAT and the EAT, which emphasise a focus on contextualised enactment. This study comes at a time when the experiences of educators enacting teaching within the NFEP programmes in schools have not been documented. The gap for a theory that can be utilised for improving enactment of teaching and learning, based on local epistemology will be narrowed.

1.4 Problem Statement

The NFEP (2015), has generated debate for almost twenty years, leading to the launch of the NFEP's school model in 2015. It is a guideline by government, for all stakeholders, including the MoPSE, to derive maximum benefit from enacting NFEP programmes' teaching and learning. The effective and efficient enactment of the school model is to provide adult learners, youths, and out-of-schoolchildren with functional skills. Hence, the study's three interest areas seek responses to the forms of enactment that educators use, how they deploy the enactments and why educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do. The findings of the study will contribute knowledge that educators can use to improve their enacting of teaching and learning.

Alfrey, O'Connor and Jeanes (2017) observe that educators play a key role in education enactment. Educators translate policy concepts into action (Braun, Ball & Maguire, 2011; Sheik & Bagley, 2018), for which they need structural support and time in which to enact the intended curriculum (Alfrey et al., 2017). Despite that the MoPSE has made the implementation of the NFEP' programmes mandatory, the government, through the MoPSE, in the 2016-2020 Education Sector Strategic Plan, reveals that educators face shortages of essential materials and incentives. In addition, educators have not been capacitated in respect of professional competencies for the new curriculum. The educators have not been trained to enact teaching in NFEP programmes while using the formal education curriculum. There are concerns that the educators may not adjust to the demands of the NFE's TPACK, characteristics and learning styles of the learners, and to their physical, social, and psychological needs. Therefore, this study sought out to explore the forms of enactment that educators use, how they deploy the enactments and why they enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do, in the NFEP school programme. This exploratory case study made recommendations on ways that contribute to the debate on improving and sustaining the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP school-model programmes in Zimbabwe.

1.5 Research Questions

The study used the following research questions in addressing the research problem.

1. What forms of enactment do educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes at selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?
2. How do educators enact teaching and learning in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?
3. Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?

Given the above questions, the study is driven by the following strategic objectives.

1.6 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The research aim is to:

Recommend ways that enhance the enacting of teaching and learning in the NFE school-model programmes, as an alternative pathway that increases access to quality education in Zimbabwe.

The objectives are:

1. To explore the forms of enactment that educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP policy programmes in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe.
2. To analyse how educators enact teaching and learning in NFEP policy programmes in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe.
3. To explore the particular ways the educators use to enact teaching and learning in NFEP in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe.

1.7 Significance of the Study

There is an increasing trend towards exploring teaching and learning through the lens of the educators (Alfrey et al., 2017). The development is supported by research evidence that enactment

studies enhance an understanding as well as a recognition of the role of educators in constructing knowledge in teaching and learning, in the context of the schools (Remillard & Heck, 2014), leading to improved enactments. Currently, there are few studies that have documented how educators have enacted teaching in non-formal education; despite that enactment study has emerged as a new approach that has shifted the focus of studies from the traditional linear process of implementation of education policies and programmes, to the social process of enactment (Sheikh and Bagley, 2018). Infact, enactment is a perspective that focuses on understanding the complex and multifaceted construction of meanings and knowledge that arise from the lived experiences of educators (Braun, Ball and Maguire, 2011; Sheikh & Bagley, 2018). This suggest that this is an approach to the exploration of teaching and learning that highlights the importance of the social interactions with learners and various tools and artefacts that frame the creative interpretation and translation of teaching activities, as expounded by the CHAT.

The data from this enactment study would significantly help policymakers and all stakeholders in understanding how educators enact teaching and learning in NFEP programmes. Most of all, an analysis of the reasons for enacting teaching in those particular ways, was a core theme of the study. This suggests that in-depth interrogation of educators provides researchers with rich data and powerful insights on the existential enactment epistemology that frames teaching and learning. Hence, there is a gap between the MoPSE's directives and knowledge of reality on enactments, owing to little attention having been paid to the educators who are at the epic-centre of enacting the teaching and learning.

The process of putting the mandate into practise began in 2015. However, there is little evidence on how and why educators are enacting the process the way they do, against a background of resource shortages and hired educators who lack the TPACK of NFEP programmes' enactment. In elaborating the relevance of CHAT within education, Foot (2014) points out that activities are directly linked to the object and its outcome. This suggests that the outcome can only be understood against the objective, the content, resources, activities, roles, accessibility, time and assessment, all of which are the curriculum concepts that are framed in CHAT. The gap is that there is little knowledge that informs enactment practices from the standpoint of the 'real' actors, in order to improve the attainment of learning outcomes. The findings were to help inform stakeholders of

the NFEP school model of current developments, with a view to improving enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP's school-model programmes.

1.8 Research Design and Methodology

Bryman (2012) and Magwa and Magwa (2015) state that, in general, research entails creating cohesion among many components of the research process, such as the research problem, and data collection. Embarking on such an exercise requires a plan (Terhoven, 2016). Hence it is important to present some of the crucial elements of the research design, namely, the research paradigm, research approach, and research strategy for this study.

1.8.1 Research design

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) have defined a research design as a plan for use in deciding on the methodology and methods for responding to the research problem and questions. In short, this meant that a research design should focus on the study's priorities, such as the outcomes and generalisation of the results (Bryman, 2012), by systematically guiding the entire research process. The study was qualitative in nature which adopted a case-study approach. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2013), qualitative research is conducted in natural settings in which the participants are located. Consequently, the educators in this study were interviewed and observed at the schools in which they enacted teaching and learning and while conducting live sessions. The study focused on people who were acting within their natural setting, and described their contemporary world in their own words (Yin, 2003). This indicates the capacity of qualitative research to be adaptive to the contexts of the participants.

In addition, this suggests that people are in their own environment, there is a higher probability of participants talking more freely and confidently than when they are in unfamiliar grounds where they feel cornered. However, Baxter and Jack (2008), in a study on the use of qualitative a case study methodology by novice researchers, warn against the temptation of collecting massive data. This suggests that one may not have the time and skill to analyse the data, thoroughly. In this study, the use of pre-set questions was an effective time management tool which tends to be more confident and reliable since there with less pressure to bear. Nonetheless, this qualitative design

became relevant in order to ensure that suitable methods were applied towards realising the research outcomes. This qualitative study aimed at generating words (qualitative) rather than numbers (quantitative), relying on open-ended questions (qualitative interview questions), rather than on using closed-ended questions (quantitative hypotheses), explains Creswell (2014). In the end, large volumes of data were to be collected and analysed, reconstructed and recontextualised about the phenomenon.

1.8.1.1 Research paradigm

A paradigm is generally viewed as a set of beliefs which shape a person. A suitable definition by Creswell (2009) posits that paradigms are basic belief systems that are based on ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions, deriving from ontological, epistemological, and methodology orientations. Epistemology refers to how people come to know reality; ontology is about the nature of reality; and methodology refers to how one believes research should be conducted. For this study, these three dimensions of a paradigm, namely, epistemology, ontology, and methodology, were used, in order to understand the researcher's philosophical underpinning – the interpretive philosophy. Bryman (2012) defines the interpretive philosophy as a belief that respects the differences between people and objects, so as to interpret the subjective meaning of social action. Based on the interpretive paradigm, the researcher explored NFEP programmes' enactment through the lens of the educators' experiences, in order to ascribe meanings and interpretations to causality (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Accordingly, the researcher sought to understand the policy-enactment phenomenon in the three selected schools in Masvingo District. The interpretive paradigm was used for interpreting the findings, so that transferability could be made (Yin, 2009). Creswell (2007) reiterates that reality is in the people, and it is constructed by these very people, such as the educators. This confirms that the data were to be subjective and such is the nature of qualitative data. The task of this interpretive researcher was to generate data in an objective manner (Flick, 2014), in order to obtain insights, leading to the reality that characterised the phenomenon of teaching and learning.

1.8.1.2 Research approach

The study adopted the qualitative approach for exploring teaching and learning on NFEP programmes by educators. This approach provided the study with a theoretical frame of reference. Cohen et al. (2007) and Smith (2003) recommend a qualitative approach for a study that seeks to gain a comprehensive understanding of the experiences of people. Therefore, the qualitative approach provided the tools with which to interact with the participants so that their experiences could be described and interpreted. In this study, the researcher needed to interact with educators, so as to analyse and understand the forms of enactment that they used, how they enacted teaching and learning, as well as why they enacted teaching in particular ways in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe.

1.8.1.3 Research strategy

This study was planned around the case of educators enacting teaching and learning within the NFEP school-model programmes. It adopted the case study for its strategy. Yin (2003) contends that case studies are primed to explore complex social phenomena. This suggests that researchers will be able to explore the real-life experiences of educators as they enact NFEP programmes. Furthermore, the strategy was suitable, owing to its strengths since it used interviews, observations, artefacts, and document analysis methods in order to generate data. In turn the data were to produce comprehensive findings that reflected meaningful characteristics of policy enactment (Ndlovu, 2017). The study adopted a case-study strategy in order to understand the shared phenomenon of interest (Lauckner, Paterson & Krup, 2012), where the learners, the schools, and the wider community had already registered their interest in teaching and learning programmes in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe.

1.8.2 Research methodology

The research methodology incorporated sampling methods, data generation techniques, data analysis and ethical considerations.

1.8.2.1 Sampling methods

Strydom (2014) defines a sample as the selection of a small number of entities that the researcher considers to be representative of the entire population. The non-probability sampling method was used in selecting three rural primary schools and the participants. In non-probability sampling, elements are not chosen by chance procedures. Non-probability sampling is used in accordance with the goal of the researcher (Patton, 2015). For this study, purposive and convenience sampling frames were used to deliberately choose schools and participants who were in possession of important information (Khoza, 2016). The purposive sampling method, which is also called sampling in a deliberate way of sampling (Babbie, 2014), was used for selecting three schools from the group of public schools which were administered by the MoPSE, as the official custodian of the NFEP. The ministry had total control to of the education programmes, the incentivisation of educators, and the supply of teaching and learning enactment resources. Purposive with convenience sampling was used to select three schools, one each for the three types of NFE programmes offered under the school model. These programmes were the Zimbabwe Adult Basic Education Course (ZABEC); the Part-Time Continuing Education (PTCE) programme, and the Functional Literacy Education (FLE) programme. Three educators from each of the targeted schools comprised the study sample.

A small sample of participants is considered adequate for a qualitative study, as advised by Punch (2005). Furthermore, Creswell (2017) recommends a sample size of four or five participants for a case-study research. Having considered the theoretical underpinnings in this qualitative study, the researcher decided on a sample of nine (9) schoolteachers and three schools, owing to the intensive nature of interviews, that they generate large volumes of data from each interviewee. Studying a policy-enactment phenomenon would require a theoretical consideration of the quality of interactions that would generate sufficient data. In addition, the researcher took cognisance of the length of time it takes to collect sufficient data that provide full meanings of the phenomena being explored (Ndlovu, 2016). According to McKnight (2017), the average interview takes ninety (90) minutes. Getting to understand the educators' enactment of the NFEP, with its complexities and lack of prior research, would require ample interview time, averaging ninety minutes, too.

1.8.2.2 Data generation

Kisaka-Jwan (2018) says that the data-generation process denotes a negotiated process in which the researcher and the participants engage in an activity of co-creating meaning (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). The researcher's main task is to ensure that the data are understood, analysed, and interpreted according to the research questions of a study. The data-generation tools that bode well with qualitative research and are in constant use include interviews, observations, and document analysis (Gill, Stewart, Treasure & Chadwick, 2008). These three methods were used for obtaining in-depth information about the enactment of teaching of NFEP programmes. The methods facilitated the triangulation of data, as a way of strengthening the validity of research from many data sources (Creswell, 2009).

1.8.2.2.1 Interview method

By definition, an interview is a data-generation method that seeks answers to a set of pre-conceived questions (Kothari, 2004). Semi-structured interviews were the major source of the research data, in which a set of in-depth semi-structured questions were employed in order to engage in a one-to-one interactive process with each interviewee. McKnight (2017) justifies such usage in qualitative research, as follows: "Interviews serve to give a good picture of actual and real life experiences as viewed by individual respondents" (p. 72). The researcher chose to use the semi-structured interview with all the educators, so as to administer an identical process that was to be used in a uniform manner, leading to consistency of the data. This method suits the goal of exploring the ways in which educators enact policy in public-school settings such that Punch (2005) recommends interviews for qualitative research because qualitative studies seek to understand participants' perceptions, meanings, and interpretations of phenomena. In addition, the researcher had learnt from experience that semi-structured interviews also provide interviewees the opportunity of exhaustively elaborating their responses. In this study, it was anticipated that the participants would be motivated to participate and tell the story of NFEP enactment in great detail. This was to be the first time a study was conducted regarding the enactment of the NFEP programmes in schools in Masvingo district. Furthermore, Yin (2009) reiterates that semi-structured interviews have the advantage of giving participants ample time to fully express themselves, thereby improving the quality of the data. Cohen et al. (2007) add that: "In all of the interviews, the important part will be the supplementary 'why' question" (p. 97), which leads to

an in-depth analysis of the phenomenon. Accordingly, the Research Question Three strategically sought to analyse why educators enacted teaching and learning, in particular ways.

The individual participants were briefed on the study, after which they signed letters of consent to their participation in which the researcher incorporating the use of a voice recorder. Recording the interviews minimises the risk of data attrition, by allowing the researcher to concentrate on the interview process. In order for interviews to be successful, Bryman, 2012) contends that it is sound practice to audiotape the interview. In line with ethical practise, the participants' consent was a prime concern for a researcher which was secured prior to the interview.

1.8.2.2.2 Observation method

In qualitative research, observations facilitate the development of knowledge that depicts the objective reality of what is happening (Creswell, 2014). This is facilitated by studying behaviour in natural settings, and observations which would confirm that teachers are actually enacting the teaching of NFEP programmes, in addition to how they enact such teaching. Observation, as a data-generating technique, is commonly known as an activity in which one observes what is occurring, and makes notes about what is observed. Later, the data is analysed so that decisions can be made about how things can be done. The decisions are preceded by educators having to make sense of complex activities on teaching and learning, having been influenced in the enactment (Spillane et al., 2002) by contextual factors, such as resources and learning spaces. It was a main research objective to analyse and understand why teachers enact teaching in the NFEP programmes, the way they do.

The observations were to be conducted at each school on a separate day from the interviews, following adequate arrangements with the school head and the NFE teacher. A pre-constructed checklist that focused on the teaching and learning NFE curriculum's pedagogy was to guide the researcher on designing the checklist that recognised the educators and learners' involvement, and the use of artefacts, such as the learning materials. Accordingly the researcher performed the role of a participant observer, and made notes without arousing undue curiosity from the learners, thereby disrupting the flow of the lesson. At another session, on the same day, participants were given the opportunity to recall their enactment sessions by answering questions on major

observations that the researcher had made, in order to understand why educators had performed teaching in the specific ways that they did.

1.8.2.2.3 Document-analysis method

Document analysis is another research tool that the study used in order to generate the data. It is a credible data-collection tool for use in obtaining an understanding of the reality that the documents portray on the enactment of policy (Flick, 2014). This suggests that a researcher must capture the enactments based on the concepts that are linked to teaching and learning. The key institutional document that was analysed was the NFEP. An educational policy is equated to a curriculum from which a syllabus is derived. Much of the researcher's attention was focused on the curriculum and the syllabus first, which the MoPSE has produced in order to guide educators. This was followed by analysing other school documents, namely, attendance registers, learning records, and schemes of work. The curriculum was analysed for the quality of guidance that it provides to teaching and learning (Ackerman & Schuldt, 2017). The researcher's goal was to understand how these documents impacted teaching and learning.

According to Cohen et al. (2011), documents represent the 'facts' of the education phenomenon. A policy document carries the policy decisions and the assessment standards for implementation (McKnight, 2017). It is therefore, correct to state that policy documents contain the 'what-is and what-is-not' of the teaching and learning. Analysing the teaching and learning documents would communicate the 'what' of the policy, as interpreted by the educators, who will then enact teaching based on their interpretations. Accordingly, the researcher sought to establish the relationship that exists between concepts and practice, as mediated by CHAT elements. Blignaut (2008) argues that when educators use cognitive sense-making, they do not merely adopt a curriculum; rather, they proceed to negotiate the complexities that they encounter in its enactment. This suggest that educators recontextualise the documents that the MoPSE had provided them, based on the intervening factors that reflected the influence of the CHAT elements, such as the resources at their disposal and the abilities of the subjects (the learners).

1.8.2.3 Data-analysis method

Raw data have no meaning; and the process that transforms the data into findings is called data analysis (Patton, 2002). In qualitative research, this data-transformation process is followed by an interpretive process, which then brings meaning to those data and projects that meaning to the reader, through a written report. Data analysis brings about order and structure to the collected data, using an iterative sequenced process (Creswell, 2014). This suggests that the data analysis process is a systematic one that is executed in exactly the same manner all the time, in order to raise measures of dependability of the findings, while accommodating new insights that emerge from the data. A data analysis framework was adopted, based on the aim of the process, which was to examine the various aspects of the data, clarify concepts that emerged, and to capture the themes before relating them to the research problem. Creswell (2013) posits that qualitative data analysis methods rely on steps in order to manage the masses of data that are generated by qualitative research. This indicates the rigour that should accompany a detailed framework in order to generate meaning from the data. The lack of rigour reduces the trustworthiness of the findings and generalisations to the wider community (Creswell, 2014), thereby rendering the research effort a less productive exercise.

1.8.2.4 Trustworthiness in qualitative research

Bryman (2012) refers to trustworthiness, as “a set of criteria for judging quality of qualitative research”, such as in the current qualitative study on the exploration of the enactment of the NFEP by educators in schools of the Masvingo District. Mertens and Hesse-Biber, (2012) proffer the quality of the findings can be enhanced by eliciting multiple and diverse data that support the inferences. Accordingly, the researcher used various data sources in the form of interviews, observations, and document analysis. The use of various methods has been known to accommodate differences in language, gender, and culture (Shoba, 2018). Therefore, arguably, no single data-generation method can convince critics on trustworthiness of interpretive quality studies (Creswell, 2014). As a measure that sought to address and enhance measures of trustworthiness, the researcher incorporated three data-generation methods so as to create a balance by relying on personal and

impersonal data sources in the form of individualised interviews, observations and document analysis data generation methods. The use of triangulation methods ensures that one method makes up for the shortfalls of the other method. Similarly, strengths that are inherent in the methods promoted the research rigour and trustworthiness. This was achieved by ensuring that participants' responses kept to the truth. Shenton (2004) suggests adopting Lincoln & Guba's (1985) framework, based on the following criteria:

- *Credibility*: this is an act of establishing confidence in the 'truth' of the findings. The researcher used the methods triangulation approach for collecting data, which incorporated member-checking (Cohen et al., 2011), in which participants authenticated their responses. Semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis generated the data.
- *Transferability*: According to Roth and Begley (2004), transferability is comparable with external validity. In qualitative studies, transferability of the study findings applies to similar contexts, such as other public schools in the Masvingo District. The NFEP programmes phenomenon was described in sufficient detail for an external person to be able to discern the findings (Creswell, 2013), so as to be able to judge the extent of the transferability of the findings.

1.8.2.5 Ethical considerations

Ethics are principles of right and wrong that the researcher has to uphold, in order to protect participants from harm, also known as non-maleficence (Ary et al., 2010; Beauchamp & Childress, 2009; Marshall & Rossman, 2006), whether physical, psychological, or social harm. Therefore, it was imperative for the researcher to integrate ethics into this scholarly inquiry (Creswell, 2014). Ethical practices were incorporated into the research process, driven by knowledge that this qualitative study involved human beings, whose rights had to be respected (McMillan & Schumaker, 2010). The following actions were conducted in the ethical treatment of the research participants.

- *Informed consent*: the communicative process that the researcher engaged in order to seek the participants 'consent involved informing them that their participation was valued and had to be voluntary (Ary et al., 2010) and that they were free to withdraw from the research at any time

(Ary et al., 2010; Borg & Gall, 2005). The researcher made it clear to them that choosing not to participate would not attract any adverse consequences at all. A critical factor was to explain the research process so that the participants could make personal informed judgments and decisions about their intended involvement. As such, the nature of the study, its aims, possible advantages to each participant, risks, dangers, and obligations were revealed to them (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Cohen et al., 2007). However, the researcher was not aware of any risks that were associated with the study. Accordingly, the participants were informed about the interview process, while encouraging them to participate freely and to be truthful with their responses, in order to increase measures of trustworthiness of the findings. The potential participants were also informed that research findings would be published. Their consent was to be based on full and open information.

- *Confidentiality and anonymity:* Participants and the data that were obtained were kept anonymous. No names were used in the research report. In addition, the participants were assured that the data were not to be shared with anyone other than for research purposes and with the participants' consent.
- *Withdrawal from the research process:* The participants were informed at the start of the data generation process that they had the right to withdraw, and did not have pressure to continue if they did not want to participate in the study (Bryman, 2012). This meant that they were to leave the study at any time if they considered it necessary to do so, without have to account for their action. They were also allowed to withdraw their data. Even at the end of the study, participants had a last opportunity of withdrawing the data they had provided for the research.
 - *Protection of collected data:* Vos et al. (2013) advise researchers to generate computer files with secret codes to ensure safety of the software resources. A computer memory device was used, to which only the researcher had exclusive access, thereby effectively mitigating security concerns.

1.9 Chapter Division

Chapter One introduced the readers to the study. It opened with an outline of the researcher's motivation for undertaking the study; before rolling out the background, the rationale, and the problem statement of the study. The research questions, objectives, and significance of the study

were highlighted, followed by an overview of the research design and methodology, the structure of the study, and a conclusion to the chapter.

The next chapter, Chapter Two, explored the literature related to the enactment of teaching and learning in the non-formal education policy's NFEP's school-model programmes, for Zimbabwe. It presented the review of the literature on relevant research studies in order to understand the enactment phenomenon. It included an analysis of what has been written and published about the theory of enactment; and argues that the enactment is framed by three enactments, namely, the acknowledged, communal, and committed enactments, with each of them influencing NFEP enactment of teaching. This indicated that the educators' interpretation of policy concepts was instrumental in driving teaching and learning. In addition, the curriculum concepts that influence the educators' particular enactment practices were discussed, as a lens to understanding educators' meaning making of the phenomenon.

Chapter Three sought to address Research Question Two, which read: How do educators enact teaching and learning in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe? It explored the literature on policy concepts that specifically impact on teaching and learning in the NFEP's school-model programmes. Specifically, the discourse focused on the following policy concepts: policy enactment resources/tools, policy knowledge also called content, accessibility to teaching and learning, and educator activities and roles. It interrogated the importance of the policy concepts, in search of an emergent theory, by providing themes that guided data generation and analysis.

Chapter Four interrogated the policy concepts in search of a response to Research Question Three that read: Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe? The response was crucial for the study which sought to understand the philosophical, psychological and social 'voices' that informed the educators to enact teaching and learning in particular ways. The subsequent findings were a unique form of knowledge, which would inform current debates on ways to improve NFE in general, and the NFEP's school-model programmes enactment, in particular. The concepts that were selected for discussion were: enactment time rule, enactment goals and enactment assessment.

Chapter Five was used for presenting the discourse on the theoretical framework; the cultural historical activity theory (CHAT). The chapter presented a case for the choice and use of the CHAT, which is that of exploring the phenomenon; premised on the notion that enactment is a negotiated socialisation process. As such, the enactment of the phenomenon is mediated by various factors (tools, objects, outcomes, rules, community, and division of labour). Knowledge of the impact of these artefacts should enable educators to use the CHAT, for supporting the teaching and learning activity system.

Chapter Six described the research design and methodology in response to the research objectives and questions on understanding the enactment of teaching and learning in NFEP programmes by educators. It discussed the qualitative design within the interpretive paradigm. In addition, the case-study approach was unpacked, in a way that showed its fit with the study aim. This was followed by an outline of the sampling frames (purposive and convenience) and how they guided the selection of the participating schools and the participants. The chapter proceeded to describe the data-generation methods (semi-structured interview, observation, document analysis) with particular attention to issues of trustworthiness (credibility, dependability, transferability, conformability), and ethical considerations (informed consent, confidentiality, withdrawal). Interviews, observations, and document analysis which were used for triangulation purposes were presented, as well as the data-analysis method. Last, the limitations of the study were explicated.

Chapter Seven provided insights into data presentation, analysis and interpretation concept. It described the process, with attention on how the data were to be treated, in order that measures of trustworthiness were maintained, leading to the transferability of the results. Likewise, the participants' profiles were availed for scrutiny in order to confirm the fit that existed between the participants and the research' goals. The chapter exhorted the use of the guided analysis, by the researcher conducting a qualitative study, in which themes are employed to address the research questions and objectives.

Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten were used for presenting, analysing and interpreting data. These three chapters formed the segmented approach for processing the data from individual programmes, in the school-model's enactment of teaching and learning. Each of these chapters discussed data at individual programme level. The individual programmes are: the Zimbabwe adult

basic education course (ZABEC); the part-time continuing education (PTCE programme and the functional literacy education (FLE) programme). Chapter Eight presented and discusses the first set of data on the educators' forms of enactments that addresses Research Question One, Chapter Nine focused on Research Question Two and finally, Question Three was answered by the its unique set of data, in Chapter Ten. The format was chosen, owing to the links with literature that the research questions formed in Chapters Two, Three and Four. The approach resulted in a systematic data presentation, analysis and interpretation that was guided by the dictates of each research question,

Chapter Eleven encapsulated the findings from the educators who enacted teaching and learning in the individual programmes of the NFEP school model. The findings became the inputs that the researcher needed for developing a holistic overview of the educators' forms of enactments, the approaches they used and the rationale for enacting teaching and learning in particular ways. By this undertaking, the school-model's teaching and learning phenomenon was given its form and unique nature, according to the research questions, the literature, and themes. The CHAT, as the theory that underpinned the study, was used to heighten an understanding of the findings.

Chapter Twelve closed the research study by presenting a summary of the findings and implications, based on the research questions of the study. It then proceeded to make recommendations, and constructed concluding remarks. The recommendations were expected to contribute valuable insights into ongoing debate about improving NFE. Globally, NFE is considered a viable alternative pathway to formal education, especially for out-of-school children, youths and adults.

1.10 Conclusion

This chapter presented the introduction and the background to the study. This was followed by the rationale of the study, and the problem statement that highlighted the gaps that prompted the study. Next to be discussed were the research questions, and the aims which acted as a guide to the study. The significance provided insight into the contribution of the study. This was followed by discussions on research methods, trustworthiness, and ethical considerations. Last, the chapter overview illuminated the content of each chapter, before concluding Chapter One. Above all, each of the twelve chapters was systematically used for presenting different aspects that combined, to

provide rich data that were needed to conduct a qualitative study, whose findings were required to be dependable (Creswell, 2009).

CHAPTER TWO: THEORISING NON-FORMAL EDUCATORS' FORMS OF ENACTMENT

2.1 Introduction

This study sought out to explore and understand non-formal educators' enactment of teaching and learning on Zimbabwe's NFEP (2015) programmes. The launch of the NFEP framework witnessed a proliferation of non-formal education classes at most schools. Although the government made it mandatory for schools to champion the transformation of non-formal education, the responsibility to do so, was placed squarely on hired formal school educators to enact teaching and learning, based on the FE curriculum. The study questioned what forms of enactment educators used, how they employed the enactments and the rationale for teaching in the particular ways they did. There was a gap of knowledge on the types of enactments that carried the hopes of NFE learners in a new era of the school-model.

This chapter presented the review of the literature on relevant research studies in order to understand the enactment phenomenon, for the purposes of generating theory to current debates in education. It included an analysis of what has been written and published about the theory of enactment, policy intentions (goals), knowledge forms (content), and accessibility to learning. The review of literature was conducted using the following themes: the nature of the three forms of enactment that frame the study, namely, the acknowledged, the communal, and the committed enactment of teaching and learning; forms of knowledge and the principles that frame them; as well as the accessibility construct as it applies to obtaining an education.. These theoretical concepts are incorporated into the literature review of the non-formal education policy, in an attempt to gain valuable insights into the nature of the non-formal education policy and the curriculum in-use. The theory and the concepts that were discussed in Chapters Two and Three and Four, altogether produced a constructed literature structure that was used to present the literature review for the study's theoretical framework, namely, the CHAT.

2.2 Understanding Education Policy Enactment

In the context of teaching and learning, Remillard and Heck (2014) state that enactment is a term that refers to a cognitive process that facilitates decision-making. Educators engage this system of

decision-making in order to shape the teaching activity. As such, enactment is a process of constructing reality that is based on thinking and action about what frames teaching and learning. Khoza (2016) says that a form of enactment epitomises “personal processes/actions stored in the teachers’/learners’ subconscious minds/thoughts, from which they draw in the teaching/learning environments” (p. 2). This suggests that the educators’ reflections are followed by a mapping out of the obstacle at hand and the action to take within the context of the problem, while keeping to the parameters of the initial preconception, (Weick, 1988), namely the form of or type of enactment to use to drive the teaching and learning. In education, for example, enactment, as a verb, generally involves the operational part of a particular body of knowledge, or the curriculum, as it interacts with the educators (Makumane, 2018; Ndlovu, 2016; Pyle, 2013; Segeren, 2016).

In her doctoral dissertation, Pyle (2013) explores the enactment of the kindergarten curriculum, following predisposed tensions between the prolonged dependencies on developmentally laid-down practices. The educators who had been to teach the intended curriculum based on academic knowledge expectations that emphasised knowledge and skills development. In other words, when an educator is guided by the curriculum, he or she is informed by content (Pinar, 2012). This indicates that the researcher failed to determine the form of enactment that were to drive the enactment of the ‘kindergartens’ teaching and learning thereby highlighting a gap that exists in some educators such that they teach without a knowledge of the type of enactment to guide their teaching. In a research that Khoza (2016) entitles ‘Is teaching without curriculum vision and goals a high risk?’ concurs that teachers who taught without a vision, also called a form of enactment were unable to control their teaching in a defined direction. This suggests forms of enactment provide the much needed guide in teaching and learning.

Mackey et al. (2019) state that enactment is a psychological sense-making approach that enables actors to engage in work in a predicted environment, and in ways which they would have psychologically created. This definition confirms that, in enactment, there is a psychological engagement in order to either confirm or change a preconception, since enactment is driven by a need. Operationally, enactment is a creative, self-initiated, and self-managed process, in which actors voluntarily work and solve problems, instead of having to follow routine work ethics (Mackey et al., 2019). Nolan (2018) conducted a study following perceptions that mathematics educators had been resistant to enact of measures that aimed at improving learners’ performance.

On the contrary, the researcher discovered that the educators were innovatively enacting policy. The results showed that the educators made sense of policy and, as a community of educators; they managed coherently to negotiate the multi-policies that confronted them. The findings suggested that, when educators are not aware of the forms of enactments, they summon their TPACKs to bail them out of the challenge of teaching without knowing their forms of enactments. The findings revealed a gap for this study that it was pertinent to explore the forms of enactments that educators use to enact teaching and learning in NFEP programmes in the school model that has been established in three schools in Masvingo District

Braun, Ball and Maguire (2011) state that enactment is a double process in which actors first interpret curriculum and then make translations across a wide range of contexts and practices. Terhoven (2016) posits that enactment denotes a process in which practices are given meaning. Braun, Ball and Maguire (2011) and Terhoven's (2016) definitions intimate that enactment is dependent on some other variables that influence the interpretations, translations, or meaning-making and enactment practices. Hence, the CHAT spells out that there is a mediation effect on the activity from the tools and artefacts. Maguire, Braun and Ball's (2015) revised definition encapsulates social, cultural, and emotional construction and interpretation of policy. This suggests that there could be more factors affecting enactment of teaching that the research needed to locate in the literature.

In a related study on enactment of equity policies, Segeren (2016) employed a qualitative case-study approach, in order to conduct interviews with six staff members of a school board and four school leaders, during which the researcher documented their practices while enacting the equity policy. The major finding was that there was a strong historically-oriented commitment to the practise of social justice in the schools, as well as the presence of barriers, such as the shortage of resources and a lack of accountability. The study revealed the historical form of enactment which was driven by past school practices, comprising known and recorded information. The social, and, more precisely, the historical factor, had shaped the enactment practice at schools in which the study was conducted. The study reveals an important characteristic of forms of enactments, that of driving teaching and learning. In addition, Khoza (2015) refers to such an enactment as the societal enactment, while van Manen (1977) calls it the communicative enactment, in which stakeholders are involved in imparting opinions on what is to be taught in schools.

The literature reveals that there are many other forms of enactment, such as the professional, societal, and personal (Khoza, 2015); and the technical, practical, and critical enactment (van Manen, 1977). Khoza (2016) further refers to enactment as visions. The importance of forms of enactments is the central role that affects educators' decisions in matters of enacting a curriculum/education initiative (Berkvens, Van den Akker & Brugman, 2014), such as the teaching of NFEF school-model programmes. Each form of enactment anchors the entire enactment process, as already alluded to by previous study such as Segeren' (2016) study. The above authors' rationale for making this assertion arises from the findings of a research by Khoza (2016). The research was premised on the critical question: "Is teaching without understanding curriculum visions and goals a high risk?" (p. 104).

This current study is framed on acknowledged, communal, and committed forms of enactment. These are terms that are identified with the legal/paralegal nature of policy contexts. The notion of enactment is the core of the study, since educators who do not understand their form(s) of enactment would face problems in identifying their teaching goals (Khoza, 2016). Therefore, there is justification for teaching that is based on an understanding of forms of enactment. When educators identify their forms of enactment, as part of teaching preparations, they will also be able to align such enactments with observable and/or measurable goals that can be measured (Khoza, 2016).

2.2.1 Acknowledged enactment

Acknowledged enactment is a way of 'doing' teaching in which educators reflect on their enactment practices, based on recognised organisational systems of education, also called disciplines. The acknowledged enactment process is framed by, above all, information that is prescribed in the policy documents, such as in curricula. Such information is there to guide and control the educators' enactment behaviour (Makumane, 2018). This indicates that there is a requirement by education authorities that educators respect the curriculum-in-use. Therefore, the acknowledged form of enactment is shaped by the contents of official documents and other related official texts, such as circulars, procedures manuals, and syllabi. Samuel (2009) indicates that educators also rely their existing theory of the discipline that characterises their personal identity. Educators must operate at the professional level (Wahyuni, 2012), based on the abundance of

information or knowledge that is within the educators (Hoadley and Jansen (2013). This is the ‘schooled’ knowledge, which is structured vertically (Khoza, 2016). The use of such documents and curricula brings with it responsibilities for the educator, such as ensuring that each subject is delivered with its own knowledge (Khoza, 2015). This indicates that learning is structured and controlled in sequenced modules and subjects and these are imposed on the learners, meaning that NFE educators would not have democratic freedom to learn what they want. Educators use this knowledge when their teaching is driven by the acknowledged enactment, adds Khoza (2016). Information for use in acknowledged enactment is available to the educators; but it may not be abundantly clear for them to understand. The diverse interpretations by educators are a normal part of the unfolding of the phenomenon (Sheik & Bagley, 2018). Alfrey et al.(2017) case study explored how three secondary-school educators co-constructed and enacted a new work initiative called ‘Take Action’ that was underpinned by critical inquiry approaches. The findings of this participatory study showed that the three educators co-constructed, translated, and enacted ‘Take Action’ processes., The findings revealed that acknowledged enactment processes produce different learning outcomes and that the teaching unfolded quite differently. The reasons for the differences are not given, probably because that was not part of the research mandate. However, this points out the unique features of enactments in which educators perform differently, with different outcomes. Therefore, an enactment study, such as this one was bound expose and recognises the differences in educators while also seeking to understand the intervening variables. The CHAT undergirds this study in order to provide guidance on the mediation that frames teaching and learning.

By way of the NFEP, which is a public policy, the government attempts to support the educators with content that guides teaching towards policy-goal attainment. The educator is not encouraged to look elsewhere for ‘unacknowledged’ information. In which case, the educator is supposed to satisfactorily enact teaching on the basis of the available goals, materials, time, and other resources that are made available. Van Manen (1977) posits that acknowledged enactment focuses on the efficiency of the educator to influence the accomplishment of set goals. In addition, Hobart and Frankel (2001) assert that an educator, who is informed by the acknowledged form of enactment, has ample facts or knowledge on which to base his or her enactment practice. Therefore, educators become aware of their teaching profession’s requirements, gain an understanding the reasons for enacting teaching, while ensuring compliance that there is alignment with knowledge that was

learned during professional training in the discipline, adds Khoza (2015). Therefore, acknowledged enactment is a systematic goal-directed approach, in which objectives become the basis for decisions relating to the selection of materials, content, enactment strategies, and assessment activities (Makumane, 2018). This indicates that, when the NFEP programme educators enact teaching and learning, it has to be based on appropriate decisions, thereby highlighting the need for one to possess the discipline's TPACK that leads to a methodical approach. In order to achieve such a systematic approach to enactment, Tyler (1949) suggests three components, which are: continuity, sequence, and integration. For instance, other forms of enactments need to integrate with the acknowledge enactment in order to support the attainment of other learner needs, based on sound knowledge of the other forms of enactment. In the next section, the focus is on the committed enactment, as another form of enactment that drives teaching.

2.2.2 Communal enactment

The communal enactment is referred to by several names which all focus on addressing the needs of a community. Examples are from Khoza (2016) who refers to the communal enactment as the social or societal enactment, while van Manen (1977) calls it the practical approach. Mabuza (2018) terms it a public approach and to Bernstein (1999), it is the horizontal form of enactment. The communal enactment focuses on issues and problems that affect the community (Van den Akker et al., 2009), in which the community must create a new reality that addresses real problems (Khoza, 2009), affecting the community. This suggests that the educators' teaching strategies and content are influenced by the needs of the community (Budden, 2016).

When driven by the communal enactment, the educator places the community needs at the centre, and regards the community as the social space in which community members share information. The content, activities and in fact, the nature of the teaching must be represent the aspirations of society (Makumane, 2018). This suggests that when educators enact teaching in a community of rural farmers, a communal enactment would be used to drive teaching that meets the farmers need for agriculture related competences. On a similar note, Turkkahraman (2012) urges educators using the communal enactment to be aware of the existing relationship between education and society. This indicates that most that educators need to accept and understand the issues that prevail

in the school environmental (Budden, 2016). Therefore, educators must respond to community needs in terms of providing competencies that address socio-economic development needs, for example through functional-literacy education. This illustrates that community issues have an influence on teaching and learning. In addition, with the needs of the community in mind, educators should become mindful of creating the right teaching and learning environment. The communal enactment is therefore, guided by the needs of the community for skills (Khoza, 2016). Furthermore, Ngubane-Mokiwa and Khoza (2016) emphasise that the communal enactment is achievement-oriented. This, therefore, implies engaging a system of learning whose interests are in results that must be observable and measurable. Such a system is desirable in an environment that thrives on practical skills for solving problems leading to improved standards of living. In this study, competence is defined as the ability to do something well or effectively. Competence has to do with the demands of a job or the ability to perform specific work functions (Makulova et al., 2015), such as farming, marketing, and accounting. Competencies are needed by most entrepreneurs in developing countries, like Zimbabwe and South Africa.

The communal enactment, which van Manen (1977) calls the practical enactment, is unique in that it is framed by teaching activities that must lead to an education that enhances the abilities of community members to solve problems, where the reasons become socially acceptable (Khoza, 2015). According to Mabuza (2018), communal enactment is characterised by “student-centred learning activities that are rooted in constructivists’ principles with emphasis on learning, rather than teaching” (p. 92). This suggests that the facilitation of learning must demonstrate that theory can be implemented (Brookfields, 1986), which advocates a hands-on teaching and learning approach for the NFE learners. Educators, who are enacting teaching based on the communal approach, must do so with the foresight that will lead to the application of competences within the community. This indicates that the education that is driven by the communal enactment uses realistic examples and demonstration of the skills being taught. This shows that the educators focus on the learning needs of the community and at individual learner needs when they impart required skills.

In his contribution, Garrett (2008) comments that the communal enactment is a learner-centred approach that places emphasis on inquiry and authentic activities. This points to enactment that

resonates with participatory methodology, in which activities such as role playing, simulation and demonstration, are commonly used.

“... the emphasis in adult education is on experiential techniques—techniques that tap into the experience of the learners, such as group discussions, simulation exercises, problem solving activities, case methods, and laboratory methods instead of transmittal techniques. And greater emphasis is placed on peer-helping activities” (Knowles, Holton III & Swanson, 2005, p. 66).

Therefore, the educator becomes responsible for choosing which method will suit which circumstances, based contextual factors. Keddie (2017) conducted a study that revealed the following matters of the context of enactment; name the situated, professional, material and external factors. The researcher contends that most crucial factor is the professional factor of which educators need to be endowed with their discipline’s TPACK. Then each educator can be able to drive teaching based on an informed decision. The current educators could attain the communal enactment’s learning outcomes more efficiently, with a little more professionalism that derives from a good grounding in the NFE TPACK. .

In support is Knowles (1980), who is recognised as the father of andragogy (the art of helping adults learn), together with a host of other participatory methodology protagonists, such as Brookfields (1986); Jarvis (2009); Freire (1970), argue for the use of participatory methods that empower NFE learners and educators simultaneously, as they work and learn together.

The implication for the communal enactment in NFEP teaching and learning is that enactments will be strengthened as educators reflect, not only on their roles and activities, but also on the role of the learner.. The committed enactment is the last to be presented in this section.

2.2.3 Committed enactment

According to Khoza (2016), individual educators need to understand their form of teaching enactment in order to identify relevant goals. When the educators understand their committed enactment goals, they can use them to drive teaching effectively, based on the perspective of personal motivation. The committed enactment is the form of enactment through which educators attend to their educational needs when teaching and learning. It is also referred to as the habitual, individual, personal, or critical enactment. Van Manen (1977) traces how educators develop a

committed enactment; and addresses this issue by stating that the committed enactment is a product of a reflective process in which an educator seeks the knowledge, beliefs and practices that dominate his or her particular way of teaching. These attributes will frame the decisions that the educators make in relation to teaching and learning (Khoza, 2009). The committed enactment places the educator at the core of the teaching and learning activities. Educators can use the opportunity to develop a unique environment for themselves as well as the learners. In this environment, the educators and the learners will develop their own particular identities.

Therefore, it is argued that, when educators are driven by a committed enactment, they are likely to reveal their encounters in teaching and learning as mediated by social interactions within their environments. Makumane (2018) provides a response regarding what exactly the educators will be committed to, by highlighting the importance of personal meanings that frame each form of knowledge that each individual educator possesses. Based on one's knowledge and experience of the social environment which each educator has assimilated, he or she is able to construct and reconstruct an individualised identity that has been facilitated by the process of self-introspection (Khoza, 2015). The educators and the learners will, therefore, create the best environment for themselves; and likewise, they will take ownership and become loyal to the brand of teaching and learning and knowledge that they construct. Furthermore, Berkvens et al. (2014) point out that the committed enactment contributes to quality in teaching, when the educator's identity is grounded on passion and the need to excel or to gain satisfaction. However, it is prudent to heed van Manen's (1977) assertion that contextual factors play an important part in shaping the identities of educators, as also supported by Killen (2007). The committed-enactment influences cannot be boxed into a classroom setting. The author argues that an awareness of the 'life of the community', namely, the moral and social issues, is also a source of committed enactment and practices. Educators who are driven by the committed enactment draw their uniqueness from their interaction with the environment. Makumane (2018) observes that each individual interacts differently with his or her environment. Through these personalised interactions, educators are able to develop their own views on curriculum enactment, while developing own identities, which include assuming greater responsibility and accountability (Sowell, 2000).

However, as is characteristic of this enactment process, in which interpretations and reinterpretations and reconstructions of meanings are a common feature (Sheikh & Bagley, 2018),

the educator and the group of learners will define and redefine their teaching and learning, according to prevailing circumstances. The knowledge that is generated from the search for meanings becomes a unique component of their identities. According to Khoza (2016), the educators and learners will always identify themselves with these committed enactments; and will use their existent knowledge to understand and solve personal and societal problems that they will face.

Khoza (2016) further observes that committed enactments play two critical roles in the lives of the educators and the learners. Since committed enactments are a result of knowledge that has been constructed from diverse contexts and experiences, this knowledge becomes the basis on which incumbents (educators and learners) understand themselves and predict the future of social problems. Khoza (2016) says that the committed enactment is the basis for the adoption of other forms of enactment. In which case, educators may choose to enact teaching from the acknowledged and communal enactments, based on the influence of the personal identity. Several other researchers, among them, Cimer, Cimer and Vekli (2013); Schon (1983), and Susanto (2015), state that some of the benefits that accrue to educators who constantly reflect on their enactments are: to develop three important attributes, namely: open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness; and to critically analyse problems and to proffer solutions.

The committed form of enactment also represents a transformative process that has important effects on determining both quality of the enactment process and effectiveness of teaching and learning. For example, in the committed enactment of basic literacy education, the educator must constantly reflect on the intentions of the programme, one's perspective of enactment as to whether or not the teaching is effective as well as finding the reasons, together with appropriate solutions. The solution may lie in the reconstruction of the goals for the committed enactment, so that the acknowledged and communal enactment goals of are also accommodated (Khoza, 2016).

The discussions on forms of enactment have shown the influence of the various types of enactment on teaching and learning. The literature has helped to clarify that enactments determine who or what is placed at the core of the teaching and learning. The acknowledged enactment emphasises discipline knowledge and the ability of the educator to influence the performance of the learners (van Manen, 1977). The committed enactment focuses on the educator driving the process of teaching and learning that creates personal identities for educators and learners (Khoza, 2015).

Finally, the communal enactment places the learner at the heart of the teaching and learning that promotes societal needs (Schiro, 2013), by putting society at the centre. However, enactment is a complex process (Alfrey et al., 2017) in which defining decisions are made that depend on the plausible effective of each link of the chain that comprises curriculum and CHAT elements. However, it is important to illustrate the positioning of the forms of enactments, using Figure 2.1, below:

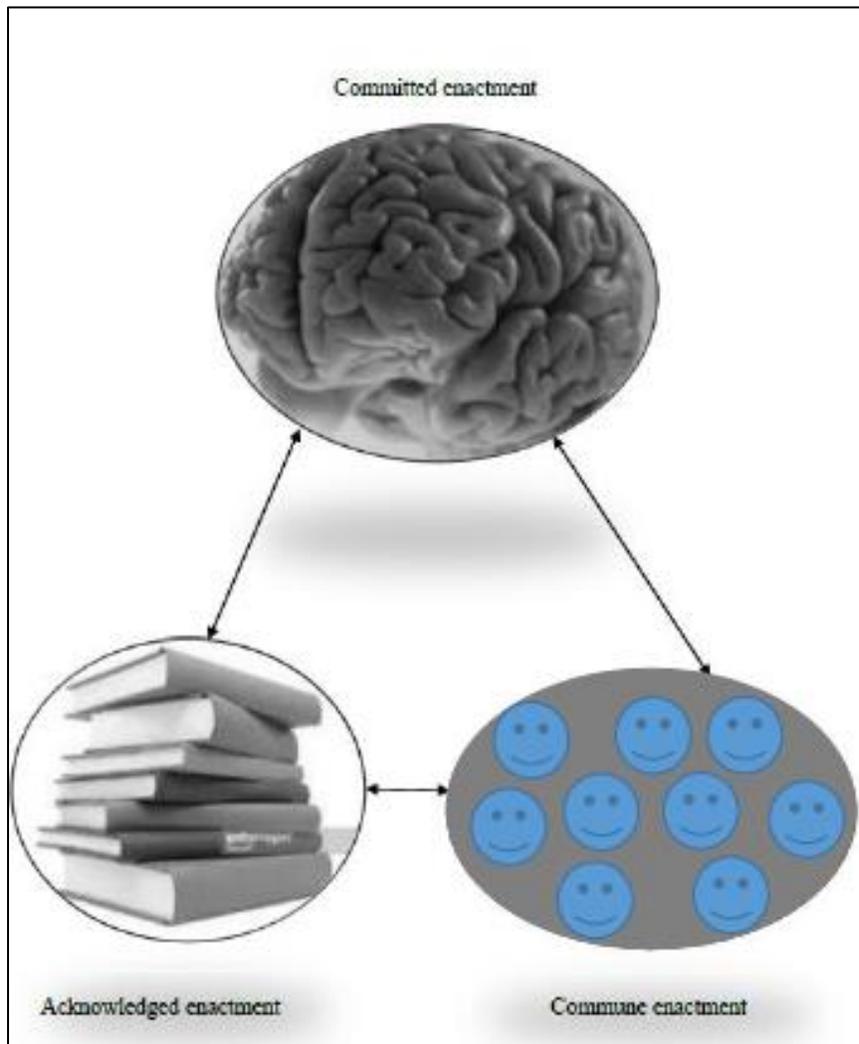


Figure 2.1: Forms of enactment (Author's origination)

In Figure 2.1 are found the three forms of enactment from the literature of the study, namely, the committed, the communal, and the acknowledged forms of enactments. The committed enactment is represented by the mind (brain), which is the hub of all enacting decisions (Khoza, 2016); the

communal enactment is represented by the community members who are at the focal point of the enacted activity (Bernstein, 1999); and the acknowledged enactment is framed by the profession's content (van Manen, 1977) and such content is commonly stored in books. Furthermore, the committed form of enactment is framed by, above all, an educator's personal technologies (Khoza, 2016). This is an intangible resource that is characterised by the educator's personal identity, which is founded on personal encounters in life. This suggests that all the three types of learning, namely the formal, non-formal and informal, leave their mark in a person's brain. Budden (2017) explicates these life experiences as ideas, beliefs, teaching and learning theories that are influenced by factors such as family, educational systems, and the world at large. An educator's personal identity manifests in the enactments becoming applicable to the goals of a teaching programme.

Figure 2.1, also depicts the power relationships that exist among the three forms of enactment for this study, in which the committed enactment is perched above the acknowledged and the communal forms of enactments. The rationale is that the committed enactment is the fount for all teaching decisions (Khoza, 2015). The committed form of enactment is represented by the educator's brain. Similarly, the acknowledged enactment is characterised by professional knowledge from the discipline's books. The acknowledged form of enactment drives the teaching and learning, based on goals that promote academic growth. Last, but not least, is the communal enactment which educators use to drive teaching that addresses the needs of the community, as represented by the 'masses', the community. Each form of enactment may be used to roll out teaching and learning, according to the educators' understanding of the goals of the programme.

2.3 Conclusion

Chapter Two explored literature that interrogated Research Question: What forms of enactment do educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes at selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe? Accordingly, the chapter first explored the meaning of enactment as it relates to education policy enactment. It then conducted a review of literature using the following criterion of the forms of enactment: the nature of the three forms of enactment that frame the study, namely, the acknowledged, the communal, and the committed enactment of teaching and learning. It reviewed existing studies in order to be appraised of how educators view and use the three forms of enactment to drive teaching and learning in schools. Chapter Three explores

specific concepts that facilitate the enactment of teaching and learning. The chapter discusses education curriculum concepts that influence enactment practices. It also presents some analytic perspectives of the concepts based on case studies from the international, regional, and local contexts. .

CHAPTER THREE: POLICY CONCEPTS INFORMING NON-FORMAL EDUCATION POLICY ENACTMENTS

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on relevant literature that was used to understand the enactment phenomenon. This phenomenon became pivotal in establishing three types of enactment that apply to NFEP's programmes enactments. These were the acknowledged, communal, and committed enactments. Chapter Three seeks to address Research Question Two, which reads: How do educators enact teaching and learning in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe? It explores the literature on policy concepts that have a direct and distinct impact on teaching and learning in the NFEP's school-model programmes. Specifically, the discourse focuses on policy concepts: policy enactment resources/tools, policy knowledge also called content, accessibility to teaching and learning, and educator activities and roles. The discussion opens with a section on debunking policy concepts. This background conceptualisation of policy concepts is important to this study, which primarily seeks to understand what informs the enactment of teaching and learning in the school-model, as presented below

3.2 Education policy concepts-unbundled

This section explores the universal education curriculum concepts that are used to conceptualise the debate on NFEP programmes enactment, in order to understand what informs educators' enactment practices. The choice of the concepts has been influenced by literature that frames all systematically organised teaching and learning that responds to a curriculum (Kelly, 2009). Both formal education (in-school education) and non-formal education (out-of-school learning) are characterised by a curriculum which is supported by a syllabus, a course of study/studies, programme of study and module, adds Kelly (2009). Therefore, non-formal education draws from identical curriculum theory and practise.

Figure 3.1 on Dartboarding curriculum concepts illustrates the similarities in the borrowing of concepts and universalising of education theory. Most adaptations of curriculum content that have been done for formal education and non-formal education purposes, are based on van den Akker's (2009) curriculum spider web. The same concepts, which have been deemed to be reliable concepts

(Khoza, 2015), are adopted for use in the enactment of teaching and learning in NFEP programmes in the school model.

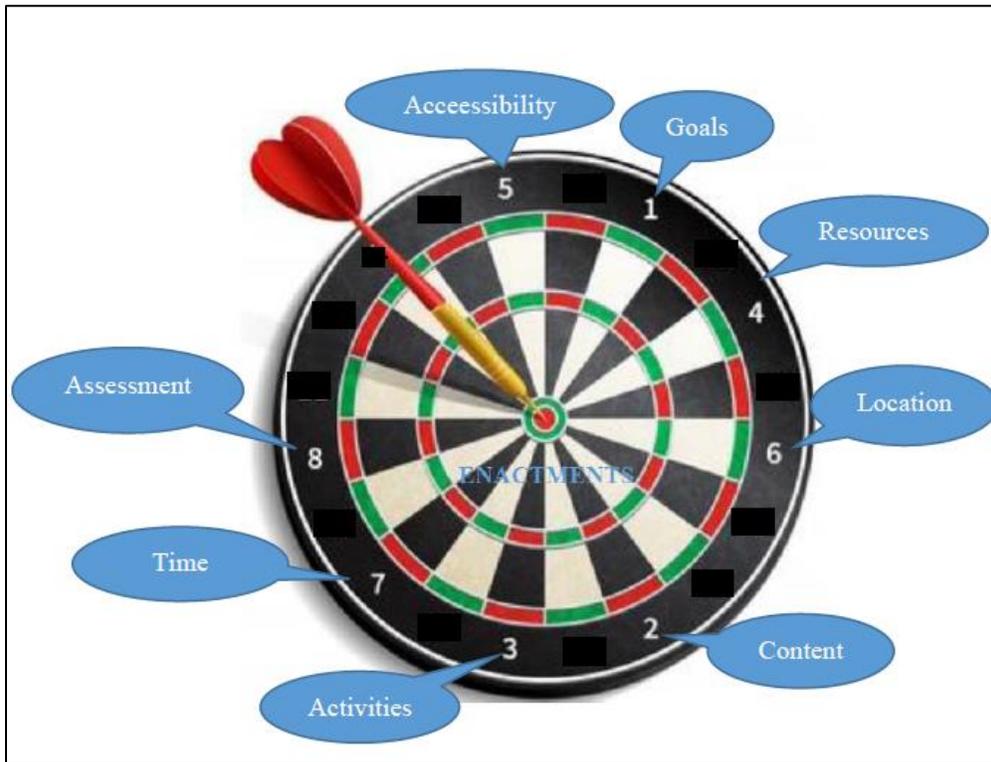


Figure 3.1: Dartboarding curriculum concepts

Nine concepts are shown in Figure 3.1 in the form a dartboard. The dartboard is the teaching and learning phenomenon. The forms of enactment occupy the centre circle (the bull's eye), with all other components (concepts) converging on the centre. Hence, all teaching decisions are influenced by enactments (Khoza, 2015). The forms of enactment determine what each segment of the dartboard will contribute towards the activity's result (outcome). Visualise a darts player who needs to score a century of points. The player will decide which numbers to aim at so as to gross up the points. Therefore, accurately hitting a segment with twenty points will earn the player that number of points. When using a curriculum, the educator needs to be aware of the influence of the concepts towards the achievement of the teaching and learning outcome. Similarly, an understanding of the curriculum concepts facilitates the use and alignment of the concepts with the teaching and learning activity (the phenomenon). Khoza (2016) posits that educators should ensure that they understand forms of enactment for teaching and learning in order to make

consistent decisions that are aligned with the concepts of the spider web. The unnumbered segments signify that there is room for more forms of enactment that could be used to drive teaching and learning in future.

Van den Akker (2009) is a curriculum-theory protagonist who introduced a spider web, as a representation of curriculum concepts. The strands of the spider web have to stay in their place and provide the strength that keeps the web held together in order to produce the desired effect, that of an insect trap. The rationale for the use of curriculum concepts is to produce a curriculum that is balanced, consistent, and can sustain teaching and learning. Furthermore, van den Akker et al. (2010) state that the curriculum concepts must link and support teaching and learning in the same metaphorical vision of a chain, which can only be as strong as its weakest link. In a guided analysis of the function of each curriculum concept as a link to the others, Van den Akker (2009) and Berkvens et al. (2014) propose a guide for educators to consider when enacting an education policy. Makumane (2018) paraphrases the guide by asking the following questions: “Towards which goals are you teaching? (aims and objectives); What are you teaching? (content); Which activities/tasks do you propose when teaching? (teaching activities); Which resources do you use while teaching? (materials and resources); How is teaching accessed? (accessibility); Where are you teaching? (location); When are you teaching? (time); and How do you assess learning? (assessment)” (p. 75).

The study adopted the key concepts and adapted them in order to develop a conceptual framework for the literature that is aligned with the context of NFEP teaching enactment language and culture. This alignment was bound to influence a coherent system of the enactment of teaching and learning. These concepts are: policy intentions (goals), knowledge (content), activities, space, tools (resources), roles, time, evaluation (assessment), and learners. These are the concepts that drive this study. These concepts are contextualised within the educators’ use of the acknowledged, communal, and committed forms of enactment. The study is guided by the research study’s three critical questions that must be addressed in order to improve teaching and learning of NFEP programmes in the school model. Every curriculum concept is important for enacting teaching and learning. Commenting on the list of concepts, Tyler (1949) avers that intentions/goals are a priority in terms of understanding the theory of curriculum practise, on the rationale that intentions open up the space for all other concepts to complete the enactment process. The key question is: What

educational purposes should the school seek to attain? Due care and attention must therefore, be taken to ensure that learning intentions are clear, so that learners achieve their intentions/goals (Khoza, 2016).

3.2.1 Policy content

Hoadley and Jansen (2013); Khoza (2015); Villegas and Lucas (2002) explain policy knowledge, also called content, as a collection of facts, principles, and theories that are to be taught/learned. Similarly, Grossman and Stodolsky (1994), state that the source of the policy or curriculum content is the discipline of the programme that is being enacted and it is the responsibility of the discipline to protect its content. This is important to do, considering that content is used for informing the learners and that the learners should become future custodians of the discipline, endowed with expert knowledge. Quality knowledge should therefore, be developed from defined policy intentions that are transparent, credible, and consistent (Adam, 2006). The quality of the knowledge/content should match that of the policy intentions and should be transparent, credible and consistent, so that learners receive quality, relevant education. However, Adam (2006) does not explain the source of policy knowledge, except to infer that this domain is a preserve of the policymakers to decide on. Education policy documents such as the curriculum should include the content or at least the topics to be covered. The findings from a study by Mubika and Bukayila (2011) on the implementation of the education for all policy in Zimbabwe, illustrate what happens when a community, as a stakeholder, is not consulted on the goals of teaching and the content. The enacted content and the one that the community expected were not aligned. The outcome was that the enacted policy failed to address the needs of the community. Although it is not standard practice formal education institutions to divulge their content, non-formal education systems have to reflect and re-examine their positions so that they reduce the risk of becoming irrelevant by imposing learning goals on the learners.

Accordingly, Van den Akker et al. (2010) pose the question concerning what the learners are learning. The question provokes policy makers, content developers and educators to engage the community as a key stakeholder, in agreeing on what the learners should learn. These are gaps that enactment research needs to address so that teaching and learning contributes to socio-economic development needs of the community, by embracing various facets of life. Ornstein and Hoskins

(2009), therefore, contend that policy content would be helpful in upholding the beliefs, attitudes, and skills of a particular communal, acknowledged, and committed form of enactment. In communal enactment, policy content is readily available in the community, for the educator and the community to use. Bernstein (1999) refers to such knowledge as horizontal knowledge. This knowledge is segmentally organised. It is this type of content that is fit for addressing problems of a specific part of society. The content may not be universal, but is useful for improving competencies for a specific purpose. In a study analysing the content of NFEP programmes offered in Africa, conducted by Adediran and Onifade (2013), the findings were that the thrust depended on the needs of the learners. This presumes that policymakers have articulated the goals well and have communicated them to the community and its pool of educators. The dilemma of a failure to include educators in the adjudication of the content, for example, may lead to educators making adjustments to the content. In the same vein, Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) accept that there are factors leading to adjustments in the intended content, such as the incapacity of educators to understand policy knowledge. This study argues for the deployment of qualified educators to enact NFEP programmes. In addition, educators need to be aware that the intended content is essential in the formation of a foundation for the next levels of knowledge (Singh, 2002).

Van den Akker et al. (2010) state that educators must be versed in enactment reasons, which they should use in order to obtain the commitment of the community in supporting education. Braun, Maguire and Ball (2011), in their study on policy enactment in United Kingdom schools, show the complex nature of the job of educators when enacting policy, as follows:

“In consequence, schools and teachers are expected to be familiar with, and able to implement multiple (and sometimes contradictory) policies that are planned for them by others, while they are held accountable for this task” (p. 547).

The complexity of enacting a discipline’s content is also reflected in the study’s findings, bearing in mind the hopes of a quality education that meets the desired outcomes. It is also observed that what is missing in the study is how the educators transform policy into content that becomes enactable. Therefore, a gap exists in the enactment of the NFEP programmes on how the current team of educators in this exploratory study, translates a formal education curriculum to address non-formal education learners’ needs.

This is a valid observation owing to the fact that the knowledge that educators transmit will also be used to reinforce the construction of personal identities of the learners.. Content strengthens the development of educators' and learners' personal identities, based on content influences new ways of thinking and enacting (Khoza, 2016; Makumane, 2018). Educators should be in possession of the necessary content that benefits their learners and society.

The lack of content will result in a situation that negatively affects the educators and learners, when educators fail to deliver credible information in a coherent manner. Teaching and learning are then compromised in terms of quality and relevance. Policymakers must share the policy content with educators so that they obtain up-to-date content and pedagogical skill that facilitate positive change (Alfery, O'Connor & Jeanes, 2017).

There are educators who may lack adequate content, such as the unqualified educators that institutions engage in many parts of Africa (Mukeredzi, 2009). In a study A related study by Meeran (2017) – a case study of five educators exploring the influence of new curriculum policies when teaching mathematics, revealed that the educators were stressed by trying to cope with the new content. Although he studies that were reviewed in this research did not reveal the importance of efforts to capacitate educators, a study by Mabuto and Chipatiso (2013) that investigated declining enrolments in adult non-formal education programmes showed that, in some cases, educators are aware of their knowledge and skill deficiencies, but may lack either the money or the motivation to address the gap. It is against this background that findings of this study may be used to persuade MoPSE to capacitate its educators Khedinga (2014) concurs that often educators, as key stakeholders and transmitters of the content to the learners, have been known to misalign the content that would have been planned by stakeholders with what they practise; since content is the foundation of the teaching-learning process that drives the change in the learners (Alfrey et al., 2017; Braun, Maguire and Ball, 2011). Above all, educators rely on an official body of knowledge, which is the curriculum, to design and develop learning programmes, teaching strategies, allocation of resources, lesson/module plans, and how to assess the learners (van den Akker et al. 2010).

On a similar note, Egan (2003) maintains that “almost anything to do with education seemed to be encompassed in the notion of what it meant to “do” curriculum” (p. 17). Wen-Su (2013) provides

an insight into what it is to enact teaching when the curriculum's content provides links between the established official plans and the experiences of the learners. When educators enact education policy, they engage in a process of social, cultural, and emotional construction and interpretation (Maguire, Ball & Braun, 2011). This is a complex process of sense-making in which educators encounter challenges with enacting the content of the curriculum in use. One way of overcoming this problem is through ensuring that schools are provided with content that is worth learning, and is well presented, in order to assist educators to attain the desired education outcomes (Wraga, 2017). This suggests that, for example in Zimbabwe, the MoPSE must prioritise raising educators' awareness of the key components of the body of knowledge from which to develop and enact meaningful experiences for the learners, namely the curriculum. The components which have dominated teaching and learning are purposes (aims and objectives), experiences (content), methods, and evaluations (van den Akker et al. 2010), indicating that there is no need to re-invent the wheel. Kliebard (1970) and Wraga (2017) remark that the starting point and the most critical step in developing content is provided by Tyler's (1949) rationale. This remark is in recognition of the systematic way that Tyler adopted. Infact, Tyler's rationale states that the first step sets up the purpose of education, followed by selecting content, teaching activities and evaluation criteria. Therefore, it becomes critical for content developers to identify the goals of education programmes from which the body of knowledge will evolve. Khoza (2016) reveals some insights that guide understanding of the 'types' of curriculum. These are discussed below under the content layering concept.

3.2.1.1 Content layering

Content layering refers to the structuring of the content. Khoza (2016) points out that societal perception of the nature and role of education have a major influence on development of a comprehensive body of knowledge, instruction, and research that addresses problems at the core of education. In support is Wraga (2017), who opines that society will contribute conceptions of education which are the experiences of society, and are a major source of educational objectives. Khoza (2016) then suggests that a curriculum may be represented by three main layers, based on major players, as follows:

Intended content: The first layer (representation) is the intended, planned, prescribed, official, or formal curriculum, which is a written policy of ideas framed by an educational vision with goal/s as well as intentions of the teaching/learning curriculum (belonging to curriculum designers/developers).

Enacted content: The second layer is implemented, enacted, or practised curriculum, also known as curriculum in action (Khoza, 2015b), which is the interpretation of the intended curriculum as perceived by teachers; and the actual process of teaching in operation (belongs to teachers).

Attained content: The third layer is the attained, achieved, or assessed curriculum; which is the learning experiences perceived by learners as measured through their achievement of learning outcomes (belongs to learners) (Khoza, 2015, p. 105-106). This is termed the experiential or the learned curriculum (Shoba, 2018).

The essence of Khoza's (2016) layering of policy knowledge highlights the complexity of the context of enacting policy knowledge by educators, with each layer influencing the enactment process in one way or another. These three domains influence how policy knowledge is perceived, designed, developed, and enacted. The researcher perceives a challenge that educators may face when enacting content that has been put in layers, that of designing their own teaching plans and strategies that enrich the personal experiences of learners. The advice to educators is that their plans must be driven by forms of enactment, namely the communal, committed, and acknowledged enactment (Khoza, 2016). In which case, the educators should connect the content to classroom practise, and of maintain an alignment that ensures that learning outcomes are achieved (Meyers & Nulty, 2008). The assertion by Meyers and Nulty is that the educators' forms of enactment ensure that the various aspects of teaching are mutually supportive of one another in dispersing the entire content. This suggests that an educator summons their TPACK to ensure the alignment of the content with, for example, Tyler's (1949) rationale, as a way of achieving learning outcomes.

Likewise, the foregoing discourse calls for a systematic identification of the types of knowledge that should be taught and learned. The forms of knowledge that influence learners' cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills development are discussed. Bernstein (1999) contributes a response that reveals the types of knowledge that characterise knowledge. Two forms of knowledge are determined by their ideology or functions of the knowledge in education: "one form

is sometimes referred to as school(ed) knowledge and the other as everyday common-sense knowledge, or ‘official’ and ‘local’ knowledge” (Bernstein, p. 158). These forms of knowledge are termed the vertical (school) knowledge, which focuses on learners’ academic performance; and the horizontal (common-sense knowledge) which addresses the community’s competence requirements (Khoza, 2018). Each knowledge system is therefore, endowed with its own distinct set of values and intentions, which are discussed below.

3.2.1.2 Horizontal knowledge system

The horizontal knowledge system (HKS) represents everyday or common-sense knowledge (Khoza, 2018). In support, Makumane (2018) views horizontal knowledge as opinions that are usually non-factual and oral, largely dependent on tacit inferences that are common in a particular society. The HKS frames the communal policy enactment, where there are common types of ‘knowledges’ that generally relate to the lives of all members, including the learners (Ndlovu, 2015). This suggests that communities have common features, such as a shared history of problems and solutions.

Bernstein (1999) describes the features of the HKS as follows, “it is likely to be oral, local, context dependent and specific, tacit, multi-layered, and ‘contradictory’ across but not within contexts” (p. 159). Included in the set of features is that the HKS is context-specific. Ololube (2012) and Tudor (2017) agree with Bernstein, adding that horizontal knowledge is intended to address social requirements, and that the knowledge will differ from community to community. However, Bernstein (1999) seems to be conflicted in depicting the horizontal knowledge system as ‘contradictory’ in its outlook, the term having connotations of negativity and inconsistency. Instead, what characterises the HKS is its diversity. Different communities, therefore, have different needs and, ultimately, different forms of indigenous knowledge. Nonetheless, within the same discourse, Bernstein (1999) seems to accede to the use of horizontal forms of content, which he describes as:

“Contextually specific and ‘context dependent’, embedded in on-going practices, usually with strong affective loading, and directed towards specific, immediate goals, highly relevant to the acquirer in the context of his/her life” (p. 161).

This is content that is founded on the HKS which suits non-formal education since it is tailored to meet a particular community's knowledge and skills needs. In a study that examined pastoralists' education in Uganda, Owiny (2006) discovered that there was need for record-keeping and livestock-management education. In a different context, Ruto (2004) conducted a study on the contribution of non-formal schools' provision of basic education to Kenya. In another study, Ruto (2004) discovered that the learners wished to pursue remedial non-formal education. These findings demonstrate that different contexts encounter unique community problems, which are addressed by specific and different horizontal forms of knowledge. Horizontal forms of knowledge are therefore, not to be generalised to other contexts, but are appropriate and effective at the local context. Localised strategies and resources are adopted in order for education to deliver maximum benefit to individuals and the community. The HKS is thus applied in order to service specific education needs of communities, as has been discussed.

In addition, the HKS is further elaborated on in this study, in an effort to develop a deeper understanding of the forms of knowledge systems among educators, for their effective use. Bernstein (1999); Khoza, 2016; Makumane, 2018) state that the HKS is characterised by learning which is mostly influenced by opinions, local, everyday, or general knowledge, and oral conversation. The researchers refer to the sources of information as being simple and local. However, by these remarks, the researchers allude to the reality that, in Africa, for example, these sources are likely to be the communities' indigenous knowledge 'experts'. However, these local reservoirs of knowledge are not 'certified', according to international standards that are set by discipline experts. Most western-oriented organisations in some African countries like South Africa and Zimbabwe do not fully recognise the contribution of indigenous knowledge systems and practices in education. It is only recently that environmental education is borrowing the expertise of indigenous knowledge experts relating to climatology.

The HKS principles promote learning that should equip learners with competencies and skills for a productive life within the community (Schiro, 2013). The system prioritises the use of behavioural goals that promote the development of psychomotor skills. When teaching is directed at achieving behavioural intentions, educators will need to adopt various activities that enable learners to acquire and master the skills (Ndlovu, 2016). Educators will need to design clear, good-quality intentions that will articulate the competencies that the learners will acquire. When

educators choose clear outcomes, they will be able to guide their learners to an agreed destination; and both parties will know that they have arrived. It is for this reason that Khoza (2015) argues that the focus of the learning should be on the attainment of agreed competencies stated in the outcomes. Bernstein (1999) describes an ideal teaching and learning process in HKS as one that is activated through representations of the contexts in which the learners live. This highlights the need for educators to provide familiar learning experiences in order to motivate the learners. In the absence of the features of the original segment, Bernstein advises educators to demonstrate the problem. However, given the abundance of terms in this era, video films will be of great help.

Behavioural intentions must be stated clearly in order that the expected behaviours are specified (Tyler, 1949). In addition, the knowledge should be chosen carefully and integrated with other related horizontal knowledge and skills (Bernstein, 1999). This action enables educators to focus on evaluation in order to measure accurately what the learners have achieved, and not what they should have achieved (Khoza, 2016). With specific reference to HKS, Makumane (2018) reiterates the point that the evaluation is about competencies achieved from the common knowledge resources used. The evaluation's focus on the use of HKS augurs well for the expectations of the community that would have participated in knowledge gathering (van den Akker, 2009). The community then makes its own judgments on what the education system should have been able to do, regarding equipping its members with specific skills for handling prevailing community problems. Evaluation must reveal the competencies that are currently needed, in order to create a community that will function better than the current one (Schiro, 2013), and not the competencies that should have been obtained. The community will praise the learners for the competencies they have obtained, not their performance on the content, as is the practice in vertical knowledge systems of learning (Khoza, 2015, 2016). Next to be discussed is the vertical knowledge system (VKS).

3.2.1.3 Vertical knowledge system

Bernstein (1999) posits that the ideology of a vertical knowledge system is control and domination. The VKS arena is characterised by “strong distributive rules regulating access, regulating transmission and regulating evaluation” (p. 159). The implications of such a statement are many and varied, when subjected to contextualised sense-making (Bergh, Hultman, & Loftdahl Englund,

2018). Nonetheless, to some extent, the ideology suggests that, in the institutions that enact the VKS there are some control mechanisms, in order to safeguard the interests of the owners of the education institutions. Although these rules might differ from institution to institution, the ideology suggests that the rules must be strong, and must be adhered to. Some of the institutional rules focus on the selection of candidates who show the potential to earn good grades. In today's competitive environment, good performances create a good reputation for the institutions, both locally, and globally. A good name is an asset of the school, in that illustriousness attracts learners.

The VKS ideology specifies that transmission be regulated. There should be regulations about teaching type of content, method of teaching, when, with what, and why. Institutions must operate with policies and procedures in place that guide educators' conduct and practise. This goes for such areas as the quality of work plans/syllabuses/schemes, in order to ensure that the plans provide for all key areas that assessment must cover. If the plans, for example, include mock examinations and tests, these are to be enforced in anticipation of preparing the learners adequately for national/international assessments. Although Ndlovu (2016) indicates that educators using the VKS have control of their teaching, the VKS ideology implies that the authorities are to oversee the teaching. Educators must expect to be guided by policies, as is the case with the introduction, in South Africa, of the Curriculum and Policy Statement (2012) and in Zimbabwe, of the National Non-Formal Education Policy (2015). These are instruments designed in order to guide teaching, learning, and assessment.

Bernstein (1999) describes the VKS as "coherent, explicit and systematically principled structure, hierarchically organised as in sciences..." (p. 159). The implementation of the ideology would result in a system of learning that becomes a source of quality education. Khoza (2019) views the VKS as a theory of performance; Hoadley and Jansen (2013) call it a facts-driven structure of learning; Makumane (2018) labels it a performance-based curriculum; while van den Akker et al. (2009) describe the VKS as sequences of learning content which can be arranged either linearly, stepped, or concentrically. Last, Mabuza (2018) refers to VKS as a structured system whose idea is to offer learners a carefully planned learning environment, with highly organised teaching activities, instructional tools, time, and pedagogy for use by educators. These perspectives indicate that VHS is viewed positively, based on perceptions of its functions.

Furthermore, Khoza (2016) states that VKS focuses on development of the cognitive-domain of the learners by stating that the function of the cognitive domain is to act as an indicator of the success or failure of learners within a specific area of study. Each area of study in VKS is therefore, clearly defined for both the educators and learners, in order to differentiate one discipline from another. Khoza (2016) proceeds to point out that each discipline is framed by its unique theories, concepts, language, culture, ideology, and knowledge, which institutions refer to as 'school' knowledge (Makumane, 2018) and generally, as 'book' knowledge. This term connotes the form of content that is acquired for purposes of academic excellence only. Looked at in another way, in the VKS, each subject or discipline represents the scholarship of experts, which van Manen (1997) refers to as the world of experts. The curriculum in use is called the vertical curriculum which signifies a vertical progression in content complexity for the learners (Khoza, 2016). These specialists have contributed vertical knowledge in the form of research work and tested methods. The disciplines and subsequent subjects were known and understood, locally and internationally, on the basis of the knowledge that these experts have contributed. On the contrary, this is the knowledge that educators need to rely on in the practise of acknowledged enactment (Mabuza, 2018). Educators must be fully conversant with the content of the discipline in order to prepare learners to perform well during assessments. When armed with adequate knowledge, educators become the subject-knowledge experts or content-area experts. Such educators who possess higher-level knowledge and skill are often recruited to teach high-stakes subjects, such as English, mathematics, and science. Competent educators are required to teach in VKS in order to create high visibility for the institutions (Maguire, Ball, Hoskins & Braun, 2011).

A study that Maguire et al. (2015) conducted explored the manner in which mathematics and English-language educators enacted two policies, namely the standards and attainment policy and the behaviour-management policy. These policies were intended to improve pass rates at schools in England. Mathematics and English had been placed at the top of the pecking order in terms of pass-rate expectations, which were pegged at seventy per cent for each learner. In the interviews, educators were concerned about the pressure that they experienced in teaching learners to attain the minimum performance standard. The implication for the educators was that they should be prepared for such responsibilities when enacting a vertical knowledge system. The schools were concerned about the comparisons of performance that characterise VKS globally, and not in the particular ways in which the educators enacted the curriculum content.

Pass rates are what constitute performance ratings in selected countries, in order to enable educators to understand more about the VKS arena. In South Africa and Zimbabwe, for example, the rating criterion is the pass rate (performance-related assessment of learners). In the United States of America, there is more focus on the pass rates. The Niche. Com. (2019) states that the criteria are focused on the best school, the best teaching, and the best college preparation. American educators are assessed directly and indirectly, and their teaching is rated. This analysis has also raised awareness that areas for performance assessment in institutions could be on the increase, globally. However, currently, in most countries, the VHS places its main focus on assessing performance.

Assessment is generally viewed as an act or practice that educators embark on with the intention of enhancing teaching (Mabuza, 2018). When using the VHS structure, learning progresses vertically, from lower level to higher level (Khoza, 2016), which implies that the system is interested in assessing the performance of learners, checking performance of learners from one level to the next. The rationale for the performance assessment is to measure what the learners should have achieved, and what is still cognitively missing (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013; Khoza, 2015; Makumane; 2018). Since knowledge that is in use in the VHS is arranged in a hierarchy and is built up from the known to the unknown, from simple to complex, assessments at lower levels would reveal the gaps that the next level needs to fill. In addition, this ensures that all the learners receive the same content (Khoza, 2016).

In closing the debate on what constitutes the content that educators present to learners, the research acknowledges that both forms of knowledge, namely, horizontal and vertical knowledge systems, play a key role in ensuring that education delivers on its mandate. The mandate of the NFEP is to provide learners with knowledge and life skills towards building a better life for the learners and their community. The Zimbabwean government, through the MoPSE, specifies that enactment of teaching in NFEP programmes should promote socio-economic development (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Report, 2016). According to literature that has been studied so far, the horizontal knowledge system which “entails strategies which are local, segmentally organised, context specific and dependent, for maximizing encounters with persons and habitats” (Bernstein, 1999, p.159), The observation is that horizontal knowledge is aligned with the NFE outcomes. If this be the case, the dilemma that the current educators may face is to align vertical knowledge,

which they are accustomed to using in the FE system, with NFE goals. The gap for the study is to understand the enactment forms and ways that they use and the reasons that support such enactments. Having identified and discussed the forms of knowledge which frame NFEP enactment, the focus of the discourse moves to the means that can be used to enact the forms of knowledge, which are the issues relating to accessibility to the enactment of teaching and learning.

3.2.2 Accessibility to enactments

The MoPSE is the Zimbabwean government's NFE service provider. The recipients of its services are referred to as learners, which is a term describing the relationship between the provider and the recipient (McLaughlin, 2009). As is normal practise with any provider-learner/provider-consumer relationship, this relationship places most of the obligations and responsibilities on the provider. In this discourse, the responsibilities of the provider are explored, while focusing on the implications for teaching and learning. In this NFEP enactment process, the key learners are the out-of-schoolchildren, youths, and adults and the providers are the educators. The learners must achieve their personal visions by gaining access to NFE education, as enacted by educators in schools using the NFEP. According to Penchansky and Thomas (1981), on one hand, the term 'access' refers to entry into a system, while on the other hand, it provokes thoughts of factors that influence entry. When these views are enjoined in a discourse, they produce a more convincing argument for this study that interrogates issues of access to NFE. The NFEP advances notions of access as entry to NFE programmes, but without linking the access to factors that influence access Berkvens et al. (2014) suggest that accessing education through educators is a function of three variables: physical access (is it possible to reach a school?), financial access (is the education affordable?), and cultural access (is the programme socially acceptable?). These factors are discussed below, commencing with physical access.

3.2.2.1 Physical accessibility

In 2015, the Zimbabwean government, through the MoPSE, directed all school heads to establish NFE centres at their schools and to avail school facilities for the enactment of the NFEP. This indicated that, as with formal education, the NFE educators were to access their learners using the traditional classroom facilities. To NFE learners, there were advantages and disadvantages

associated with this type of arrangement. Mabuza (2018) states that a classroom can be associated with warmth and interesting content by innovative educators. However, on the contrary, NFEP learners, especially adults, would prioritise relevant learning that focuses on problem-solving education (Jarvis, 2009). All the same, a classroom is considered a strategic resource for enacting a curriculum driven by vertical knowledge outcomes (Bernstein, 1999). Khoza (2016) also supports the use of the classroom when educators enact a vertical knowledge curriculum, in order to provide learners with great deal of information at the same time and in the same place. A different strategy is required by educators who would be enacting a horizontal knowledge curriculum, having to go outside the classroom, since the learners need more space within which to socialise as they learn, for instance, about market gardening.

When an educator has to access adults, youths, and school children using the standard type and size of furniture for school children's use, NFE learners face some challenges. The older learners may experience discomfort when they use school children's furniture. In addition, classrooms are often overcrowded, owing to rising demand for schools against a growing population (UNESCO, 2017). This has resulted in a shortage of textbooks, which are some of the greatest inputs in education because of their influence (UNESCO, 2017). In addition, without access to electricity and the Internet, as is the case in most rural and urban locations owing to an acute shortage of electricity in the country, educators may feel that they are neither growing in their profession, nor are they rendering learners a good return for their money. Poor physical facilities affect learners' access to good quality education (Mhishi et al. 2012). This explains the acute shortage of educators in most rural schools; add Mishi et al. since educators abandon their jobs owing to frustration. Equally, NFE learners also abandon the knowledge centres.

The other school facility that can be an inconvenience to NFE learners are the toilets that they have to share with the children whom the adults are forced to regard as their siblings. This practice is degrading to the adults, and culturally improper. It has a negative and psycho-social effect on learners, both old and young. In order to verify this argument about the need for good-quality facilities, Mbanwi (2018) conducted a survey of one-hundred-and-fifty participants who responded to open-ended questionnaires. The purpose was to find out the impact of school facilities on teaching and learning in Cameroon. Three-quarters of the participants responded that classrooms with good air conditioning enhanced comfort, leading to increased participation in

class activities. Spacious rooms provided ample space for the interaction by the educator and the learners. The good facilities contributed significantly to learning and teaching.

Similarly, Tulder, Goel, MacDonald, Winarno and Tsai (2000) proposed a strategy that reconceptualised the concept of access to education, by modeling school environments, with special attention to the physical infrastructure. The recommendations of the study that sought to solve infrastructural problems that are prevalent in schools in developing countries who are struggling to provide universal access to education:

“The school's physical setting must be conducive to the continuous and changing needs of the learning community. The technical infrastructure must support current and future mobile and fixed technical equipment and should enable the sharing of all data types. Classrooms, labs, and other knowledge environments must provide the necessary elements that allow for instruction and learning. Furthermore, they must be adaptable to different teaching and learning activities” (p. 29).

The physical learning environment described above, is that of a modern infrastructure which is ideal for educators and their learners for access to good-quality education in which their diverse learning styles in the use of e-learning and traditional teaching are addressed under one roof. Although, an ideal physical space is a priority for learners who may be pursuing a performance-based curriculum, the aspect of affordability cannot be dismissed especially for learners in NFE which is colloquially regarded as education for misfits of the formal school system. In Zimbabwe, NFE is not funded by the government. Next to be discussed is financial accessibility and its effects on teaching and learning. Mukhopadhyay and Musengi's (2012) findings showed that, although most schools had provided ramps, others had neglected to do so. This indicated that some learners were being denied physical access to knowledge environments on the grounds of negligence by responsible authorities mandated by the constitution to ensure that such facilities are on the construction plans of all education institutions; and that proper adjustments are made to existing infrastructure.

3.2.2.2 Financial accessibility

Sukumaran (2015) suggests that financial access enables both learners and educators to engage in educational activities, thereby seizing opportunities that come with certain levels of education and training. Through attending NFEP programmes, a learner could attain high levels of literacy and life skills for use in leading a better life (Yasunaga, 2014). In Zimbabwe, poor education funding

is a constraint in the development of education (Ngwenya, 2018). The schools experience shortages of learning materials and inadequate remuneration for educators. Ndlovu (2016) comments that, when educators teach in such environments, learners do not have access to adequate physical facilities that are properly furnished and equipped to support teaching and learning. In such situations, quality teaching and learning are compromised, owing to a lack of finance with which to access fully equipped and furnished knowledge environments.

The new, school-based NFEP programmes model is struggling to gain funding. The country waited for almost two decades for the government to accede to the recommendations of the Nziramasanga Commission on Education and Training (1999). The recommendations were that the government was to fully fund NFE activities. Instead, communities are funding ninety-six per cent of non-salary costs of education (Ngwenya, 2018). The implications of lack of adequate funding by the central government are that the achievement of equitable access to education is hampered (Asplund, Abdelkarim & Skali, 2007).

Furthermore, the community finds itself burdened in several ways by financial barriers which limit access to education for the poor. Bray (1996) states that schools demand official school fees and in addition, parents meet the cost of unofficial fees, levies, school uniforms and transport. The costs can be broken down into direct costs and indirect costs. Makumane (2018) remarked that the community has to try and meet these costs because one could only be granted access to education through financial means (financial access). In desperation, some villagers in Zimbabwe proposed to exchange livestock for access to schools for their children. The NFE learners can engage in income-generating projects that are linked to NFEP enactment, such as the development of reading materials but the current use of the formal education curriculum which emphasises book knowledge, can discourage such initiatives. The community is prepared to part with finance in cash or kind to buy a service that they rate highly for promoting development in the community (Ndlovu, 2016).

The NFE educators have also been affected in their commitment to provide their learners with access to good-quality education. Ngwenya (2018) reveals that, owing to the prevailing economic challenges that Zimbabwe is facing, government expenditure on direct educational costs was only US\$ thirteen million dollars, which translates to an allocation of about three US dollars per child, per year. This shows that the government is struggling to support education, and it has therefore,

called upon communities to carry most of the costs of school facilities and supplies. The government has directed the schools and communities to pay the full amount of the allowances for NFE educators. When government passes one of its key responsibilities to communities, Lerotoli (2001) queries the social relationships that framed the partnership in which financial responsibilities have now tilted heavily towards the community. A communal enactment relationship is suggested, in which educators and management should frequently consult the community on the quality of the education services that the learners are gaining, the community being the major financier of the education services.

The overall picture points to limited access to quality education for NFEP programme learners, owing to financial constraints which also affect the educators. While learners face challenges related to payment of school fees, NFE educators are incapacitated by a lack of tools, and erratic, low remuneration. These challenges are common in both rural and urban locations; however, they affect rural areas more. Mhishi (2012) and Mukeredzi (2009) give the following examples of the challenges that affect educators and learners in rural contexts. These include a lack of finance for quality accommodation for educators, poor road infrastructure for access to schools and clinics, lack of adequate incentives for educators, communities having limited access to finance owing to poor harvests and lack of technology such as machinery and computers. In the face of the challenges, learners have to pay fees and levies to ensure that the schools continue to exist, although, in some areas, only for a limited number of learners. Such communities are driven to sustain services by a cultural perspective for a need for education services. The next section's debate is on the effect of culture in the enactment of the NFEP within schools.

3.2.2.3 Cultural accessibility

Tharp (2009) proffered two views that explain the concept of 'culture'. On one hand, culture is considered the glue that holds institutions together; while, on the other hand, culture is seen as the compass that provides society with direction. In other words, culture is supposed to guide the present, as well as to determine the future life and practices of communities. Therefore, the function of education is to act as a conduit of culture from one generation to the other, using content, artefacts, espoused values, and basic assumptions (Finkelstein, Picker, Mahoney & Barry, 1998; Tharp, 2009). Therefore, NFE is part of a process of enculturation (Kim, 2007).

To demonstrate the role of educational institutions at promoting cultural integrity, Moaloti (2007) examined the relationship between culture and human-centred designs, in a study entitled 'Impact of Socio-cultural factors upon Human-centred designs in Botswana'. Moaloti (2007) argued that, at its best, a product was judged to be good when it passed the cultural analysis of its users. Similarly, a good education, as a service that is provided by institutions to its learners, should be steeped in the culture of the community that it serves (Vhiriri, 2017). Such a service is framed by the communal enactment approach, in which the community's needs are addressed (Khoza, 2016). When using the communal approach, educators place the needs of the community at the centre of the teaching. Learning, at every level of education, needs to be grounded in culture (Viriri, 2017). While this might be a good practise, enactment among multicultural communities' present challenges for the educators. In their teaching, the educators need to appreciate cultural diversity based on their background knowledge of the respective community (culture). In emphasising the appropriateness of the committed form of enactment in relation to cultural sensitivity, Khoza (2016) states that, when educators use the committed enactment, they create an environment that is based on knowledge that would have been repeatedly constructed.

Educators need to possess sound cultural knowledge of the communities in which they work so as to know the type of language to use with whom, when, and how. The educators enacting teaching in NFEP programmes live in the communities, whose culture extends into schools. Consequently, Norton (1997) explains that an identity based on shared language created a relationship in which the speakers felt recognised and loved. This indicates that a shared language in teaching and learning environments has an impact on diffusing tensions and suspicion, in favour of attention and active participation. Tondhlana (2002) wrote a paper seeking the rationale for use of indigenous languages as languages of teaching in Zimbabwe. The main concern was on the language that educators use in multi-lingual contexts. Based on the findings, the researcher argues for the use of indigenous languages, while recommending that educators were to be proficient speakers of at least two of the country's three main languages (English, Shona, and Ndebele). The main reason that the researcher advances was that it was "important to note that maintaining a speaker's native language has an affective dimension, that of enhancing the speakers' self-concepts and their pride in their cultural background and identity". (p. 36). This view corroborated Ndamba's (2008) research findings, that when educators used the mother tongue, the learners became proud of their indigenous languages, values, cultures, and heritage. Both researchers also

concur that cognitive development was faster when learners are not subjected to interpretations, translations, and recontextualisation of concepts, from mother tongue to the dominant language of the school. Cultural access facilitates learning and identity creation. When people create their own identities, they begin to reflect on their vision (Mabuza, 2018). Therefore, it is construed that an identity becomes the source of inspiration leading to a reflection and eventually to action that would have been carefully considered in terms of outcomes and consequences alike.

Having realised that personalities were developed in knowledge environments, Masuku (2011) remarks that “school culture determines relationships, work habits and practices, communication and language, a sense of self-space, values and norms, beliefs and attitudes as well as mental processes and learning” (p. 40). Educators thus have a role to play beyond content delivery; however, roles include acting as role models of the culture that the school is inculcating into the learners (Vhiriri, 2017). This shows that there is a need for educators to gain approval from the community (Bernstein, 1999) in communal enactments, such as the NFEP enactment, in which learners seek competencies to use in the community. In this way, communities are placed at the centre of the communal form of enactment. They are able to evaluate what the NFEP learners have gained. Bernstein (1999) and Khoza (2016) agree that the community must observe and judge for themselves the competencies of the learners, based on specific knowledge that the community has supplied to the schools, through community experts.

3.2.3 Educator roles

An educator’s role epitomises the projection of behaviour (Gaillard & Wegmann, 2000) when conducting teaching. In fact, the authors did not elaborate on the extenuating contextual influence that the committed form of enactment employs to make decisions about which behaviour to project or not, when, how and why. This indicates a gap for knowledge to educators about theory that can prepare them to be aware of the mediation effect from various artefacts in the phenomenon, such as rules, content and incentives. Therefore, roles characterise every knowledge environment in the NFEP enactment process where educators interact with their learners. These knowledge environments are dominated by educators performing a variety of roles in order to prepare their learners to lead responsible lives in a changing world (Esmaili, Mohamadrezai & Mohamadrezai, 2015). This suggests that educators have to enact a variety of roles that ensure that the needs of

the learners and those of the community are satisfied. This is crucial, especially in environments that either directly employ educators or are responsible for paying the allowances. From an acknowledged enactment perspective, educators have to be responsible for safeguarding the discipline (Makumane, 2018). This indicates that educators do not bring the discipline into disrepute by failing to efficiently and effectively articulate its content. Van den Akker (2009) concurs that roles of educators play a significant part in teaching and learning. Roles facilitate the achievement of intentions by becoming the bridge that extends the intended content to the enacted and attained content (Fullan, 2008). In these roles, educators need to choose suitable approaches that inform their teaching role, thereby highlighting the invaluable contribution of the committed form of enactment in guiding decision making. Once again the concern is the quality of the decisions that FE educators can make in their hired positions in the NFEP programmes enactment. However, each role is expected to be used by an educator to engage the learners in learning experiences that should result in the learners attaining their learning outcomes, based on the planned activities, content, and other aspects that were provided in the curriculum (Harmer, 2008). Hence, this study sought to identify and how the educators interact with learners in those roles and the reasons underlying the use of the particular ways.

Likewise, this study reviews the educators' roles as facilitators, researchers, and lifelong learners, learning area specialists, and their community, citizenship, and pastoral role. These are important contextual issues in teaching and learning which according to CHAT; mediate the teaching and learning activity. Khoza (2015) argues that a well-designed curriculum specifies the appropriate approach that an educator is may follow. This suggests that educators have a choice on whether to use the suggested approaches or their preferred ones. This indicates that when educators have deficient TPACK, they may face challenges of deciding on the contextually appropriate approaches.

Literature on educators enacting teaching that is driven by the acknowledged form of enactment, suggests that educators should have received formal teacher education (Khoza, 2015). This indicates that it is vital that educators are aware of the teaching profession's acknowledged enactment standards. Survey findings by Zimbabwe's MoPSE, that are contained in its strategic-planning document of 2016-2020, show that educators need to be capacitated in order to implement the new curriculum that is used in both formal and non-formal educational settings. The gap that

exists is a knowledge gap where much needs to be understood regarding how such educators currently enact teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes including what informs them to do so. The information that will be generated will benefit the training and development initiatives for both practising educators and the next generation of educators, in order for them to attain the desired learning outcomes. Hoadley and Jansen (2013) comment that the challenge for educators is to ensure that the content is logically organised while Van den Akker et al. (2010) argue that, first; the educators have to interpret the policy knowledge before they can enact it. Hence, one of the intentions of this study is to construct knowledge on how educators enact teaching and learning within schools, based on interpretations and translations of the curriculum-in use. The educators' roles as a facilitator, researcher and lifelong learner, instructor and the educator, in the community are discussed, starting with the educator as facilitator.

3.2.3.1 Facilitator role

Educators who enact policy using the facilitator role do so based on the problem-centred or learner-centred pedagogical approach. The facilitator role is designed to benefit the learners owing to its positive influence on the construction of knowledge (Potvin, Masson & Fournier, 2010). To the facilitator, the learner-centred approach involves engaging learners in a process in which they learn to make decisions through reflecting on their own experiences (Hmelo-Silver, 2004). Such a reflection is made from a covert position (Dlamini, 2017), that maintains the central position of the learner. Learners become actively involved in making critical decisions on various ways and aspects of their learning

The focus is the educator who has to make the learning original and relevant, regarding how educators perform the roles and for what reasons. On a similar note, Hadley and Jansen (2014) posit that learner-centred approaches provide the learners with the opportunity of developing high-level thinking and decision-making skills which they need in order to construct knowledge, while they work individually, in pairs, and small groups. The learners are the 'masters' of their own learning, following their participation, as facilitated by an educator who motivates and supports them. According to Brown (2003), the learner-centred approach creates a conducive climate in which learners develop their own critical-thinking skills. This suggests that the learner-centred

approach would suit adult learners who are self-directed and prefer approaches in which they operate independently in constructing knowledge based on their life experiences (Knowles, 1990).

However, enacting the role of a facilitator places some demands on the educators. The process demands skill in guiding the learners to share information and then deciding on the information to use in constructing knowledge (Potvin et al., 2003). The educator requires tact and knowledge in order to guide the learners through a process of actively engaging in and creativity-orienting towards the construction of meaning, reiterates Estes (2004). This indicates that educators who have appropriate TPACK reflect on their teaching roles in order that the learners are justifiably engaged in learning.

The problem-centred approach, when used for facilitating learning is framed by the communal enactment approach, in which horizontal knowledge will be used to enact policy. The approach is aligned with the communal enactment, since the role of the educator is to create an environment during which the learners collaboratively generate knowledge that represents the values of the community and the needs of the individuals (Makumane, 2018). Khoza (2016) explains the way in which a facilitator would lead the learners into creating communal knowledge by pointing out that the visions of the facilitator and those of the learners must be focused on the achievement of outcomes, based on the achievement of competencies that the community requires, for example, computer competencies. In communal enactment, focus is on the achievement of outcomes and therefore, time is not a barrier to teaching and learning. The learners are to work over an extended time period of time, where necessary (Dole et al., 2016).

Therefore, the educators' facilitation role is that of making a long-lasting impact on learning, depending on how they enact the role. Monstrom and Bloomberg (2012) add that the educator creates a climate that ensures that learners receive feedback. Admittedly, the feedback provides learners with explanations of how they have progressed towards the achievement of the outcomes, as well as identifying areas for improvement. Nonetheless, the educator's feedback session needs to be preceded by a self-assessment by each learner. Mabuza (2018) says that the introspective activity is the basis for making reflections in the construction of new knowledge. In doing so, Mabuza underscores the use of reflective journals in education (Cimer & Cimer, 2013). This suggests that genuine and sustainable improvements that were learner-based would follow.

In conclusion, when the educator performs the role of a facilitator, he or she would need a set of complex skills. Among the essential skills are communication skills, coordination, mentoring skills, as well as those for managing diversity. Therefore, an effective facilitator is one who is able to use skill and knowledge creatively, to promote the manifestation of learners' skills and talents for knowledge construction (Dole et al., 2016). Furthermore, the literature suggests that there is need for educators to reflect upon learning outcomes, thus providing learners with the opportunity of learning how to learn, while the educator also gains experiential learning. What the educators do while performing this role and the reasons for their actions are key questions that this study sought to address.

3.2.3.2 Community, citizenship, and pastoral role

Inasmuch as the business world is concerned about its relationships with other businesses and governments both locally and internationally, service institutions such as schools also recognise the importance of relationships with the communities in which they are located and which they serve (the stakeholders). What drives both sets of institutions, business and service, to safeguard their reputation by acting humanely, is reputational risk, maintains (Chun, 2005), who defines reputation as a valuable, intangible asset that affects the way customers/learners/stakeholders behave towards an organisation/institution. Such groups of people will have a general opinion that the organisation/institution is either a good or bad institution to be identified with. For instance, a school with a group of NFE learners who conduct free counseling sessions in the community's churches may be rated as a good school.

Dixon, Excell and Linington (2014), comment that educators transform education. The roles of educators are important in teaching and learning, both at the educational institutions and within the community. The set of roles is part of the social construction that fosters community needs for cohesion and a realistic education agenda (Day & Kington, 2008). Educators are expected to have a positive influence in the schools, and to the community. They perform the important role of ensuring that community needs are addressed, in harmony with customs and practices.

Similarly, the Zimbabwe government, through the NFEP (2015), which promotes the enactment of the school-model, is guided by the values of commitment, integrity, empathy, transparency and teamwork. It is important that educators enact these values in order to foster respect and

responsibility towards one another (Dixon, et al., 2014). The policy provides institutions and educators with the opportunity of influencing their immediate environment by offering community, citizenship, and pastoral educational work. A communal enactment approach therefore, prioritises an education that is oriented towards community-skills development (Ngubane-Mokiwa & Khoza, 2016.) In this role, educators can impart literacy skills, home-based care skills, and skills to fight drug abuse, as well as poverty-alleviation skills, among other requisite skills. Educational institutions should thus stay abreast of community challenges requiring citizen and pastoral education, such as drug abuse.

Reference is also made to Bernstein (1999) regarding the use of horizontal knowledge systems (HKS). The author advises educators who will be using the communal enactments, to collaborate with the communities in the acquisition and subsequent use of horizontal knowledge. Community experts for each ‘segmentally differentiated site’ are there to support educators, as reliable sources of the cultural practices and knowledge that an educator will incorporate in devising solutions for specific problems for their unique contexts. For example, religiously segmented sects have different beliefs; and educators may not use an identical strategy when tackling an identical problem, such as abuse of women, and denial of school opportunities to the ‘girl child’. Educators play vital roles in the lives of the learners in their classrooms and the community at large. Educators, as researchers, can explore further these issues and all others on NFEP enactment, assisting with improvements and sustainable solutions.

3.2.3.3 Researcher and lifelong learning role

This section discusses the effect of the role of the educator as a researcher and lifelong learner. The concept of research is understood to be a systematic inquiry into a problem which is perceived to be a complicated process. When research was introduced as a ‘new’ role for educators, educators expressed the view that they had very little tolerance for incorporating research into their teaching, having realised that they would be expected to construct their own discipline-specific theories (Clarke, 1994). Today, educators have since moved from being implementers of external theoretical products, to being enactors of research findings that are based on their lived work

experiences (Alexakos, 2015; Vasquez, 2008). As a result, it is argued that educators, as professionals, provide authentic information for solving teaching and learning problems, for advancing the profession, and for self-development.

According to Clarke, 1994), the credit for the advancement of the construct of an educator as a researcher, is associated with works by Stenhouse (1975, 1981) and Schon (1983). These researchers outlined one of the purposes of research by educators, as that of having to identify and document teacher practices, both verbal and non-verbal, that focused on teaching and learning (Mertler, 2009). Teachers are constantly interacting with learners, during which time they engage in the teaching and learning phenomena (Binder, 2012). It can also be argued that educators are experts in the discipline; and they need to be inquisitive and investigative about educational matters, of which there are many. In support, Makumane (2018) reiterated that, “In this way, educators discover new trends with constant research and are thus in a position to impart such knowledge with both learners and colleagues” (p. 70). Consequently, Day and Kington (2008) aver that, through research and lifelong learning, improvements are being made to the educators’ skills and knowledge that are bound to benefit both the researchers and the learners. Binder (2012) confirms that the educators have become empowered individually. Educators can therefore, be relied upon to share recent developments in educational research when they enact, for example, the NFEP. Furthermore, the educators are expected to possess the pedagogy for NFE, knowing how to evaluate the NFEP outcomes, among other areas of teaching and learning.

Educators use their committed enactments in order to drive teaching and learning. Khoza (2016) further explains that the committed enactment provides educators with the background to conduct further research. In support is Binder (2012), who comments that, through conducting research, educators are able to reflect on and understand the tensions and complexities inherent in the teaching and learning environment. Therefore, it is argued that conducting research empowers the educators to make informed decisions, and to draw up critical lessons.

Following a critical action-research study on understanding curriculum visions of a group of managers, Khoza (2016) found that the managers came to better understand their practices during the reflection process, which helped to transform the managers’ knowledge, experiences, and understanding (through action research). The findings suggest that during the investigation of a phenomenon, the managers became empowered by the reflection process to better understand their

work and themselves. Similarly, educators in various knowledge environments are driven by their committed form of enactment to engage in further research within their practice, as a means of personal growth (empowerment). This research observes that there are large numbers of educators who are pursuing research studies at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and at many other universities. The educators intend to acquire knowledge for teaching, as well as to gain knowledge which they can subscribe to their professional disciplines.

In conclusion, educators who have transformed themselves into scholars, researchers, and lifelong learners, have the capacity to achieve their committed visions. In the process of realising their individual visions, they add more facts that support acknowledged enactment of policy. Above all, conducting research helps the educators understand the impact of research on teaching and learning, growing the NFE discipline based on research by internal professionals, namely the educators.

3.2.3.4 Learning area specialist role

A learning area specialist is one who is highly skilled in a particular area of work. Likewise, the discipline knowledge, also called subject knowledge, is the knowledge that is recognised as having an influence on the achievement of learning outcomes (Khoza, 2009). Educators who are specialists are driven by the committed enactment. Similarly, an educator who performs the role of a learning area specialist is an expert in educational scholarship of teaching and learning in, for example, a subject such as geography. According to Tyler (1949), the hallmark of a specialist educator is one who has a clear postulation of the purpose/objective of the particular educational intervention. Judging by Tyler's argument, an objective could be likened to a lighthouse which illuminates all other objects in the path of the ship. A learning area specialist would have to have a good sense of what constitutes specialised teaching, namely, the materials, methods of teaching, and evaluation, thereby making the learning experience effective for the learners (Worden, 2015). Ndlovu (2016) referred to this approach as one that was guided by Tyler's (1949) product approach, implying that objectives predetermined the expected end result.

Furthermore, Harden (2002) states that, when the educator prefers the use of objectives, he or she is driven by the educator-centred approach to teaching and learning. However, teaching that is driven by objectives is performance-centred and such that educators think of themselves as performers that attract the attention of the stakeholders based pass rates of their learners. They prioritise teaching instead of the learning; hence they adopt the educator-centred approaches. The educators play a significant role in ensuring that the planned content is presented in the educator's frame for presentation, using their preferred materials at a knowledge environment and time of their choice. Hence, the word specialist implies an area specialist, the 'master' (Celik, 2008; Dole et al., 2016), whose primary concern is the transmission of accurate content that they possess (Angell, Ryder & Scott, 2014). This indicates that their teaching is framed by acknowledged enactment, in which the delivery of authoritative content of the discipline is prioritised. In addition, learning area specialists place the profession at the centre of the enactment. To them, the development of the cognitive domain (mental skills) dominates their teaching and learning, premised on the rationale that cognitive knowledge provides the criteria on which decisions relate to whether or not the learners are successful in their learning, by having mastered the specific content (Khoza, (2016). This suggests that these experts have unique ways of teaching and reasons, too for the particular ways that are still unknown.

Furthermore, Khoza provides some insights into how educators become learning-area experts. Institutions regard educators as specialists who use the acknowledged enactment in their teaching. The acknowledged enactment is linked with the promotion of vertical knowledge transfer, in which independent subjects are taught, using specialised collections of concepts and theories and themes. This background information is important in that it provides insights into why learning area specialists engage with learners and how they do it. Bruner (2000) points out that reflection accelerates and deepens the engagement process, the more the educators engaged learners on the same topic, the better their chances of becoming area specialists. However, the study argues that, if educators became specialised through a process that repeats itself, that could promote complacency, decay and obsolescence. Instead, it is suggested that educators take steps to frequently update their content by engaging in lifelong learning and research. Angell, Ryder and Scott (2005) recommend that specialists should have special interest in TPACK, in order that they improve the way they organise, present, adapt, and teach. The rationale is that teaching must suit the diverse needs and abilities of the learners (Angell et al., 2005). These are the attributes of area

specialists that separate them from non-specialists (novices) and make the specialists more marketable in performance-driven enactments. This suggests that an analysis of the educators attributes could be an important lens for the research to identify and understand enactments and underlying reasons for different actions by different educators.

Furthermore, Hoadley and Jansen (2014) agree that performance-driven enactments are regulated by governments. This points to pedagogical rules that Bernstein (1999 alluded to: “In the case of vertical discourse, there are strong distributive rules regulating access, regulating transmission and regulating evaluation” (p. 159). It is common for governments, through their relevant ministries, departments, and the schools themselves, to operate with rules, for example, on types of knowledge to use that are organised into curricula, durations of lessons, and evaluation criteria. Such provisions at national level are made by, for example, the South African curriculum and assessment policy statement (CAPS) of 2012, and by Zimbabwe’s NFEP of 2015. The NFEP has made it mandatory that all primary and secondary schools be used as knowledge environments; and that educators are to teach based on the formal education curricula. Such regulations and restriction are bound to influence the way educators teach while educators will justify their enactments on the standing orders.

Nonetheless, learning specialists still improve on their decision making, based on their committed vision that also impacts on teaching and learning, such as the choice of teaching approaches. Ndlovu (2016) observes that educator-centred specialist often applies the ‘banking’ concept to teaching that the Brazilian philosopher Freire (1970), widely publicized. Freire was influenced by his contempt of a system of teaching that likened learners to empty vases that were to be filled up with education, an education which they did not choose to possess, since they were denied an active role in learning. Denying learners’ participation, especially the youth and adult learners whose concept of learning is through sharing experiences, robs them the chance to share experiences, and subsequently, to construct knowledge that is relevant to their contexts (Brookfields, 1986; Jarvis, 2009; Knowles, 1980). The banking concept, which is in use in formal education, does not suit youths and adult learners in NFE. Midzi (2013) conducted a study that sought to determine factors that militate against men’s participation in the Zimbabwean functional literacy programme. One of the study’s findings is the stigma of formal school education, where educator-centred approaches were predominantly used for teaching NFE learners. The use of the

educator-centred methods in NFEP enactment contributed to low enrolments in Zimbabwe (Midzi, 2013). Ndlovu (2016) describes the educator-centred approaches as being responsible for promoting rote learning and memorising, as opposed to promoting critical thinking (Dole et al., 2016; Rodrigo, 2017). Instead, learning area specialists must be grounded in the discipline's TPACK, rather than them choosing to adopt educator-centred activities on the grounds of being a convenient option to use, based although such activities might be of little benefit to learners.

3.2.4 Enactment activities

Policy intentions have assumed a general meaning in which they are viewed as statements of what learners are expected to achieve at the conclusion of a learning experience (Adam, 2006; Kennedy et al. (2007) Khoza, 2013). Hence, learning will be produced through learning activities, where the norm of teaching is to make learning possible to the learner (Ramsden, 2003). According to Donnelly and Fitzmaurice (2005), a learning activity or strategy refers to a plan for learning that embodies presentations by educators, exercises for learners, tools that will be made available to learners, and ways in which evidence of the outcomes of the learning will be collected and made sense of. The researcher observes that this conceptualisation of a learning activity explains how educators can enact effective teaching and learning. All that educators need to do, is to focus on the selection and enactment of activities that enhance learning.

Donnelly and Fitzmaurice (2005) share a similar view with Lave (1991), in which they regard a learning activity as the complex nature of choosing and enacting policy activities. This illustrates that the process of selecting an activity involves a number of interacting variables, such as educators, learners, and policy knowledge (Zepke, 2013), while involving the community. However, in some contexts of work pressures, it might not be feasible for educators to consult learners and the society. Nonetheless, educators must always consider the needs of the learners when they design learning activities. Zeelen, Rampedi and De Jong (2011) conducted a study in South Africa on problems that were encountered in the implementation of adult education policies in the Limpopo province. The researchers used the model of intergovernmental policy implementation by van Meter and van Horn (1975) as a theoretical framework. The data which were collected from ten group and thirty-eight individual interviews, pointed to a technocratic hindrance, in which policies that were implementable were forced upon Africans. These policies

disregarded the context of the learners, leading to discontinuances and discrepancies in conditions of learning. One of the problems was the failure to address the learning needs of adults which resulted from the use of ineffective learning activities, and a lack of materials. Policy knowledge was delivered in a top-down manner, which the researchers acknowledged was a legacy of apartheid regimes. This lack of communication with learners and stakeholders is being addressed in the NFEP enactment, in which community leaders are members of school boards (NFEP document, 2015). The research findings further pointed to a need for educators to carefully select policy activities (Makumane, 2018); and that the selection should be based on an understanding of teaching and learning theories (Donnelly & Fitzmaurice, 2005). This suggests that relevant theories should frame the personal identities of educators (Samuel, 2009) and that educators would have been trained at reputable colleges, where they would have trained for the discipline that they teach.

In this study, activities refer to the actions that educators propose and use in order to maximise the attainment of policy outcomes, or for the purposes of making teaching possible (O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). Utmost consideration must therefore, precede the use of any activity, in order to ensure that the ideal teaching and learning activities are selected. Wilson and Peters (2006) state that the scholarship and practise of education is framed by three principles: "learning as a process of active engagement; learning as individual and learning as social interaction" (p. 2). It is the responsibility of educators to ensure that there is compliance with the discipline's principles in order that they achieve the intended outcomes. In support is Yair (2000), who comments that educators are to ensure that they provide learning processes that are varied, in order to accommodate individual learning styles, as well while maintaining high levels of motivation from the learners. Teaching activities must promote active participation that supports learners to learn through interaction and practise, in order that they construct knowledge. In emphasising the role of activities and their careful selection, Donnelly and Fitzmaurice (2005) comment that:

"Even the best designed modules, with very worthwhile defined learning outcomes, can fail if the teaching strategies employed are inappropriate to encourage and support the learners towards meeting the desired learning outcomes" (p. 12).

The assertion above is supportive of the use of educators whose TPACK will guide them in the selection of appropriate activities. Mabuza (2018) suggests that educators must reflect on the

intended outcome of their activities. This indicates that the educator must consider each activity against the attainment of the expected behaviour and learning outcomes. What is doubted among some educators is the competence to aptly perform well if they have not been capacitated to do so since teaching makes many demands on the educators. Accordingly, Lave (1991) comments that educators make decisions on activities that engage learners in the construction of meaning and internalisation of cognition. Ariandika and Kartikawati, (2018) conducted a case study entitled ‘Effective Method of teaching reading’. The aim was to acquaint themselves with methods that educators use for teaching reading to tenth grade learners. The findings were that the educators used a guided reading method that incorporated the use of materials in teaching reading. The educators needed to design effective activities for teaching reading in class, following proper planning; and that activities should be modeled according to the needs of the learners. The findings underscore the need for educators to reflect on their facilitation activities; and to plan activities that are learner-centred. The findings also highlight the importance of trained educators who can enact appropriate pedagogical content and knowledge of the discipline.

Makumane (2018) points out that the educator’s ultimate decisions on how to apply the activities is driven by the committed enactment. In the committed enactment, the educator relies on his or her understanding of the discipline’s forms of knowledge (vertical and horizontal); as well as on personal interpretations that guide the choice of appropriate activities that are aligned with curriculum/policy goals. The key message is the educators need to make decisions that should enhance the utilisation of appropriate activities to: actively engage learners with information in the construction of meaning, and for the cognitive development of learners. Therefore, there should be learner- participation, both as individuals and as group members, leading to knowledge construction (Rodrigo, 2017).

The debate so far has attempted to show the rationale for the selection of activities that make learning possible, from a generalised perspective. The debate has shed light on how the educators may enact learning based on the selection and use of activities that are aligned with the goals of education and that educators must exercise due diligence in the use of the activities. What the study needs to further interrogate are the reasons that frame the educators when they engage learners. The next section focuses on each of the three categories of teaching activities in Khoza’s (2013) suggested typology, comprising ‘discipline-driven, educator-driven and problem-driven

activities'. The rationale for the need to understand the three approaches is that each approach has a place in teaching and learning, based on individual strengths (Khoza, 2013).

3.2.4.1 Discipline-driven activities

Despite the notion that educators influence learning through the activities that they choose, what is important to consider is the effect of the activities on learning. It is for this reason that Morrison-Saunders (2015) advises educators to select the best facilitation activities that enhance learning. By way of such advice, educators are expected to be able to account for their choice of learning activities, such as when they employ discipline-driven activities in their enactment of teaching. By definition, discipline-driven activities are those actions that focus on and satisfy the requirements of a particular discipline's professionals (Mabuza, 2018). Therefore, this requires that the discipline's professionals should develop sets of activities that are to be followed by the educators during policy enactment. Disciplines have particular norms and values that distinguish them from others, owing to the different branches of knowledge. Non-formal education (NFE) should also be in possession of its professionals who determine its character, by making decisions relating to what should be learned, how, where, why, by whom, and with what. In other words, by way of the NFEP goals, these professionals should select the discipline's knowledge and activities. The instruments that the policy professionals will use for delivering the discipline's teaching and learning activities, are the educators (Dupin-Bryant, 2004), whose role is that of guiding the learners through the policy knowledge (Padraig & McLoughlin, 2009). Hence, the focus of this study was on the educators who were the key informants of insights on how the NFEP programmes' teaching and learning phenomenon could be explored for learning purposes and improvements in the achievement of learning outcomes for its intended beneficiaries.

Padraig and McLoughlin (2009) conducted a study whose hypothesis was that inquiry-based learning that was enacted using a modified Moore method, was a content-driven pedagogy, and as such it was neither instructor- nor student-centred. The findings were that many methods of instruction on discipline-driven teaching promoted passive learners whose participation levels were low, while they wished to obtain good grades. These findings highlighted the major demerits of the discipline-driven activities in which the learners are passive. The educators' actions valued the discipline's knowledge and undervalued the participation of the learners. Padraig and

MacLoughlin (2009) posit that “Without the content there is no inquiry; without inquiry, no learning; and, without learning, no reason for a class.” (p. 2). In short, the finding of the study highlight that discipline-driven activities feed on content. In turn, the educators must produce creative ways that promote learning in order to justify their role.

Discipline-driven activities are framed on acknowledged enactments under which the educator shows his or her strict adherence to established policy knowledge and activities. Makumane (2018) points out that the “focus is more on what needs to be taught, rather than on learner processing as educators are more concerned with maintaining the accountability standard of the subject-matter” (p. 105). This demonstrates that discipline knowledge or content is important in education, and educators will be put under pressure to complete the delivery of discipline knowledge under all circumstances, leading to learner passivity (Mabuza, 2018). Under such learning environments, Carlile and Jordan (2005) argue that discipline activities do not promote independent thinking and knowledge construction among the learners. The next section discusses the educator-driven activities.

3.2.5. Educator-centred activities

Dupin-Bryant (2004) defines educator-centredness as a construct that represents a way of facilitating teaching that is formal, controlled, and autocratic, in which an educator directs how, what, and when learners are to learn. In explaining the same construct, Mascolo (2009) focuses on power relations, stating that the concern in using educator-driven activities is that the educator assumes primary responsibility for communication of knowledge to the learners. In educator-driven activities, there is a shift of attention to the educator (Ahmed, 2013). In such environments, educators assume a predominant role, while believing that the educator knows it all (Taole, 2013), and that they must act as ‘directors of ceremonies’. When teaching is enacted based on this role, educators will exercise full control over what to select, how to sequence it, the pace of the teaching process and of the learning in general (Ahmed, 2013; Hoadley & Jansen, 2013).

Furthermore, educator-driven activities are associated with traditional classrooms in which an educator is the primary source of content (Mabuza, 2018; Makumane, 2018). The educator is the focus of teaching (Ahmed, 2013). Such environments are characterised by information dissemination, information digestion, and information regurgitation. A study by Catalano and

Catalano (1999) which explored the role of the instructor/professor of engineering at a university, buttresses the point that, in educator-driven classrooms at university, the educators preside over passive learners, who sit patiently, listening and writing notes. Accordingly, Catalano and Catalano (2009) compare the educator who is educator-driven, to planet earth that is surrounded by tiny objects of the cosmos (the learners). This study depicts an educator who is transmitting content to novices. The research observes that this is as an extreme form of the use of only one type of a teaching activity, which is the lecture. Alternatively, there are a variety of activities that promote active learning by learners. O'Neill and McMahon, (2005) and Jarvis, (2012), refer to such activities as participatory methods, and they include role-play and song and dance. Therefore, the use of participatory methods stimulates thinking and increases learners' attention and participation, unlike the lecture method in which learners are passive.

Dupin-Bryant (2004), observe the use and overuse of the lecture method. The lecture is used for the delivery of discipline-driven activities because of its formality; which portrays the educator as the provider of knowledge. In addition, the educator should be listened to if a learner is to obtain factual information, in full. On a positive note, the assessment of the lecture method lends itself to quantifiable outcomes that are easy to measure (Khoza, 2015). However, doubts surround the assessment results, since educator-centered activities promote rote-learning (Ndlovu, 2016). Furthermore, educators assess learners on the ability to retain factual information, without requesting them to demonstrate competent use of the information that they might have retained.

Amid the debate on the types of teaching activities that were being used by television educators in higher education, Dupin-Bryant (2004), conducted a study of the teaching styles of television instructors. The study used a quantitative design and generated data from two-hundred-and-twenty-five participants, through using questionnaires. The findings revealed that sixty-seven per cent (67%) of the sample was composed of educators who expressed their commitment to the use of principles that are congruent with educator-centredness. As an explanation, the instructors employed the educator-centred style because of the distance between them and the learners. Celik (2018) speculates that most educators may prefer to use educator-driven activities "due to the crowded classes, limited time, material inadequacy and inadequate facilities" (p. 1963). The teaching environment influences the choice of learning activities by educators. This indicates that educators should use their TPACK to come up with decisions that support the enactment of

teaching, based on favourable factors, regarding the size of classes and classrooms and the alignment between available time and the achievement of learning outcomes.

In advocating for educator-driven activities, Grant and Hill (2006) expostulate that, when the goal of teaching requires that tests should be used, educators may adopt educator-driven activities. When the educator is in control, therefore, he or she can accomplish her or his vision. Khoza (2019) describes such learning contexts as being guided by a vertical curriculum in which the learning is market-oriented. Taole (2013) provides another view on reasons behind the adoption of a central role in driving teaching activities, by educators. In a study that explored educators' conceptions and their likely influence on curriculum implementation in the context of educational change in South Africa, Taole argues that, "educators believe that the educator is a "know-all" and he or she must explain concepts to learners" (p. 43). Khoza (2018) concurs with Taole (2013), that such educators plan the teaching activities through an educator-driven approach; and they believe that the learners are to adhere to rigid instructions and Ahmed (2013) and Mascolo (2009) describe the environment as one that is characterised by an active educator and inactive learners. Verma, Ramesh, Singh, and Das, (2017) summarise the detriments that are associated with the educator-driven approach, by asking: "If the educator is active throughout the entire teaching-learning process simply by making learners just listeners or observers, then how can we be sure that learners have gained the maximum quantum of knowledge?" (p. 9). The effectiveness of the 'active' educator is being challenged, bearing in mind that, in effective teaching, the learner is at the core of the teaching process (Estes, 2004). It is around the learner that all activities related to teaching and learning revolve (Monstrom and Blumber, 2012). The educator should therefore, engage the learners throughout the learning process (Blackie, Case & Jawitz, 2010; Gatongi, 2007). In other words, the literature suggests that educators must consider other forms of teaching and learning activities that influence learners to engage in knowledge construction that results in solving problems, such as the use of debates and case studies methods.

3.2.5.1 Problem-driven activities

The literature points to various other terms that fit the criteria of the problem-driven activities approach to teaching, such as student-centred, learner-centred, experiential-based activities, active learning, and self-directed learning (O'Neill, & McMahon, 2005; Sparrow, Sparrow & Swan,

2000). There is also the use of the term ‘andragogy’ by Knowles (1980), which is contextualised in adult learning to be different from the pedagogy of teaching children. The underlying principle in these concepts is the focus on the learner in educational activities. According to O’Neill, and McMahon (2005), problem-driven activities represent:

“The shift in power from the expert educator to the student learner, driven by a need for a change in the traditional environment where in this ‘so-called educational atmosphere’, students become passive, apathetic and bored” (p. 27).

This contribution is an indication that the learner, who is engaged in problem-driven activities occupies a central position; and that the learning must give due attention to addressing the learners’ education problems/interests. The power relations in knowledge spaces, whether they are physical or virtual, have shifted to the learner.

Rodrigo (2017), posits that problem-driven activities are premised on the constructivist theory of learning, which is a psychological theory of evolution and development, that fosters the ‘construction’ of knowledge (Fosnot, Ed, 2005) In practise, Sharifi, Soleimani & Jafarigohar, (2017), posit that cognitive constructivism helps learners to develop knowledge through an active construction process, based upon their prior experience and personal interpretation of the world. This suggests that constructions of knowledge are possible when learners are engaged in active learning that focuses on their needs (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). Likewise, this study regards problem-driven activities as the actions of educators in which learners gain autonomy and control over the choice of knowledge, learning activities, pace and time of learning. Educators use learning strategies that promote active engagement and experiential learning (Garrett, 2008), while the role of educators has changed from disseminator of information to coach or educator of learning (Dole et al., 2016; Monstrom & Blumberg, 2012). This shows that on their part, the learners become accountable for their own learning; and are involved actively at selecting learning outcomes and managing the learning (Dole et al., 2016; Sharifi et al., 2017; Wright, 2011).

However, one of the challenges that the educators face, is the dilemma relating to beliefs held by the educators. Taole (2013) points out that educators have their own beliefs, while Celik (2018) raises the issue of constraints that educators face, such as time, and the pressure of meeting evaluations. This shows that educators are driven by their own predispositions, and the existing contexts in the choice of activities, which may not be oriented towards problem-driven activities.

Commenting on educators' beliefs, Garrett (2008) opines that educators who are committed to the problem-driven activities approach, presumably base their decisions on learning and teaching activities on a basic set of assumptions about the way learners learn. In support is Khoza (2013), who acknowledges the importance of beliefs or goals that are used by educators to determine their choice of an approach. In which case there is a trilogy of beliefs where educators can either be driven by the needs of the discipline, the needs of the educator, or by those of the learner (problem-driven), The challenge and gap that behooves this study is on whether the educators understand the implications of teaching and learning activities, as follows:

“If they use aims or objectives to drive their lessons, it means they are using the educator-driven approach (behaviourist), if they use knowledge to drive their lessons, it means they are applying the discipline-driven approach (for cognitivist) and if they use learning outcomes to drive their lessons, it means they are applying the problem-driven approach (for constructivist)” (Khoza, 2013, p. 7).

The underlying implication is that the educators' choice of activities affects the way they teach, while the implication to the study is that of gaining an understanding of the rationale for educators' choices of teaching activities. Furthermore, Khoza (2013) explains that none of the approaches to driving learning should be used alone. This indicates that the approaches complement one another. Therefore, educators can use an 'eclectic' approach where they use the discipline-driven activities, educator-and problem-driven activities in a single learning session. By so doing, the educators enhance the learning experiences, in that the sessions provide a variety of ways that should suit diverse learning contexts (Savin-Baden, 2000), and the learners' needs as the teaching activities are adjusted to respond to the learning outcomes.

Although Gatongi (2007) acknowledges that problem-driven activities are a practical approach to creating learning conditions for learners to flourish, the researcher highlights that not much change will occur in the transfer of the control of learning to learners, unless educators consciously adapt their actions, in order to empower the learners. Consequently, it is incumbent on educators to design activities based on the knowledge and experiences of learners, so as to motivate the learners to participate in their own learning (Gunderman, Williamson, Heltkamp & Kipfer, 2003). Wright (2011), in a discursive essay entitled 'Student-Centred Learning in Higher Education' illustrates ways in which an educator can implement a problem-driven strategy. The learning model was in music education, in which the learner participated in the comprehensive musicianship through performance modeling. The learner selected a piece of music and investigated its background and

studied the song, thoroughly. In the end, the learner gained new knowledge and so did the educator. An analysis of the problem-driven activity model showed that the problem-driven activity was characterised by autonomy, control, and flexibility, in which the music learner traversed. This suggests that this strategy was a communal enactment, in which the learners socialise with the educator and everyone else, in search of new knowledge that would help address the problem. The learner needed to understand and learn the music, a task that was successfully accomplished. The study also demonstrated what motivated learners can achieve when they have choices to make in learning. In addition, the study strengthened the concept of ‘learner doing’ (O’Neill, & McMahon, 2005). This indicates that the problem-driven activities concept, as a tenet of the constructivism theory, was used in order to focus on an activity and engage in discovery through scientific processes that improve learning and knowledge development (Froyd, & Simpson, 2008), based on timely support from the facilitator.

Conversely, O’Neill, and McMahon (2005) challenge the use of problem-driven activities, arguing that the approach tends to neglect the other learners in the group. The researcher concurs that when the facilitator provides individual tutorials, some of the learners may be neglected. However, this is inevitable in personalised learning contexts, where an educator must take the gifted learners to greater heights. This is bound to happen in learning environments that comprise large numbers of learners, such as in developing countries where there are shortages of resources, such as classrooms and educators, the problem-driven activities approach may not be feasible. Then the approach is deemed to be uneconomical in these contexts, if educators spend long periods of time with individual learners in order to provide those learners with guidance and support. Rodrigo’s (2017) paper discusses the impact of learning models in higher education. It reveals the problem-driven activities model as a very practical approach that develops deep thinking skills in learners, while still being very time consuming. The evidence is that educators on one hand the educators require high-level skills and time for planning stimulating problem-driven activities and on the other hand, learners develop new knowledge and high level critical thinking skills. A gap therefore, exists for the development of practising educators, and for the training of future educators towards increased use of the problem-solving approach. In support, Dole et al. (2016) and Monstrom and Blumberg (2012), are among those who defend the approach by arguing that the challenges are characteristic of the approach. Every learner is unique, owing to individual differences, and deserves individual consideration, attention, and empathy

In the context of this study of the enactment of teaching and learning on NFEP programmes in a developing country, O’Sullivan (2004) used a case study to examine the implementation of the problem-driven activities approach in Namibian schools. The use of the problem-driven approach encountered some challenges. The case study raised questions about the use of the problem-driven approach as a foreign concept. Its effectiveness was negatively affected by the lack of resources and a different learning culture compared with the Western approach to learning. The researcher became skeptical of the transfer of learning, based on problem-driven activities. The findings suggested two variables that are also important to explore in this NFEP enactment study, pertaining to the availability of resources and learning culture, which are essential tools in policy enactment.

In conclusion, the problem-driven activities approach is a practical approach to learning (Rodrigo, 2017). Through the problem-driven activities approach, learners will each develop a personal identity that is linked to a culture of lifelong learning, by integrating the approach with the discipline-driven activities and the educator- driven model. The debate also pointed out the need to focus on policy content and other environmental factors that influence the choice of teaching activities. The CHAT refers to these factors as tools/artefacts that mediate the enactment of the activity (Foot, 2014).

3.2.6 Enactment tools

The concept of teaching is associated with imparting or instructing someone or causing someone to learn, suggesting that teaching is a change process (Smith, 2018). Accordingly, van den Akker (2003) inquires on the nature of tools that educators employ in order to effect this change. This discourse sets out to analyse the nature of the tools that may be used by educators and learners when enacting teaching and learning. The essence of the debates is to create a lens for understanding how educators enacting teaching in particular ways. There are several definitions of enactment tools. They include the following: tools as either any person or device that helps teachers teach and learners learn (Khoza, 2012; Khoza, 2015); or materials that are used for the development of learners (Reinders & White, 2009). They include the various didactically adapted materials that the educator can use during the teaching process for learners who are acquiring or revising their knowledge with the help of the materials (Mazgon & Stefanc, 2012).

The study views tools as educational materials for use in presenting teaching and learning, such as chalk, textbooks, videos and theories. Tangible and intangible tools are included in the concept of educational tools, for example, human beings and artefacts, like books and gadgets (tangible, with physical attributes) and knowledge and software (intangible, without physical attributes), which enhance educational change by communicating learning (Amory, 2010).

Having understood that an enactment tool is used for the purpose of strengthening the educators' efforts to teach, and the learners to learn, attention is given to understanding the influence of the educators when selecting each tool. Van den Akker (2010) posits that it is at the development stage of the intended knowledge that designers/developers are most influential at deciding the appropriateness of enactment tools. Similarly, educators, who are also designers of basic tools such as charts, handouts, and models, need to influence the selection of tools, by considering forms of enactment that drive their teaching. The implication is that, when educators are aware of the form of enactment and intention of the policy, they are able to link the tools to the policy knowledge. Khoza (2013) comments that awareness of forms of enactments and of policy intentions is a critical ingredient of successful teaching and learning.

Another important area where educators exert influence relates to aligning policy tools with the forms of knowledge. The notion of alignment is premised on the two types of knowledge that education systems promote, namely, vertical knowledge, and horizontal knowledge (Bernstein, 1999). Specific tools must be used to support the outcomes of a performance-oriented system (vertical knowledge) or a competence-driven system (horizontal knowledge). Educators should use tools that promote/advance learning of knowledge or competencies important to learners, such as for acquiring or revising their knowledge (Magzou & Stefanc, 2012). Van den Akker et al. (2010) add that addressing such areas that are of interest to learners motivates them, because educators are seen to respect their personal concerns and educational needs. Educators would have employed a problem-driven/learner-centred strategy, which places the learners at the forefront of the teaching and learning process (Blackie et al., 2010; Gunderman et al., 2003). When engaging learners using the problem-driven approach, learners are assisted to become accountable and responsible for their own learning processes (Dole et al., 2016; Rodrigo, 2017). In this case the learners are motivated to the extent of accessing the tools, such as books, during their own independent time and space (Reinders and White, 2009). However, availing the learning resources to learners needs to be

supported by educators who have the skills and attitudes to effectively transform teaching and learning, based on the available resources. As such, Amory (2010) contends that educators need to believe in the use of tools for effective learning, without having an abundance of resources that are on display in the knowledge environments. Similarly, the unguided use of books and journals (hardware and software), for example, has contributed to increase in acts of plagiarism, due to lack of information processing skills in the learners.

Nonetheless, at the learners' disposal are numerous types of educational tools, which, according to Magzon and Stefanc (2012), include:

“Materials which consist of books, encyclopedias, atlases, dictionaries, textbooks, etc.; that is, mostly written materials, which can be either printed or available in electronic form (on digital media or on-line). Both printed and electronic educational materials are indispensable in the teaching process, since they are – in addition to the teacher's direct explanation and other learning activities – an important source for students”. (p. 174).

This list of tools is a drop in the ocean with regard to the large amount of tools that should help educators to make learning meaningful. Although the list of types of tool is long, and the range is wide, Makumane (2018) points out that costs are often prohibitive. This is the case for most developing countries, including Zimbabwe, where costs of education outweigh financial resources that cannot meet the demand from growing populations. In addition, there are some subjects that need more specialised tools that are expensive to buy and to maintain (Adler, 2000), such as science education equipment. Shortages of essential tools are prevalent, especially in NFE which is considered a second option to education, behind formal education. On further reflection, Adler (2000) argues that the availability of more tools does not necessarily lead to better performance. Adler remarks: “There are wealthy schools that do not offer quality education to their pupils, and there are impoverished schools that succeed against all odds” (p. 206). Ahmed, Clark-Jeavons and Oldknow (2004) agree with Adler, that there are some instances when expensive commercial packages that contained interesting mathematics tools were not used. These remarks confirm that educators needed not always put the blame for poor-quality teaching and learning squarely on the shortage of tools. Educators tend to ignore a professional ritual of reflecting on their actions, despite overwhelming evidence that reflections empower educators to take action to improve teaching and learning (Khoza, 2015; Mabuza, 2018). In addition to introspections by educators on developing habits for the use of tools for teaching, Bolaji (2013) argues that educators need also

to be incentivised. The above suggestion confirm that institutions must engage qualified educators with appropriate TPACK, whom they reward equitably, in order to motivate them to be resourceful and to use available tools, effectively to achieve outcomes.

Adler (2000) offers another view that discourages an over-reliance on the supply of materials, whose inadequate supply has become a concern to some teachers. Following an analysis of the findings of a survey conducted in South Africa, the purpose of which was to investigate the availability of tools and their use in school mathematics teaching and learning, Adler (2000) argues that most headmasters and educators demanded more tools, in order to improve performance. Adler is of the view that, the educators tended to be focused on physical tools, owing to a mindset that the author refers to as ‘the common-sense’ notion of an education tool, that of a man- made object. This suggests that the educators had an understanding of educational tools that was limited to objects within their institutions, such as computers, books and buildings. Educators blamed poor-quality teaching on the lack of such tools. Instead, according to Adler (2000) supported by Khoza (2012; 2015) an educational ‘tool’ is a term that represents any person or resource that helps teachers teach and learners learn. The educators in the research study did not consider themselves as teaching resources. Educators were unaware of the full concept of a ‘tool’. In line with a concept of a tool which, includes educators and their knowledge and experience is the gap where educators without discipline TPACK have been hired as educators in the NFEP’ school model who may lack a full knowledge of how to use the range of tools, which Khoza (2012) says comprises hardware (HW), software (SW) and ideological-ware (IW) tools.

A detailed analysis of the tools is provided below, in search of an understanding of how educators enact teaching and learning, beginning with hardware tools.

3.2.6.1 Enactment hardware (HW) tools

Khoza (2012) posits that learning contexts are dichotomised into face-to-face and e-learning contexts. According to Partarrieu (2015), face-to-face teaching is dominated by educators helping learners to understand, interpret, and apply learning; while e-learning is characterised by learning that is enabled electronically (Arkoful & Abaidoo, 2014). What is common to these learning contexts is that learning is also facilitated through physical tools, known as hardware tools. The

term 'hardware' (HW) refers to any physical/tangible resource or tool that helps with the teaching and learning process (Khoza, 2015). The HW tools encompass both online and offline teaching tools (Budden, 2016; Ndlovu, 2016), such as chalkboards that are operated off-line, and are in common use in NFEP knowledge-environments. Desktops are the HW tools that contain the software (SW) tools that facilitate access to online learning material, such as web pages. The HW tools that support online teaching and learning include laptops, cellular phones, overhead projectors, SMART Boards, and tablets, says (Khoza, 2015). Admittedly, the e-learning trend is dynamic, with new hardware tools entering the market periodically, such as the recent Smart Tables that enhance learners' interaction in such subjects as language and mathematics.

However, hardware tools are not restricted to e-learning tools. Reference is made to Adler (2000), who, after she had explored the usage of tools among mathematics teachers in South Africa, argued for the reconceptualisation of mathematics teaching and learning tools in teacher-training and development programmes. According to Adler, there was a need to migrate from the common-sense concept of tools that described mathematics teaching, which excluded the educators. Educators were to be regarded as tools for offline teaching, and not as 'manipulators' of teaching objects, such as educators operating videos, SMART Boards and charts. In a study titled 'How Can Teaching Aids Improve the Quality of Mathematics Education', Ahmed et al. (2004) allude to the role of educators as being crucial in the use of tools. This implied that the educators were assets, in that they influence both choice and use of the tools.

Therefore, when educators gain an awareness and understanding of themselves as tools that facilitate the use of hardware tools, educators can reflect on their roles in teaching and learning (Makumane, 2018). Reflecting is important in that, when educators reflect on their practices, they interrogate their experiences, correct some errors, and proceed confidently with new work assignments (Khoza, 2015). Educators thus become more capable at facilitating learning when they see themselves as tangible tools, ensuring that learners gain clear instructions and the support they need in the use of tools. The educators must give clear instructions and feedback, in order to ensure that learners comply with the formal instructions relating to their using tools in education. Educators must operate within the acknowledged enactment framework, which places the knowledge of the discipline at the centre (Khoza, 2017).

In conclusion, the discourse explicates the importance of HW tools in a ‘new’ mindset: educators may no longer play the role of ‘manipulating’ the HW tools; however, they are to effectively guide the learning. HW tools alone, such as textbooks and classrooms, which are respected as standard classroom tools, cannot guarantee effective learning (Bolaji, 2014). Similarly, Budden (2016) comments that hardware tools are linked to software tools, as discussed below.

3.2.6.2 Enactment software (SW) tools

Software (SW) tools coexist with HW tools. Budden (2016) refers to this relationship as reciprocal, since in e-learning, HW tools and SW tools are codependent and exist with one another. Percival and Ellington (1988) say that, on one hand are tools that are tangible which are classified as technology in education (TIE), and on the other hand are the intangible tools which are, the technology of education (TOE). SW tools can only be delivered through a HW tool as in an e-book accessed through a web page that is housed in a laptop. This assertion resonates with Khoza’s (2012) definition of SW that regards SW tools as any material displayed on a HW tool for communication and teaching and learning purposes. Technically, the delivery platform is that on which the SW tool becomes visible or audible only, and ensures that SW tools remain intangible. The common platforms for generating SW tools are web-based systems such as the Internet. Any access to e-learning tools is via the World Wide Web, whose acronym is <http://www>. Budden (2016) highlights the philosophy that drives the use of SW tools as “a socio-constructivist approach coupled with the notion of experiential research that invites students to become mediators of their own development.” (p. 270). Educators must understand the rationale for choosing SW tools and for reflecting on their outcomes, ensuring that SW tools support teaching and learning effectively. Makumane (2018) remarked that a communal enactment influences an educator to incorporate SW resources following reflections on the learners’ need to adopt e-learning.

In addition to SW e-learning tools that are online and are intangible, Ndlovu (2016) provides a list of examples that include audio-tape recorders, video-tape recorders, slide projectors, opaque projectors, and overhead projectors, still pictures, programmed instruction, filmstrips, maps, and charts. Most of the tools that are mentioned appear to have been pushed into extinction in developed countries in favour of e-learning. NFEP school model relies on community funding and is bound to rely heavily on tangible SW tools such as charts and overhead slides. In fact, the NFE

institution is generally a low-cost institution (Gathumbi & Mosoti, 2015), in which tangible SW tools promote communal actions for learning. When learners interact with peers, with and around the SW tools, such as charts and shared books, they do so for communal enactment reasons, for socialising and for sharing information.

Amory (2010) confirms that SW tools facilitate interaction and collaborative problem-solving. On a similar note, the intangible SW tools, such as Skype and WhatsApp create individualised learning platforms that lead to personalised learning. Reinders and White, (2009) affirm that such e-learning platforms help learners to create their unique identities, in which they control the access to e-learning tools, inclusive of the selection of content. This confirms that learners need to be self-directed. SW tools (e-learning) have an empowering force that calls for a disciplined approach, so that learners may successfully achieve their personal learning goals (Reinders & White, 2009).

Budden (2016) argues that the value of SW in teaching is its cost-effectiveness. Clark, Strudler and Gove (2015) concur with Budden on the financial implications by highlighting the benefits of asynchronous and synchronous learning that SW resources can facilitate which include, learner-centredness and the control of learning. Redmond (2011) explains synchronous learning as learning by many learners who have access to the same resources, are linked via Internet, and participating in discussion at the same time (real-time), such as using chat rooms. Asynchronous learning denotes the opposite, in terms of timing (not real time) where emails are used.

Educators have crucial roles to play in ensuring that learners benefit from the use of the SW tools. According to Anderson, (2004) e-learning places the following demands on the educators, a 'presence', in which they design the learning experience. This informs educators to help select the content and ensure that there is access to the tools; encouraging interaction between educators and learners, and between learners and learners. Such interactions promote collaborative learning and moderating of the learning experience. Educators need to utilise every opportunity to add to the content, provide feedback, and above all, to assess the learners' performance. According to Khoza (2017), educators' actions are performed to fulfill a reason. Educators, who enact curriculum by using SW tools, are driven by the acknowledged enactment. The vertical knowledge of the intended policy is enacted; also the enactment approach that promotes interaction and shared problem-solving strategies. Since one of the roles of the educators in e-learning is to select suitable

content and to provide feedback to learners, the selection and use of theories is informed by ideological-ware tools (Khoza, 2017), as shown below.

3.2.6.3 Enactment ideological-ware (IW) tools

According to Nemes (Ed) (1996) the French philosopher Destutt de Tracy (1784-1836), coined the word 'idéologie', meaning 'the science of ideas'. The researcher understands the concept of ideology as representing a framework of ideas; while the CHAT adopts the concept of conceptual tools (Foot, 2014; Hancock & Miller, 2018). Ideological-ware tools exist in the mind, and educators would have become aware that IW tools help with the identification of HW and SW tools that promote effective teaching and learning (Makumane, 2018). The IW tool is the enactment tool that an educator uses to identify relevant hardware (HW) and software (SW) tools for teaching and learning purposes (Khoza, 2012). Khoza (2015) concurs with Amory (2010) that learning is not about technology; it is about the ideology that informs the technological tool. In other words, educators use cognitive processes to manage their own actions, in order to effectively use tools such as SW technology (Davids 2013; Percival & Ellington 1988). This shows the importance of the IW tools and educators need to understand how to effectively use towards the attainment of learning outcomes. The IW tools facilitate the alignment of content with goals of learning, based on the ideology of the individual educator (Taole, 2013). Educators need to constantly reflect on their ideas, experiences, and their own knowledge about teaching and the use of tools (Khoza, 2015).

Khoza (2015) conducted a case study seeking to establish whether some twenty-two student teachers were aware of the IW tools that guided teaching based on the South African curriculum and assessment policy statement (CAPS). The study's findings revealed that the educators were not aware of such IW tools. The student teachers were therefore, teaching without an understanding of the IW tools that informed the CAPS. Educators' practices were not aligned with those of CAPS, and therefore, needed to acquire the theoretical constructs that were necessary for facilitating teaching and learning. This shows that when educators are endowed with IW, they form habits of reflecting on their teaching style and experiences, through which the educators formulate their own inventories of practise (Khoza, 2012), hence their personal identities. The personal identities that frame IW tools are in the form of ideas about teaching, pedagogical content knowledge, and

theories of teaching and learning (Adler, 2000; Khoza, 2012). This showed that the educators were to reflect on the IW tools in order to improve their teaching and learning.

When educators use IW tools, which comprise the educator's personal knowledge of learners, theories of teaching and learning, HW, SW tools, and experience, the IW tools are then linked to the committed enactments (Ndlovu, 2016). The committed enacted is framed by the use of the educator's personal intellectual resources and each educator has a unique set of a personal attributes to summon for teaching and learning enactment purposes. Since the ideas can be personal, Khoza (2015) labels IW tools the personal technologies. Such technologies must be consciously developed, since they should be linked to the learning outcomes, contrary to Ndlovu's (2016) claim that all IW tools are inherent in educators. On this note, Khoza (2015) urges teacher educators to prioritise programmes that support educators with the identification of discipline-specific theories that underpin curriculum enactment. It has become the practice that every discipline aspires to engage trained educators who can use their existing personal technologies to sustain and develop the disciplines, based on their teaching skill. However, and correctly too, Mukeredzi (2009) argues that most teachers of adults are unqualified, and therefore, they are not being guided by a theory of adult teaching, as located in the discipline's TPACK. The observation should stimulate researches that contribute to debates on tackling the problem. In a nutshell, the discourse has shown that there is no teaching without educational resources. It now behooves the study to understand how the educators use them and for what specific reasons. The successful use of HW, SW, and IW tools is contingent on the nature of the tools and the individual educator's committed form of enactment that includes previous training, experience, and foresight regarding the influence of decisions on teaching and learning. The knowledge environments in which the teaching and learning occurs are discussed below.

3.3 Conclusion

This chapter explored the meaning of enactment as it relates to education policy enactment. It also examined the intentions of policy enactment and such implications to educators enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes, together with the learners in schools. Under policy knowledge, the discourse revealed two principal forms of content which frame teaching and learning, referred to as vertical and horizontal knowledge. In terms of their functions, vertical knowledge creates a

performance-oriented curriculum, while horizontal knowledge ensures the construction of a ‘life-world of practical mastery’ (Bernstein, 1999). The implications that are inherent in education curricula that are in pursuit of performance and competence goals were enunciated in the context of NFEP enactment in schools, and by other research studies. This resulted in the awareness of gaps that were yet to be filled. For example, the general shortage of teaching and learning materials needed to be approached from the acknowledged, communal and committed enactment view in order to convince a diverse range of stakeholders. There was also the assumption by education managers, that curriculum issues were common to all educators in a particular discipline by virtue of their training, and yet each system has its own specific TPACK (Guerriero (2014). This gap in TPACK led to another gap in that educators needed to be assisted to recontextualise the TPACK (Singh, Harris & Thomas, 2013). The chapter also examined the complexities associated with accessibility of learning from two convergent positions, that of NFEP learners, and that of the educators. The following chapter, Chapter Three, explores specific concepts that facilitate the enactment of teaching and learning in NFEP programmes in schools. These are the roles of the educators, their activities, the tools, and the knowledge environments used for teaching and learning, as well as the time perspectives and evaluation approaches that determine the attainment of the teaching and learning goals.

CHAPTER FOUR: POLICY CONCEPTS INFORMING EDUCATORS' ENACTMENT RATIONALE

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on relevant literature that was used to understand the enactment phenomenon's practices. This phenomenon's activity, namely teaching and learning became pivotal in establishing the curriculum concepts that influence the way educators enact teaching in order to attain learning outcome, effectively. Most of all, the chapter demonstrated the influence of the enactment content, resources, accessibility to learning as well the particular activities. The discourses and case studies exposed gaps in the way educators enact teaching and learning, such as the habitual use of educator-centred activities, in order to fulfill their own needs for control, at the expense of the learners. This suggests that power of CHAT's mediating elements such as the community and resources. Chapter Three explores the literature that addresses Research Question Three, on understanding the rationale for the choice of the particular teaching practices and impact on teaching and learning in NFEP's programmes in schools. It interrogates the importance of the enactment time rule, enactment goals and enactment assessment. Last, the theory that emerges from the literature is presented.

4.2 Enactment time rule

In general, the concept of time denotes a structuring element in today's society (Burny, Valcke & Desoete, 2009). Time is used for determining the nature of society's dynamic elements, such as education. These opening remarks convey the notion that time has unique and strong influence on people's actions, including teaching and learning. However, the concept is complex (Burny et al. 2009), with most definitions found in hard sciences, such as in geography, mathematics, logic, and artificial intelligence. Nonetheless, in the context of education, time is regarded as a component of a measuring system that is used to sequence events, to compare the duration of events, and the intervals between them (Burny et al. 2009).

In fact, in the context of this study, the time by which learners need to attain vertical knowledge outcomes in the schools-model programmes, has been set by acknowledged enactment professionals. In the same context of timed measurements, Mabuza (2018) raises the point that

time is also used in predicting achievement. Wilson (2003) concurs with Mabuza when he argues that the time spent on learning has a significant impact on learning outcomes. This suggests that the contextual use of adequate and inadequate time exists. Therefore, when educators' teaching and learning is contingent upon time, the research then seeks to explore how they teach and why they do in particular ways.

Khoza (2013) urges educators to set clear outcomes that drive their enactments. This suggests that the outcomes should be in harmony with the available. The educators who understand and use policy concepts to enact teaching and learning are bound to use their committed enactment to select either the acknowledged or the communal forms of enactment. The enactments are supported by a sound grounding in curriculum concepts that frame the CHAT, for creating a balance between the choosing how to enact teaching and justifying the enactments. On a similar note, van den Akker (2010) prefers the use of a form of enactment that clarifies the time that is available for teaching activities. In articulating the importance of time, Scheeren (2013) stresses that, for good schooling to occur, learners have to be exposed to learning over time, during which the realisation of learning outcomes is to happen. Therefore, time is an investment in the development of human capital (Guryan, Hirst & Kearny, 2008). In the enactment of teaching and learning, time has to be set aside for the activity. On the same note, Khoza (2013) points out that educators have to determine a suitable amount of time in which learning outcomes are to be achieved, at either short- or long-term intervals. Van den Akker (2010) concurs with Khoza, who adds that allocation of time is essential to determine how much time can be spent on specific learning tasks. This suggests that the attribute of matching time with content and learning outcomes sits in the personal identities of subject specialists who have in-depth knowledge of the complexity of their subjects. Meanwhile, Ndlovu (2016) also reminds that time is a finite resource. On this score, Makumane (2018) urges educators to adhere to the time that would have been set aside for each subject/module, acknowledging that 'time and tide wait for no man'. The reality of time is that it marches on at its own pace, while educators have to work timeously in order to meet targets. Therefore, time should be devoted to ensuring the success of teaching and learning (Budden, 2017). Educators enacting a performance-driven curriculum are to ensure that the learners are presented for assessment whether or not the learners have mastered the entire set of facts for the period under review.

This makes it imperative for educators to understand ‘the meaning of time as a factor in education productivity’ Scheerens (2013), with its other terms, such as allocated, instructional, engaged or time-on-the-task. Therefore, when educators become familiar with various types of educational time, and the effects on teaching and learning (Cotton, 1985; Mabuza, 2018), they know which type to use in order to enact teaching and learning, effectively. The studies that have been reviewed so far are deficient on information that provides insights into how educators manage the time and why they chose particular strategies. Such information will contribute to debates whose agenda is the improvement of education. Instruction time is discussed first because it is often adjudged to be the most crucial time of all teaching and learning time (Hehar-Horenstein, 2006).

4.2.1 Enactment instructional time

Cotton (1985) refers to instructional time as time that educators spend on delivering particular forms of knowledge and skill. Educators who deliver facts are guided by the acknowledged enactment, during which they use content that is specific to a subject or learning area (Khoza, 2017). In doing so, educators should ensure that the content and the time allocated to a programme and the instructional time is influenced by assessment (Khoza, 2013). Learners must be ready for assessment when the time is due for educators who will be enacting a vertical curriculum. Therefore, the available instruction time has to be fully utilised for this purpose, so that the learners may be assured of quality learning.

Gujjar and Noareen (2009) insist that, although educators had other classroom-management functions to perform, such activities disrupted events that fall within instruction-time, resulting in loss of actual instruction time, and were to be eliminated. In an attempt to quantify the losses in instruction time, Heharr-Horenstein (2006) embarked on a case study that sought to quantify the losses in instructional time that occurred in a K-12 school. The findings of the mixed-methods study revealed significant losses that ranged between 14% and 39%. Both the educators and the learners had contributed to the losses in instructional time. The implications were that a lost opportunity to instruct learners would be difficult to recover; and the quality of learning was bound to be compromised (Behar-Holstein, 2006). Educators should reflect on their instruction and classroom-management practices, given that they need to be aware of their instruction visions. The study exposes a gap whereby the educators did not contribute information about their efforts to

overcome the challenges and the knowledge that they constructed on ways to negotiate time constraints and reasons for selecting particular ways of managing time. Educators involved with NFEP enactment would later, become aware that their actions and those of the learners towards efforts to control and manage the time by teaching in particular ways based on the mediation of CHAT elements.

An analysis of the literature on the effect of time and suggested coping strategies reveals that instructing in the acknowledged enactment requires that educators use established forms of knowledge which they have to deliver uniformly to learners (Makumane (2018). This suggests that under such conditions, the traditional face-to-face approaches dominate instruction-time sessions (Ndlovu, 2016). Redmond (2011) calls it the ‘same time, same place’ approach, using the traditional face-to-face strategies.

The face-to-face approach is a traditional teaching approach in which the educator and learners are in the same knowledge environment (Ahmed, 2013; Mascolo, 2009). The educator has access to a group of learners at the same time, using the same resources (Celik, 2018). Dole et al. (2016) agree that educator-centred instruction gives educators control of the curriculum. What is embodied in this assertion is the control of time by the educator to use for determining the pace of teaching the content, activities, and evaluation. Educators prefer the use of traditional face-to-face instruction (Khoza, 2013), since all learners must be able to interpret all content. This reveals a need for educators to create an effective learning environment. Furthermore, Makumane (2018) suggests that seating should be arranged in such a way that permits active participation; and the use of educational tools by educators and learners. Although the traditional classroom with learners facing the blackboard is but one of the strategies that could help with the management of instructional time, Redmond (2011) suggests that educators should, in light of great strides in technology, consider the use of e-learning and virtual KEs.

“This virtual space replicates the many aspects of the face-to-face spaces with all participants having access to the same resources, files and synchronous discussion at the same time” (Redmond, 2011, p. 1052).

Today, some educators utilise synchronous technology tools, such as Moodle, SMART Boards, Skype and WhatsApp to interact with their learners at the same time in the same virtual space (Brunner, 2016). The use of technology has created learning, also called hybrid delivery, mixed-mode learning, and flexible learning. Such a form of instruction is a combination of face-to-face

and on-line instruction. This indicates a changing role for educators in which they maintain regular contact with learners who are at a distance, but without travelling long distances or incurring related costs such as for accommodation and food, time and risk. Educators must consider such modes of instruction where possible, although the enactment of the NFEP in rural KEs requires structural adjustments to classrooms, financial inputs, and qualified educators to the drive e-learning. Ndlovu (2016), in a study on the enactment of art education in schools in Zimbabwe, observed that NFE is underfunded. That is an understatement since the MoPSE does not allocate money even for the payment of the educators, citing harsh economic times. In which case NFE is unfunded and expecting it to migrate to the use of modern technology is a long term vision.

Khoza (2013) urges educators to consider e-learning modes of instruction. The adoption of e-learning favours ‘digital natives’ while ‘digital immigrants’ face challenges with computer technology for enacting teaching. Khoza (2013) describes ‘digital immigrants’ as people who are computer illiterate, while ‘digital natives’ are those with good computer-use competencies and adaptive tendencies. Furthermore, Khoza (2018) suggests that educators need to reflect on their instruction and critically answer “the questions of ‘what’ (technical), ‘how’ (practical) and ‘why’ within one’s teaching practices ...” (p. 4). Redmond (2011) responds by suggesting the adoption of blended instruction. In blended learning, e-learning enables fast-paced educator-learner interactive participation at a distance, and at convenient KEs and time. A single phase of instructional time can therefore, be used to accomplish learning outcomes for large numbers of learners in KEs in and outside school settings, and anywhere for a learner or groups of learners prefer to access learning. The other type of time is the allocated time.

4.2.2 Enactment allocated time

Allocated time is the amount of time that is formally specified for an educational activity (Scheeren, 2013). In other words, it is the time that has been broken down and allocated to learning, thus, it can be viewed as the ‘clock time’ schedule for learning for a particular class (Cotton, 1985). The NFEP does not allocate the time, but school management has the prerogative to do so. As such the NFEP programmes enactment time is two hours a day for the four days that lessons are conducted. Commenting on management’s decisions on the allocation of time, Ndlovu (2016) says that such decisions reflect the worth of the discipline as construed by the management.

Ironically, it is management who will again, be in the forefront during the adjudication of the performance of the educators, which will be based on measures of time that are stated as termly and annually achievements. The actual allocated time would have been distorted. This points out that the amount of time that is invested in education is a predictor of what is to come within an allocated time (Burny et al. 2009). Educators need to be aware that teaching will always vary according to time (Hancock & Miller, 2018), implying that time influences teaching and learning.

Gettinger (1985) conducted a study that explored the effects of allocated time on the overall achievement, based on reading rates among fourth and fifth graders in America. The participants were treated to a number of trials that were recorded in order to see how many trials a participant needed to do in order to attain a net score of 100% reading mastery of a book. The results revealed that allocating time, and spending inadequate learning time, had a direct and negative impact on the rate of the attainment of intended outcomes. The findings revealed a direct relationship exists between allocated time and expected results. Therefore, allocated time has an impact on the educator, who should be allocated ample time to cover the intended subject matter effectively, and to demonstrate all necessary learning activities during the allocated time (Mabuza, 2018). This shows that allocated time has an impact on a number of related aspects, such as selection of approaches, tools, the knowledge environment, including the actual engaged time with learners and above all, on the choice and use of particular teaching strategies and their justifications.

4.2.3 Enactment engaged time

Derived from the verb to ‘engage’ which is to involve, engaged time relates to the time during which learners are engaged in a particular activity (Berliner, 1990). This refers to the time when the learners seem to be engrossed in, for example, learning material, with verbal presentations and e-learning resources, such as watching and listening to videos. However, it is argued that the act of being ‘physically engaged’ is not a guarantee that learning is taking place, educators can be busy and efficient, but without being effective at achieving results. It is a stimulus to learning, since there are expected outcomes associated with the use of engaged time (Scheerens, 2013, Ed). On this note, Scheerens emphasises that educators and learners should desist from engaging in disruptive activities such as socialising, walking about, and even leaving the KEs during engaged-time sessions. In a study of what occurred during engaged time in some US schools, Hehar-

Horenstein (2006) listed disruptive behaviour that learners resorted to, for example, making loud interjections, singing, tirades at the educator and to other learners, and leaving the room without permission. For their part, the educators disrupted engaged time learning, for example, by their unpreparedness, improperly diverting time to other activities, dominance, unclear instructions, and taking disciplinary action during engaged time.

However, although these types of disruptions may not be generalised to Zimbabwe, for example, owing to socio-economic and cultural differences, the study highlighted the need for both the educators and learners to utilise effectively the engaged time. Next and last, the time-on-task is discussed below.

4.2.4 Enactment time-on-task

Dessem (1999) argues that good practise in education should include time based on the rationale that such time provides learners with opportunities for the assimilation of learning. Although the terms engaged time and time-on-task are sometimes used interchangeably (Mabuza, 2018) because they denote engaging learners in some activity, there is a distinction between them. The distinctive feature is that, while time-on-task refers to the time that learners are actively involved with attending to instructional material (Treptow, Burns & McComas, 2007), engaged time refers to the time when learners will be paying attention to learning, such as to a lecture (Berliner, 1990). Therefore, to the learners, time-on-task is more confining in its scope than engaged time. During time-on-task, learners are involved in a particular task on which the net time will be quantified (Scheerens, 2013, Ed). For instance, when NFEP learners are developing instructional material on basic literacy, the net time is the proportion of time during which the activity is conducted.

Mabuza (2018) observes that engaging learners in time-on-task is demanding for the educator. The researcher was commenting on experiences of educators involved in the pedagogy of forma education learners. Andragogy practice would be less demanding to enact since adult learners are mature and subject areas, either formally or informally. Nonetheless, educators will still need to carefully plan and demonstrate each activity. Educators must recognise the nature of the task (Hill & Laufer, 2003), in view of the effect of the task on the time. The effect is largely on managing the time, based on selected activities and having to account for the actions in the context of this study. Non-formal education should be seen to respond to the educational needs of the learners

(Weyer, 2009), while the opposite has the effect of frustrating the learners (Treptow et al. 2007), which leads to drop-outs. It behooves educators to prepare thoroughly for time-on-task learning. Educators enacting policy using time-on-task use a variety of enactment approaches. The acknowledged enactment influences the attainment of learning outcomes within the expected net time. The committed enactment influences the choice of relevant tasks by the educator, based on knowledge and practise, while communal enactment ensures that learning to do the tasks will address learners' and community needs. However, the ultimate test of the level of policy goal attainment, of which time is a factor, is a matter for the evaluation of the NFEP knowledge and skill, which is discussed below.

4.3 Enactment evaluation

This section discusses the concept of evaluation, based on current literature on what constitutes evaluation and its effect on educators' reasons for the use of particular teaching and learning approaches, in the context of the enactment of the NFEP' programmes. Purposes and approaches are discussed which focus on the effect of evaluation in NFEP programmes in the school model. The concept of evaluation is interchangeable with assessment.

Calidoni-Lundberg (2006) traces the origin of the evaluation concept to the Chinese almost four thousand years ago. The concept has attracted many definitions over time, owing to the large numbers of actors engaged in debating the concept. Actors subsequently developed their own different aims and objectives, methods, and priorities, adds Calidoni-Lundberg (2000). Evaluation represents a tool that people use to 'glance backward' into developmental programmes, in order to assess progress made and to support learning in the future. (Houston & Thompson, 2017; Yuksel & Gunduz, 2017). Bennett (2005) views evaluation as a way of collecting data about learners' achievements and abilities. This conception of evaluation aligns itself with the general notion of a process of determining the extent to which objectives have been attained. Evaluation, therefore, can be regarded as an act of determining the results of a programme or an act judging the merits of a process. Under such notions, crucial decisions always accompany the process of evaluation, such as whether or not duplicate one's ways of teaching or not, or to re-engage the process, but with some adjustments having been made (Dorit, 2017). Wolf, Hill and Evers (2006) offer an alternative view of evaluation, that of a process that is intended to improve learning by analysing

data that would have been generated from multiple sources. Educators must therefore, generate reliable and valid data that can be used to influence sustainable improvement (van den Akker, 2010). This may be achieved, for example, when the feedback information can generate more interest from the learners, motivating them to apply self-regulated learning (Tabone & Weltsek, 2019; Udeani & Kayode, 2018). The current NFEP enactment of evaluation is a process that involves the data generation from the learners for use by educators during and after the teaching has been terminated. Literature pointed to a process that may be used in establishing current progress in teaching and learning, and for predicting future trends (Udeani & Kayode, 2018). This suggests that the data were generated and analysed, provided the rationale for devising strategies for future use and doing so may include the need to for the sustainability of the teaching enactment process. Instruments such as tests, examinations, and observations that characterise the school-model for NFE teaching and learning produced the data, while ensuring the use of the goals to frame the evaluation processes (Khoza, 2015). Therefore, evaluation in this study was framed by objectives of the NFEP programmes on teaching and learning.

Dorit (2017) observes a relationship that exists between learning and evaluation that aims to improve education (Eret, 2018). Ndlovu (2016) highlights that the relationship develops from the ability of evaluation to generate data. The data were to be used to inform both the educators and learners of their performance in teaching and learning, as well to communicate the quality of education interventions to the community that includes policymakers. Therefore, this perspective of evaluation expresses the communicative function of evaluation to two major interested parties, namely, the educators and learners on one hand (Black and William, 2006), and the community whose common interest is the behavioural changes in learners. Evaluation data must reveal the extent to which the behaviour of the learners is aligned with the intention of policy (Makumane, 2018). According to Tyler (1949), the fundamental issue in evaluation is about determining whether the goals of education are being achieved. Tyler's comment gives a hint that educators have to account for their enactments, based on goal attainment as a defining theme for educators. Accordingly, the consumption of evaluation data is in the present life of the teaching and learning activity.

On a similar note, Khoza (2018) posits that evaluation is mostly about what is currently unfolding in teaching and learning, by focusing on what the students have achieved. Evaluation involves

generating and interpreting data about teaching (Combrinck and Hatch, 2012). Furthermore, Khoza (2015) is of the view that educators should focus on goals in order to achieve success in evaluation, on the understanding that this will enable them to measure performance (Ngubane-Mokiwa & Khoza, 2016). However, the focus on goals by the majority of educators enacting the NFEP programmes in schools might be a challenge. Educators are on temporary assignments since they are hired to enact NFEP programmes, and may not have been fully inducted into the programmes (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Report, 2016). Calidoni-Lundberg (2006), says performance can be measured quantitatively and qualitatively, using two sub-concepts of evaluation: the summative, and formative approaches.

Understanding the evaluation concept through its sub-concepts could help to address Tyler's (1949) concerns about evaluation, by providing more insight into how education goals are being achieved. Yuksel and Gunduz (2017) argue that this dichotomy helps educators to understand the impact of the evaluation data from each approach on the behaviour and attitudes of learners, rather than from focusing on a generalised approach. These sub-concepts are formative (evaluation for learning), which primarily focuses on the needs of educators and learners; and summative (evaluation of learning), whose goals mainly serve the interests of the community. Udeani and Kayode (2018) conducted a study that assessed the goals of art education, in which teachers and students participated. The researchers reported that both students and their parents expressed interest in a sustainable art education programme. This indicates that the results of the formative evaluation also affect the community. Indeed, parents are keen to ensure that their children successfully complete the learning and the community at large has an interest in the skills that may reach the community for use in socio-economic development. Therefore, educators enacting formative evaluation should include communal enactment goals and vice versa, when conducting summative evaluation. Khoza (2013) emphasises that 'learning outcomes should be designed to accommodate both formative and summative assessment strategies' (p. 3). Summative evaluation (evaluation of learning) is discussed first.

4.3.1 Enactment summative evaluation (evaluation for learning)

Buchholtz, Krosanke, Orschulik and Vorhölter (2018) opine that summative evaluation is a way of determining the degree of the achievements, based on defined standards that are to be

accomplished over a set time. Local schools that conduct end-of-term evaluations are using the summative evaluation approach. Houston and Thompson (2017) add that summative evaluation is used for justifying the grading or ranking of learners for comparative purposes. Institutions compare themselves with similar institutions; while learners rate themselves based on others' achievements. In addition, summative evaluation results are required by employers as proof of a prospective employee's academic achievements, as well as for the award of other symbols of achievements (Houston & Thompson, 2017), such as outstanding learner of the year. Furthermore, Singh (2011) argues that the criterion that is used for comparative purposes is justifiable based on alignment with goals of the programme.

By focusing on providing feedback on learning, summative evaluation is then referred to as evaluation of learning (Khoza, 2015; Yuksel & Gunduz, 2017). Summative evaluation is used in order to certify the learning that should have occurred during the entire duration of an intervention or at agreed intervals, such as school terms. Ndlovu (2016) points out that all the rubrics that embody a set of measures are expected to frame summative evaluation. Similarly, learners are expected to have mastered the entire content over a defined period, so that the evaluation results must be a true reflection of what the learners achieved. Therefore, summative evaluation is a process which seeks to ensure that the content that has been imparted is evaluated. The approach is aligned with the acknowledged form of enactment that is dominated by the cognitive domain (Khoza, 2016). This indicates that summative evaluation influences educators to teach while focusing on quantifiable evaluation results and not on behavioural outcomes which are qualitative. In other words, the goal of summative evaluation is to drive numbers that show the performance ratings of learners (quantitative goal) (Calidoni-Lundberg, 2006), by imposing certain behaviour on educators. This suggests that the channel for influencing behaviour change in the learners is the way the educators process the evaluation data. Yuksel and Gunduz (2017), state that the approach influences educators use the data and a pedagogy that produces learners for evaluation. Educators adopt an educator-centred pedagogy that favours the creation of a teaching environment in which facts are offloaded to the learners.

In addition, results from summative evaluation are mainly given for making comparisons and grading promotions associated with such evaluations (Houston & Thompson, 2017). As a consequence, educators who enact summative evaluation limit the amount of interpersonal

feedback sessions between educators and learners (Yuksel & Gunduz, 2017). Educators and learners focus on evaluations, such as examinations, thereby short-changing every learner's learning cycle. For instance, in the enactment of teaching and learning within the NFEP programmes; learners expect individual tutoring and consultation sessions, in order to access solutions to individual learning problems, which educators are pressed to for reasons known to them. The study challenges the educators to reveal these reasons. Next, the focus of the discussion turns to formative evaluation.

4.3.2 Formative evaluation (evaluation for learning)

Goals for formative evaluation focus on promoting individual learner's development, such that formative evaluation is termed evaluation for learning (Calidoni-Lundberg, 2006). This indicates that much value can be derived for the benefit of the learners well before they complete their term of studies. In reality, in conducting formative evaluation, educators have to diagnose, interpret, and provide learners with feedback that projects the expected improvements (Buchholtz et al., 2018), while the teaching and learning activity is being enacted. In contrast with the summative, the evaluation concept, formative evaluation becomes part of the learning, hence it is evaluation for learning and it views learning as a continuous process (Khoza, 2015). Berkvens et al. (2014) stress that formative evaluation or assessment is a process of assessing individual learning during the teaching activity using feedback data to inform individual learning. Hence, educators use formative assessment (assessment for learning) as a part of learning when they assess learners on their accumulation of relevant information, adds Khoza (2015). Formative evaluation does not set rigid timelines for mastery of content (Houston & Thompson, 2017), but sets conducive environments that suit individual learners on learning how to learn (Jarvis, 2009; Knowles, 1980). Therefore, formative evaluation is a learner-centred approach which values 'feeding back' to the learners, such that it can be referred to as the 'feedback processing evaluation,' in which feedback should assist learners to shape their own future. Mabuto and Ndlovu (2014) refer to formative evaluation information as having the potential to improve teaching and learning. Accordingly, it becomes incumbent on educators to analyse the opportunity to use the information as it surfaces during teaching and learning. Khoza (2015) avers that the information that is collected indicates to educators where the learners need their support. By this comment, Khoza indicates that the

formative evaluation information should be used to provide timely feedback, so as to enhance teaching and learning. At the same time, educators have to live up to the task by following a ritual that is performed at every opportunity.

The approach affirms itself with the constructivist philosophy, in which learners create their own identities using the feedback sessions to make decisions about their future (Houston & Thompson, 2017). The engaged time when learners receive feedback needs to be maximized. Ndlovu (2016) advises educators to attend to those areas that learners must focus on in their quest for growth. The educators owe it to the learners to be alert to the activities and behaviours of learners during instructional, engaged and time-on-task periods with learners. Such engagements are ‘fertile zones’ for detecting opportunities for assisting the learners. Likewise, this is a process that requires the learners to become self-directed learners, using feedback for learning and for increasing self-motivation (Tabone & Weltsek, 2019). If the formative evaluation approach is implemented discreetly, it results in learners having to learn in systematic ways in which they are developed in order to drive their learning, add Tabone and Weltsek. This shows a system that shapes the learners positively and has the potential of keeping the learners motivated in their own learning.

The research argues that learning outcomes are best achieved when educators are clear of the evaluation construct and the evaluation processes that are grounded on policy. Hence, the curriculum must provide the necessary guidance to educators who will enact teaching and learning in particular ways that are goal-directed. While the NFEP does not have a definition of evaluation, a study by Chen, May, Klenowski & Kettle (2014) revealed the Chinese government’s own definition of formative evaluation:

“The procedural and developmental assessment conducted during the process of teaching and learning ... Specifically, it is a means to adapt various assessment approaches and a means to follow up on the teaching and learning process, and to provide timely feedback so as to enhance students’ overall development. It facilitates the effective monitoring of students’ autonomous learning. Formative assessment includes self-assessment, peer-assessment, and assessment conducted by teachers and school administrators. It is used to observe, evaluate and monitor the learning process for the purpose of enhancing effective learning” (Chinese Ministry of Education, 2007).

The Chinese concept of formative evaluation is quite comprehensive by providing the rationale, the variety of approaches and the benefits to all stakeholders. In addition, policy ideas and principles that guide the strategies educators are expected to use when enacting formative

evaluation are tabled. Educators are, therefore, capacitated to conduct evaluation as part of the education policy enactment. While education policies differ from country to country, a standard practice that informs educators through an acknowledged enactment will be welcomed by educators who require consistent practice in conducting evaluations for learning and of learning. In addition, the educators must assess themselves and reflect on their actions so as to improve the enactment of teaching and learning, where necessary.

4.4 Conclusion

Chapter Four was a search for literature that would support an inquiry towards producing an informed response to Question Three. The question sought to understand the rationale for the particular ways that educators engaged learners, during teaching and learning. It was prudent to explore specific policy concepts, whose influence would manifest in particular ways of teaching that educators would be able to account for. The literature review revealed that the concepts represented a set of concepts that educators frequently interacted with when enacting teaching and learning. These concepts were the time rule, enactment goals and enactment assessment.

The enactment of teaching and learning that was based on these concepts was likely to provide educators with both planned and unplanned opportunities to construct unique enactment ways and meanings of such actions. Accordingly, the policy concepts were presented as links of the same chain (van den Akker, 2010) or segments of the curriculum dartboard, and in a manner that was uniquely synchronous with other components in the enactment of the NFEP's school-model programmes. While the literature had been clear in its analogy of links of the same chain (van den Akker et al., 2010), a gap had surfaced in the form of a challenge to educators to demonstrate sound understanding of TPACK, when applying the concepts to teaching and learning. This suggests that educators who reflect on their teaching were likely to find the rationale for engaging in particular ways of teaching that were supported by their conceptualisations. In this study, the educators were going to exhibit FE curriculum TPACK more than those for NFEP, This would lead to tensions and confusion, among the educators and learners.

Educators' enactment decisions need to be supported by educators' sound TPACK, which frame their personal identities (Samuel, 2009). Accordingly, sound grounding in curriculum concepts

that frame the CHAT, become an essential IW resource. Educators need to make sound decisions that take cognisance of mediation factors that characterise the enactment activity (Foot, 2014). On this note, the discourse engages the CHAT, in order to analyse and value the influence of its elements. The CHAT undergirds the study in its quest for guided in-depth data generation and analysis, where complex translation and interpretation are performed (Sheikh & Bagley, 2018).

CHAPTER FIVE: IMAGING THE CULTURAL HISTORICAL ACTIVITY THEORY (CHAT) FOR EXPLORING NON-FORMAL EDUCATION POLICY ENACTMENT

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Two discussed relevant literature for use in framing the enactment paradigm in non-formal education policy enactment, which comprises the acknowledged, committed, and communal forms of enactment. This was followed by Chapter Three, which gave an exposition of the concepts that were used to unpack the enactment of teaching and learning in non-formal education policy programmes school-model. Chapter Four followed with an inquiry that was linked to Question Four, in search of answers to why teaching and learning happened the way it did. This sequenced presentation was central to the exploration of the enactment phenomenon in the school-model, for contextualised insights towards bridging the gap between visualised enactments and informed rationale for the educators' actions. The insights gained were to contribute to theory towards debates that aim at improving the current enactment practices.

It was apparent that these concepts had to be discussed, with the assistance of some research studies; and were contextualised within the parameters of the study, while being mindful of an emerging theory in the literature. Theoretical concepts are applied to the studies, in order to explain the phenomenon and to be guided in data generation, presentation, and analysis (Imenda, 2014). The theoretical framework that emerged from the literature search was the cultural historical activity theory (CHAT). The CHAT framework was used in this study to illuminate the theoretical orientation of the study and to conceptualise the educators' enactments of teaching and learning in non-formal education policy programmes in the particular ways they do. There are some similarities between CHAT and the NFEP enactment theory, such as tools and activities. In this case, CHAT was used in order to gain deeper insights into the concepts used for conducting the study on forms of enactments of teaching and learning. The CHAT was useful at developing themes and for presenting the data. The theoretical framework presented a toolkit that has been used empirically to explore education problems, having evolved over three centuries and through diverse cultures across the globe. The developments included philosophical and psychological discourses (Engestrom, 2001; Nussbaumer, 2010, Rezor, 2013). Since CHAT has been tested and used successfully in educational research, the researcher also had the confidence to use CHAT.

5.2 Unearthing the Cultural Historical Activity Theory

The CHAT originated from the works of Vygotsky (1978) and his colleagues in Russia, in the early twentieth century (Engestrom, 2001). Yamagata-Lynch (2010) confirms these developments, adding that Vygotsky, Leont'iev and Luria took a leading role in revolutionising social psychology. CHAT was developed as an approach to human processes that analyse learning and its contexts (Edwards, 2010). Since then, human processes have been understood as the basis of the reality of development and learning, of knowledge and of the mind, a relational ontology (Taylor, 2014). These new and revolutionary insights culminated in the creation of the concept of 'activity' as a core concept of CHAT, adds Taylor.

The basic interpretation of the concept of activity is that human beings learn through action which is framed by elements, such as rules, the community, tools/artefacts, division of labour, objects, among others (Koszalta & Wu, 2004). These elements comprise Vygotsky's complex mediated act of a "cultural mediation of actions, commonly expressed as the triad of subject, object, and mediating artifact" (Engestrom, 2002, p. 134). The CHAT is a socio-cultural theory that offers a relational ontology (Taylor, 2014). The reality of 'activity' is understood in the context in which the activity exists, as mediated by a host of elements of CHAT, which are discussed below, starting with insights into the genealogy of CHAT. Diagrams will be used that demonstrate the existence of intertwining relationships.

5.2.1 Genealogy of CHAT

According to Engestrom (2001), there are three generations of CHAT research that have been pivotal at shaping and developing the theory into a form that researchers and academics can depend on. These efforts were determined to make the CHAT a distinctive theory (Edwards, 2004). The CHAT theory has since evolved into an empirical theory that cuts across disciplines (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010), including its application in education research (Hancock & Mills, 2018), following a genealogy of growth and development, spanning three generations. The highlights of this growth are discussed below, in sequence.

5.2.1.1 First generation

In the first generation, the debate focuses on Vygotsky (1978) who created the idea of mediation (Engestrom, 2001). Mediated action refers to interactions that take place between humans and their habitat. Such interactions are not direct, but are mediated through the use of artefacts (Kaptelinin, Kuutti & Bannon (1995). In other words, human interactions, as responses to mediated action are seen in the manner in which human beings act and react to their environment, based on the influence of tools as ‘mediators’. In providing this clarity, Vygotsky is regarded as having made a breakthrough in research: his concept opened the way for human beings to understand how the ‘world is brought into the mind’ (Edwards, 2011). Vygotsky unlocked new frontiers in research that broke down the walls of previous research concentrating on the impact of the stimulus and response (Nussbaumer, 2010). Vygotsky used the mediational approach to describe human activity and its interrelationships with the environment (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010).

The basis for Vygotsky’s principle of mediation became the socialisation agent of the process by which human beings engaged with each other in common activities. Cultural means, such as language, traditional norms and values, artefacts, and various forms of knowledge, theories, among others, were common (Mukeredzi, 2009). The means for this engagement are often called ‘tools’ (Daniels, 2004; Koszalka and Wu, 2007). The principle of mediation is also referred to as ‘tool mediation’ (Mukeredzi, 2009). In tool mediation, the human being derives his or her shape from the interaction with both physical and non-physical tools, in order to create reality (Kaptelinin et al., 1995). After all, ‘man’ is everywhere surrounded by tools, from cradle to the grave. For their role, tools become a reflection of what someone had already done to them and with them in order to influence others (Kaptelinin et al. 1995).

In the context of the study, when an educator meets a learner for the first time, the interaction is bound to be mediated by such tools as language, clothing, and personality. Both the educator and the learner are able to shape the teaching and learning activity based on the impressions that are derived from the tools that are in the environment. While due recognition is made of Vygotsky’s contribution towards providing the key to understanding the human psyche, Engestrom (2001) points out that tools carry a culture which transforms human action. Reference is made to Daniels (2004), who confirmed that Vygotsky had provided research, learning and development, with the principle of mediated processes in which social, cultural and historical factors played a defining part in shaping human functioning. This was a cutting-edge principle in social psychology and

education research. Vygotsky's model on basic mediated action is depicted in the diagram below, and discussed.

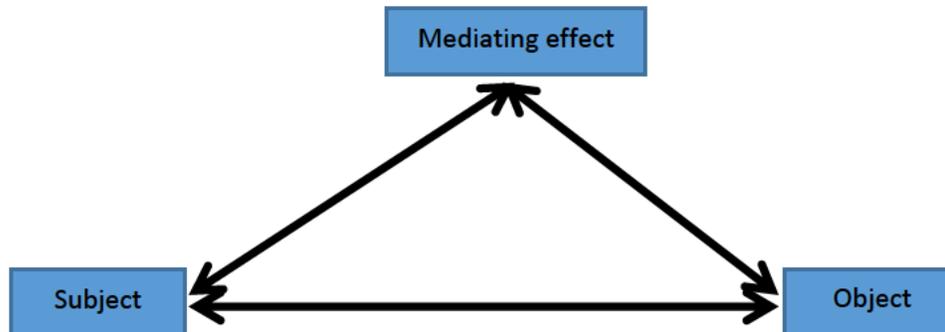


Figure 5.1: Reformulated Vygotsky's model of mediated action (adapted from Engestrom, 2001)

Figure 5.1 uses a triangle to illustrate the function of mediated action as was first produced by Vygotsky in his landmark contribution to human understanding of human consciousness. In the triangle, Vygotsky demonstrates that artefacts/tools invoke psychological stimuli that engage human activities to respond to events in the social environment. This indicates that the mediational effects of the tools provoke action between subjects and tools, which leads to enactment of the activity. By this illustration, Vygotsky informs educators, as the actors, to be aware that there is a communicative process between them and the tools that they use for enacting teaching and learning that is grounded in culture and history, hence the CHAT activity theory. Furthermore, Engestrom (2001) reiterates that the CHAT is a system that is mediated by tools. It behooves the educators to summon the committed enactment that influences the use of tools in the best enactment form towards the achievement of the outcome. The mediated action symbolises the interpersonal communications among the various elements of CHAT, such as subjects, tools, and the object. Therefore, educators should constantly engage and reflect on the mediated actions, in order to align the actions with the object. The tools for the enactment of teaching and learning are the hardware, software, and ideological-ware resources.

5.2.1.2 Second generation

The second generation is represented by Engestrom's (1987) compilation of CHAT components, built around Leont'iev's concept of activity. In his theory, Leont'iev had been able to shift focus on the activity from the individual as a 'unit of analysis' by emphasising the collective nature of human activity (Engestrom, 2001). In support, and also in an endeavour to provide the rationale for the second-generation research, Daniels (2004) remarks: "He (Leont'iev) did this to enable an examination of systems of activity at the macro-level of the collective and the community in preference to a micro-level concentration on the individual actor or agent operating with tools" (p. 123).

Yamagata-Lynch (2010) asserts that Engestrom (2001) extended Leont'iev's work, and developed a collective activity-systems model. It is this aspect of collectivity that resembles this study, in which educators use forms of enactment in order to fulfill learners' desires for forms of knowledge, namely the vertical and horizontal. According to Engestrom (2001), the activity system was introduced in the second generation in order to advance the CHAT towards focusing on the complex relations at the macro-level of the individual and the community. The major output of the second generation was the shift from an individual as a unit of analysis to the model of a collective system. The model facilitates the examination of the activity system at the community level, based on the following additional components, which are rules and division of labour, as basic historical processes (Foot, 2014). See Figure 4.2, below:

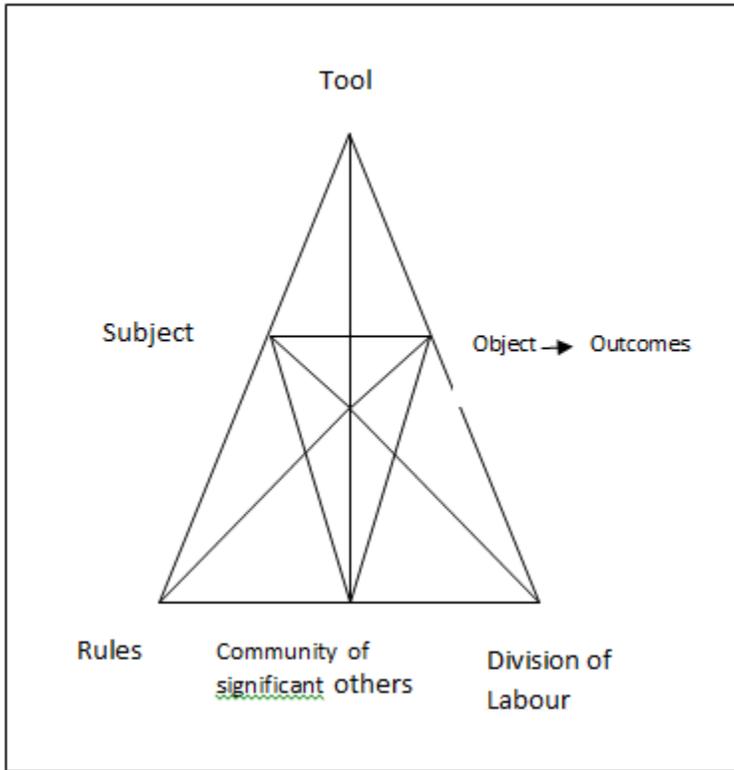


Figure 5.2: The Activity System (Adapted from Foot, 2014).

The extension of Vygotsky’s origination and imagination of the mediational effects of tools on the human consciousness that framed the first generation of the development of CHAT, led to the accelerated growth of the activity system, from three to six components. The point of departure and encouragement was the focus from an individual as a unit of analysis to the collectivity of subjects/actors (Engestrom, 2001), hence the reference to a system of activity. The focus of action became transformed into one that examined the activity system from a micro level to a community level, in order to accommodate the interests of the socially constituted members of the community (Daniels, 2004). The enactment of teaching and learning is a community project with various players and stakeholders.

5.2.1.3 Third generation

Once again, Engestrom spearheaded the third-generation CHAT research. Below are some of other researchers' interpretations of the rationale for the third-generation research:

“To develop conceptual tools to understand dialogues, multiple perspectives, and networks of interacting systems” (Daniels, 2004, p. 123).

“To expand the unit of analysis to encompass relations between multiple activity systems” (Olavarria, 2013, p. 43-4)

“For an elaborated broader concept of activity to include integrating activity systems” (Taylor, 2014, p. 98).

“Further detailed activity systems to include networks of integrating systems to deal with tensions and contradictions that encourage collective learning through change” (Nussbaumer, 2012, p. 39).

What is common in the analyses of the rationale for the third-generation CHAT research is the focus on activity systems that was set to expand the collective unit of analysis. According to Daniels (2004), the expanded framework facilitates insights into how the community's many voices may effectively be used as mediation tools. Daniels raises awareness of vast opportunities still to be explored that exist for learning and development; such as possibilities for exploring phenomena which provide deep insights into reading the reality of the world, as mediated by diverse tools. For example, communities can develop more interest in historical sites and reshape themselves in this era of cultural implosion that has been exacerbated by globalisation. What needs to be understood for the development of mankind are matters regarding, “who is carrying out activities (division of labour), what tools are at their disposal, which cultural norms and rules govern their performance, and what the desired outcomes are?” (Taylor, 2014, p. 98). These matters affect all collective activities and must be understood. Third-generation studies reflected on these issues because phenomena harbour their own diverse histories, culture, and rules and the tools that mediate them, which together have a net effect on CHAT activity systems, while providing opportunities for innovations (Engestrom, 2001).

The third generation of the CHAT model facilitates the analysis of more than one unit (Nussbaumer, 2012). Therefore, it is evident that CHAT can be used to conduct studies on a

number of perspectives, such as rules, roles, division of labour, objects, and tools, in and across intersecting networks (Olavarria, 2013). These elements are discussed below:

5.2.2 Elements of CHAT

The major elements presented in this discourse are the object, outcome, activity, rules, division of labour, subject, tools, and the community.

5.2.2.1 Object

The direction of any activity will be determined by the object (Edwards, 2011). Koszalta and Wu (2004) concur that the main focus of any activity becomes that of producing the object. Therefore, it suffices to refer to an object, in its broadest sense, as a ‘thing’ that exists (Mukeredzi, 2009); also to accept that the object is the culmination of decisions and interactions by the subject, an individual, a group, with a need or a motive that needs to be accomplished by the object (Koszalta & Wu, 2007). It is also important to recognise that objects can be either physical or non-physical (Khoza, 2009). Examples of non-physical objects include perception, experience, knowledge, learning and teaching; while a research article, a module and reflective journals represent physical objects, among many others.

Edwards (2011) posits that “the key element in the object of activity is the ‘object motive’ which directs the participation of the actors in activities” (p. 3). In policy enactment, for example, the object explains the various actions that educators, as subjects, perform in knowledge environments, such as the use of different facilitation approaches. In addition, an object serves the purpose of distinguishing one activity from another. One example from the NFEP programmes enactment context, is that an educator is driven by a performance-improvement object in teaching mathematics, while an instructor who is facilitating a lesson on basic literacy skills, is fulfilling the need to improve learners’ competences in life skills. An object is regarded as the true motive driving the activity (Olavarria, 2013). Inasmuch as the literature points out the interests of the subjects towards aligning their actions with identified objects, a word of advice to subjects/educators, is that educators should identify activities and objects before engaging in the

activities (Khoza, 2013). The educators should recognise that specific contents are used to construct and reconstruct the activity (Foot, 2014).

The function of the object in learning is further amplified by Olavarria (2013), who refers to an object as a pivot that provides meaning for human action. The motive behind each activity lies within the object. The application of action, which is the activity, is a matter of human interaction in which reality is sought (Taylor, 2014). Mukeredzi (2009) comments that the object serves to provide the evidence of the activity target. Mukeredzi further explains that the process of attaining the object, which precedes the outcome, allows for the subjective manipulation of tools and artefacts mediated both internally and externally. These interactions also lead to internal tensions and contradictions emerging from within and among the elements of a human activity (Koszalka & Wu, 2004, Olavarria, 2013). Khoza (2009) reiterates that engaging in a new challenge brings with it a transformation phase, during which time the object and the outcome become clearer to the subjects than before.

What is suggested is that a process of transformation must evolve in order to provide the target of the activity system that has brought together a reconceptualisation of the object (Engestrom, 2001). During this transformation process, the object will have a commanding influence on all those whose motive has to be met (Mukeredzi, 2009). According to Kaptelinin, Kuutti and Bannon (1995), the stimulant for the transformation, “is the general context of activity (which includes both external and internal components) that determines when and why external activities become internal and vice versa” (p. 192). The reality of the transformation process is that the educator transforms the knowledge (object) through reconceptualisation and in turn; the new knowledge also transforms the educator (subject) (Mukeredzi, 2009).

In closing the discourse on the object of the activity in CHAT, Daniels (2004) comments that the ideal object comes from, “the transforming, form creating, activity of social beings, their aim mediated, sensuously objective activity” (p. 5). This study benefits from new knowledge and understanding of enactment of education curricula, given that the object is the organising principle of all enactment activities (Foot, 2014).

5.2.2.2 Activity

The central theme for the CHAT theory is the activity. Bertelsen and Bodker (2003) posit that the concept of activity is framed by Vygotsky's (1978) three core characteristics of directedness towards an object: mediation by tools/artefacts, and its socio-cultural construction. Activity, denotes "the complex interrelations between the individual subject and his or her community" Engestrom, 2001, p. 134-5). It is the nature of the CHAT activity to be framed by various elements that are interrelated. In practice, activity denotes the actual action towards an object. Furthermore, action in the activity is founded on Vygotsky's principle of mind manifesting through meaningful object-orientees, as determined by interactivity between human beings and their material world (Kaptelinin et al., 1996). Nassbaumer refers to the effect of motivation on the goal of the activity. Koszalka and Wu (2004), in explaining these interactions, state that the activity is the production of an object or outcome which can either be physical or abstract. For example, educators enacting the NFEP can produce a literate learner and content that is culturally sound.

Koszalka and Wu (2007) further elaborate on the process of the activity as one that begins with the subject (s) having to determine the need for an object. The process that leads to the accomplishment of the object becomes the activity. Accomplishing the object is contingent upon several factors that affect the actions that are involved in the processing of the outcome. Yamagata-Lynch (2010) refers to the activity process as one that incorporates the use of tools/artefacts located within the environment of the activity. Khoza (2015) contributes a category of these tools as comprising hardware, software, and ideological-ware. By comparison, Yamagata-Lynch (2010) developed only two sets of tools, namely, the technical, which can be likened to hardware tools and the signs that signify software and ideological tools. Hence, in the CHAT, activity is regarded as the unit of analysis towards an understanding of the possible connectedness between the subjects as a collectivity and as mediated artefacts of the object-oriented activity system (Engestrom, 2001).

Foot (2014) observes that the truism of an activity system in CHAT is its multi-voiced structure in which the human mind is constantly engaged in interactions with numerous artefacts that characterise the environment of the activity (Sannino & Engestrom, 2018). The activity system is mediated by a factor-riddled community of factors such as the community itself, its culture, rules, and division of labour, the object and the tools. There is need, therefore, for this research to be open-minded to the influence of multiple factors in order to interpret the activity system that

operates the NFEP programmes enactment. The research should view the challenges that actors face as opportunities learning. Hancock and Miller (2018) point out that, in the practise of CHAT, challenges are opportunities for praxis, in which sustainable solutions are developed.

5.2.2.3 Tools

Hancock and Miller (2018) observe that CHAT is an activity system driven by a desire to achieve the object. The object is the central element in CHAT, mainly because of the idea of the object-motive (Edwards, 2011). Achieving the outcome process becomes possible using tools. Khoza (2009) highlights that most teaching and learning activities are achieved based on tools. Consequently, the debate on tools is important for this enactment study because the subjects have to employ tools in order to act towards achieving the object, either physically or conceptually (Foot, 2014). With tools, “the subject moves toward accomplishing the object” add Koszalta and Wu (2007, p. 492). Examples of physical tools are books and videos, while conceptual tools can be the educators’ knowledge, theories, and experience.

Olavarria (2013) reiterates that the CHAT activity system is mutually developed by the subjects using tools and, taken literally, tools enable the subjects to act on the object. Therefore, it is these conceptual/psychological and material/physical tools that the subjects have to manipulate in order to enable the achievement of the object and its transformation into an outcome (Mukeredzi, 2009). Hancock and Miller (2017) agree that the object of the activity system has to be mediated by tools that are oriented toward an object. Engestrom (2001) makes the comment that tools give an activity its shape. One of the many uses of tools is to instigate sense-making processes through interactions with the group of learners and the educators in order to interpret the environment, leading to transformation (Sodje, 2018). Edward (2011) confirms that for one to act on ‘their world’ in order to transform it, tools are needed. Educators require tools to transform the teaching and learning activity system into the intended or envisioned object and outcome.

Because tools were developed at a particular time in history for specific purposes in people’s lives, their use in CHAT activities has been mediated by cultural means (Koszalka & Wu, 2007). There is personal influence and that of rules, division of labour, and interactions that occur in the collective activity (Mukeredzi, 2009). In his contribution, Daniels (2004) posits that “the

mediational process is one which neither denies individual or collective agency nor denies social, cultural, historical constraint” (p. 124). The use of mediated tools cannot be separated from a human consciousness of the histories and cultural of the tool, hence the reference to tools as mediational means (Mukeredzi, 2009). Khoza (2009) concurs that tools bring with them into each activity system a cultural knowledge and social experience which influences the ways in which people act in shaping the activity. Edwards (2011) emphasises that, by focusing on resources, CHAT enhances understanding of how educators use tools, and what aspects of teaching and learning they prioritise. In using CHAT in this study, the researcher is also mindful that objects in the activity are transformed within the limitations of the tool (Kaptelinin et al., 1995). Educators should reflect on and choose tools wisely (Khoza, 2009). Above all, the literature has highlighted that tools mediate how individuals achieve an object and outcome. The similarity between the CHAT and this study is in exploring the way in which educators enact the NFEP programmes in the ways that they do.

5.2.2.4 Outcome

In CHAT, any activity seeks to produce an outcome (Koszalka & Wu, 2004). Hancock and Miller (2018); Sodje, (2018) confirm that the outcome becomes the desired result of every activity. In the NFEP programmes’ enactment activity, the functionally literate learner is the desired outcome. The outcome becomes the culmination of all CHAT’s components-community interactions, rules, division of labour, mediating tools, subjects, object, and outcome. When the components are well oiled and functioning, the object experiences a process of multiple transformations that involve the subjects’ use of their experience in the utilisation of tools in the activity, leading to the outcome (Olavarria, 2013).

The CHAT activity process leading to the outcome is a ‘political’ process that involves community members, who bring their multi-voices into the arena for use in negotiations, consultations, and coalitions, that are used for driving the communal enactment. In enacting teaching and learning, tensions may arise owing to demands for adequate physical resources, which should be distributed equitably, while the learners will also demand more study time from the educators (Hancock & Miller, 2018). The educators also make demands for better incentives for leading the enactments. Such tensions do have implications for the enactment of the activity and must be acknowledged

and managed. On this score, Engestrom (2002) explains the use of expansive learning, as a mitigation strategy, as follows:

Expansive learning is a theory with five principles. Through some of its principles, expansive learning theory recognises that participation of multi-voices can be both an enabler and a constraint. While opportunities may arise for innovativeness in accommodating the community's concerns and interests, constraints produce tensions. These must be efficiently managed. At this stage, Engestrom (2001) introduces the concept of the zone of the proximal development (ZPD). This can be likened to a process of metamorphosis during which organisations experience a transformation and a rebirth. Similarly, CHAT activities are challenged into transformation by contradictions and disturbances. Consequently, formative learning uses the conflicts to seek innovative ways of activity processes to try to bring change. Engestrom (2001) argues that educators can engage learners in expansive learning that produces new forms of knowledge.

5.2.2.5 Rules

Rules were not on Vygotsky's first CHAT model (Engestrom, 2007; Khoza, 2009). This was probably owing to the fact that in the first model, the individual was the unit of analysis and the need for formal regulated behaviour for engagement was minimal. Later, Engestrom (1987) added rules, community, and division of labour, when the collective unit of analysis was incorporated into the CHAT activity system. The community, as a system, needed a set of rules in order to function in a cohesive manner (Foot, 2014). According to CHAT, rules are tools for use in the activity system. Olavarria (2013) explains that rules provide direction to enable individuals to be united with the community through active participation.

Having used CHAT in a study of practices of trainee teachers, Hancock and Miller (2018) state that, while activities such as in teaching programmes, are shaped by rules, the same rules are shaped by the activities. In other words, the interactions with the activity give rise to the need to govern the interactions. For instance, when educators negatively impact learning activities through failure to maintain performance records of learners, rules will be put in place to determine the required behaviours and actions, such as time rules. In addition to regulating the subject's actions toward an object, rules regulate the subjects' relations with other community members who are

participating in the activity (Foot, 2014). Educators who are engaged in programmes with communities should be provided with a set of rules that must be followed. The rules that generally frame learning environment can be described as either synchronous or asynchronous (Khoza, 2009). Educators may be directed by formal rules or informal rules, such as regarding attending to activities that are scheduled for them during instruction time, or those that follow under custom and practice, such as providing extra learning activities during weekends and school holidays. For the rules to be effected fairly, they must be specific in both form and jurisdiction, given that rules act a system of communication (Olavarria, 2013), including with other elements of CHAT, such as division of labour, says Khoza (2009) which explicitly defines roles of educators. In fact, there is a symbiotic relationship between the rules and division of labour, in which one becomes the function of the other, and vice-versa.

It is a norm for rules to be either explicit or implicit. The joint function for both explicit and implicit rules is to stimulate actions and interactions that in CHAT are object-oriented (Olavarria, 2013). Explicit rules are also called formal rules. Such rules are put in writing for every subject to become informed on standard procedure, roles, responsibilities, and given guidelines on what is expected, while implicit/informal rules denote what the subjects should know in the activity without being told (Budden, 2018). It behooves the educators to know what rules apply to them directly, and which ones apply to their learners and team members.

5.2.2.6 Division of labour

Division of labour is characterised by role clarity, so that members execute their duties efficiently and effectively (Khoza, 2009). Division of labour represents the ways in which functions for individuals and group members have been negotiated between the subjects in the activity (Gretschel et al., 2015). Within the generational development of CHAT, Engestrom (1987) added division of labour to CHAT in order to expand the unit of analysis. In turn, CHAT has more detail about the social activity in which members' roles indicate the duties that are to be performed by the subjects in the activity system, in pursuit of the desired outcome (Khoza, 2009).

Therefore, division of labour is used for promoting social cohesion and solidarity, leading to community of practise (Koszalka and Wu, 2007). Various positions are created for the subjects,

who bring with them their own diverse histories that will be used to mediate the activity (Khoza, 2009). Communities use division of labour to accommodate collective engagements that are based on negotiated tasks and responsibilities among individuals and the community. These roles are negotiated within the spectrum of the structure of the work, in which are found horizontal and vertical dimensions of work (Budden, 2018). Sodje (2018) understands the horizontal dimension as comprising negotiations of basic tasks and responsibilities between members of the communities; while the vertical dimension is concerned with issues of power and authority, which are arranged hierarchically. The division of labour component focuses on the basic questions on who is doing what posed to the object, within the horizontal and vertical spheres of the activity (Foot, 2014). In order to be more comprehensive on the scope of DOL, Foot (2001) brings up issues regarding access to resources, and rewards. For example, in the enactment of the NFEP programmes in schools, the government, through the Secretary's Circular 13 of 2016, has established the curriculum and the tools to be used. The MoPSE has allocated managers to supervise policy enactment and to mobilise rewards for the educators, while the educators have been assigned the teaching role. Community participation in the activity system is that of advocacy for out-of-school children, youths, and adults targeted for enrolment in the NFEP programmes.

5.2.2.7 Subject

A subject is an active individual or group that contributes to the attainment of the outcome in particular ways (van der Walt & Wolhuter, 2018). Each subject occupies a central position of the activity system (Engestrom, 2001). The function of subjects is to provide direction to the activity (Mukeredzi, 2009). Therefore, the subject exists because there is an activity to be performed and the subject has things to do (Kaptelinin et al., 1995). Likewise, a subject may be accorded the title of 'creator', since he or she "transforms a 'meaningless' situation into one that has a clear meaning" (Sannino & Engestrom, 2018, p. 50). This can be likened to a policy/curriculum which is a pile of documents, whose true meaning will be revealed by the educators. Van der Walt and Wolhuter (2018) acknowledge the subjects' most crucial role, that of activating the activity system using unique contextual conditions. These conditions are located in the mediation tools/artefacts (Engestrom, 2001). The contextual conditions include the rules that regulate the way the subject will act (Foot, 2014). There will be behavioural change towards the object from community

members who will be participating in the activity system that guides the activity process, such as institutional conditions governing the administration of end-of-year summative evaluations.

The subjects in the CHAT activity system are influenced by interrelations that are dynamically mediated by cultural and historic conditions and tools (Engestrom, 1999). Furthermore, the community members establish the explicit and implied operating rules and norms as to how the activity is unveiled so that goals are achieved (Koszalka & Wu, 2008). With CHAT, the teaching activity as the phenomenon of this study is influenced, in addition to socio-cultural historical factors, by other surrounding activities that may alter or add to the activity focus, offer Koszalka and Wu. Reciprocally, the subjects themselves are transformed by the same forces, in order for them to become active agents (van der Walt & Wolhuter, 2018). In this way, the subjects, as internal advocates of the activity system, are able to make meaningful contributions towards achieving the object. Such committed educators select the most appropriate conditions. They use problem-driven learner-centred approaches to facilitate knowledge construction and solutions to problems within the community (Potvin, Riopel, Masson & Fournier, 2010), since such approaches are more beneficial to the learners for knowledge construction.

5.2.2.8 Community

From a sociological perspective, the term community refers to a grouping of people who align themselves with a common goal (van der Walt & Wolhuter, 2018); or the physical environment in which an activity is carried out (Mwanza & Engestrom, 2001). There is the social and ecological perspective on the concept of community. Yamagata-Lynch, (2010) offers a definition of the community as the social group with which the subjects identify, while participating in the activity. The CHAT focuses on the interactions that take place between the human activity within the relevant environment (Urden, Valderas & Pastor, 2008). The designated spaces for the enactment of the NFEP programmes, in this study, are the schools; and specifically, the knowledge environments (classrooms), in which the educators enact teaching and learning activities. Parents, learners and the MoPSE supervisors make up the other part of community members.

Educators are the chief subjects driving the NFEP programmes' activities. It is imperative that they understand that they belong to clearly defined patterns of social practise (van der Walt & Wolhuter,

2018), which is the culture of the school and community. They must conform to existing social rules and practices that the community believes are acceptable patterns of behaviour, for example, social justice. An educator has control over his or her knowledge space; and must ensure that the conduct conforms to acceptable behaviour patterns, add Walt and Wolhuter (2018).

Educators, as subjects in the NFEP activity system, should subscribe to the same goals for the NFEP programmes enactment as those of the MoPSE and the community, in respect of the mediated tools/artefacts for use in achieving the outcome. The tools that educators use may not be compliant with existing policies, rules, values, of the community (Mukeredzi, 2009) and more so, curriculum goals. Room must also be created in this discourse that challenges the educators' understanding of the activity system's components, such as goals and rules. For example, a relevant study by Khoza (2016) revealed that educators had not been capacitated on the forms of enactment and goals of teaching Next is a discussion on some opportunities and limitations that are associated with the use of CHAT, starting with opportunities.

5.2.3. Characterising CHAT through opportunities of using CHAT

In characterising CHAT elements within the enactment of teaching and learning in NFEP programmes, the teaching activity is grounded in curriculum concepts. Furthermore, there are additional elements that were not in the original activity system. These are the community which comprises learners and stakeholders, rules that explicitly align the subjects with their roles in the division of labour, which serve to deepen an understanding of the socio-historical mediated action (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Foot (2014) lauds the activity system for bringing multi-voices to the system by way of the community factor. The diversity of opinions and contributions helps mediate the components towards the desired object. This is on condition that a careful analysis of the ideas is done, such as through a task force.

Daniels (2004) defines a community as a group of people whose concern is goal achievement, in which rules and division of labour were required in order to regulate action and interaction of community members (Foot, 2014). In enacting teaching in NFEP programmes, regulatory mechanisms both explicit and implied are used, in order to promote efficiency and effectiveness of members who are accountable for their own actions. Educators feel safe and secure when limits

of work are clear (Hancock & Miller, 2018). The inclusion of CHAT components on community, rules and division of labour, provides educators with an awareness of the cultural and historical mediational effect of the tools on the object that results in the community's approval of teaching and learning outcomes. Educators enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes should derive satisfaction from providing content and skills that are culturally and historically acceptable to the community. With this goal in mind, the characterisation of policy concept in CHAT has influenced the research process in more ways than the inclusion of CHAT elements. The CHAT, as the anchor for the study, provided the lens for an informed exploration of the enactment of teaching in NDEP programmes. First, the process will analyse each programme as an individual unit. Second, the three programmes then provide rich data for the collective unit that represents the community's view of the teaching and learning in NFEP school-model programmes in Masvingo district.

Foot (2014) highlights some opportunities for researchers who use CHAT, as follows: Through the use of the triangular activity model system with its six nodes, researchers can conceptualise and analyse the multiple relationships that exist in a particular community at a particular time. The triangle is a useful guide that ensures comprehensive coverage of the activity system. In addition, CHAT enables researchers to consider cultural-historical contexts from which to draw important lessons from culture and history.

“In essence, an analysis of the historical formation of an activity system helps to identify the preconditions and precipitating causes of the key actions that have shaped the system to date and may catalyze future development” (Foot, 2014, p. 28).

Enactment of teaching and learning in NFEP programmes in Zimbabwe must be culturally and historically contextualised, given the rich history of both the genealogy of CHAT and of the growth of NFEP programmes. The survival of NFE in three eras, namely, pre-colonialism, colonialism, and post colonialism, should not be ignored as a mediation tool. Hancock and Miller (2018) emphasise the point that culture and history are important for building strong activity structures in education, which are supported by informed comparisons with the past. Cultural and historical contexts help subjects and the communities understand current discourses, while providing background information for the activity (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010).

Hancock and Miller (2018) also posit that an opportunity for obtaining deep and wide thinking and reflection is presented with the use of CHAT. In a study of trainee educators on fieldwork using CHAT, trainees remarked that the framework provided guidance with quality questions that helped the selection of the activity's subjects who had the required personal identities to drive the activity. In addition, CHAT becomes the lens for the analysis of influences from the factors that impact the activity system. A study by Mukhopadhyay and Musengi (2012) entitled, 'Contracting Visions of Inclusive education: Comparisons from Rural and Urban Settings in Botswana and Zimbabwe', revealed inadequate infrastructure that denied disabled children, access to equitable education; while the policy was silent on the matter. By using CHAT to explore enactment in education, researchers and subjects become aware of contextual issues that must be taken into consideration, in order to improve teaching and learning. When using CHAT, subjects are able to reflect on the diverse range of tools/artefacts that mediate the activity, such as rules, division of labour, tools, outcomes, objects, and the community. In this case, subjects are helped to move beyond narrow perspectives of the phenomenon to a broader view of their 'world'. The opportunity of using CHAT provides researchers with access to rich contextual data that they can use to transform the activity. Another opportunity is that CHAT is used in social research to generate qualitative data in the construction of theory in areas with no current theory, or those with insufficient a priori theory (Rowlands, 2005). There is evidence of limited research and theory on the enactment of teaching and learning in NFEP programmes in the school model.

5.2.4 Limitations of the cultural historical activity theory (CHAT)

One limitation is that, since CHAT facilitates an intensive analysis of phenomenon using several mediated tools/artefacts, the data generation and data analysis processes can take quite some time. In such circumstances, trained and experienced research assistants are needed, despite the expense of hiring them. Another option which helps to safeguard the data against treatment by several people is for the researcher to allocate ample time to data generation and analysis, including the proper utilisation of engaged time, so that the processes are free from disruption. The appointments processes will be professionally managed through the use of such tools as diaries and programmed electronic reminders. Steps that can be taken to mitigate the limitations, make CHAT a suitable theoretical framework for use in this enactment of teaching and learning study.

5.3 Conclusion

Chapter Four presented the cultural historical activity theory (CHAT), as the framework that undergirds this study by providing direction towards data generation and analysis. To begin with, the main features of CHAT were discussed. From the literature, it emerged that CHAT had the activity system as its core. The presentation was followed by a discussion on the genealogy of CHAT, in order to situate the framework within current research trends and expectations in education research, specifically. The chapter then explored the elements of the CHAT which mediate the CHAT activity system, by way of the object, outcomes, subjects, tools/artefacts, rules, division of labour, and community. This exposé analysis of the CHAT Activity System's elements addressed the opportunities of characterising CHAT with education curriculum concepts. The use of the CHAT provides the rationale for the adoption of CHAT as lens for the conceptualisation of the issues that frame the NFEP enactment in schools. CHAT is used in the study to generate and analyse the qualitative data, based on themes that emerged from the data. These themes are interpreted in order to understand why educators enact the NFEP in the ways they do. The next chapter, Chapter Five, focuses on the research paradigm design and methodology.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH PARADIGM DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the theory that underpins this study was discussed. The following chapter presents the qualitative research methodological and interpretive research paradigm accompanied by the case design that were adopted in order to address the research questions and objectives of the study. In line with the research process, sampling, data-generation methods, data analysis, trustworthiness, ethical issues and limitations that affected the study are discussed, ending with a conclusion to the chapter.

6.2 Qualitative research methodological paradigm

Three research methodologies dominate research processes, namely, the qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methodologies (Creswell, 2011). The researcher settled for the qualitative methodology. Character wise, qualitative research seeks to understand phenomena based on thick descriptions of data that are produced from ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions and the mixed methodology derives responses that are based on both qualitative and quantitative data. The focus of this debate is on the qualitative research methodology, which is characterised by human interaction and action. According to Leedy and Ormond (2014), human beings become the main subjects of inquiry, providing the rich source of data that researchers can access through making planned observations. The process of obtaining the data involves accessing participants in their natural setting, with the researcher as a participant (Creswell, 2013). There is a ‘qualitative positioning’ of the participants, researcher, and the context, which this research refers to as a ‘triangulation of relationships’. Researchers must engage ‘the triangulation of relationships’ in order to access data that will enable them to interpret and understand phenomenon based on the participants’ lived experiences of the world (Creswell, 2014). The qualitative approach facilitates the exploration of human behaviour by seeking to understand behaviour from the insider’s perspective (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The qualitative approach bodes well for this study which seeks to explore the educators’ policy enactment of NFEP programmes, within the context of schools, using different forms of enactment. These forms of enactment are the communal enactment, the acknowledged enactment, and the committed enactment. In addition, in a qualitative-research methodological paradigm, the

researcher finds the space within which to understand and describe the particular ways in which different human beings, in their context, make subjective sense of their lives (Cohen et al., 2013). Davies and Fisher (2018) add that the qualitative method is framed by the interpretive paradigm, in which researchers attempt to make sense of data that creates an individual reality of each individual.

A paradigm is regarded as a belief system or a world view which helps one to observe and interpret what is happening around them. Davies and Fisher (2018) indicate that the paradigm controls how researchers ask questions relating to controlling their conducting of the research, while to research consumers, the paradigm gives clues as to the location of the researcher's philosophical position, namely beliefs, values, laws, and practices (Hope, 2016). The importance of a research paradigm is to dictate how research should be conducted and the way the results should be interpreted (du Plooy-Cillers, Davis & Bezuidenhout, 1984). It is apparent that a researcher should locate the paradigm and be guided by it in framing the question for the study, the design and method for generating the data, and the interpreting of results in the context of the study. Researchers must be clear on their own beliefs and assumptions about conducting research (Davies & Fisher, 2018), namely, the research paradigms.

The literature confirms that there are several paradigms (Gunbayi & Sorm, 2018; Davies & Fisher, 2018). Hope (2016) supports the view that many paradigms exist, arguing that each community of researchers has its own preferred paradigms that govern practices. The broad categories include the non-positivists/post-positivists and positivists (Hope, 2016) to which Davies and Fisher (2018) have added the interpretive, critical, and pragmatic paradigms. Creswell (2009) contends that the key determinants of each paradigm are the ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions deriving from ontological, epistemological, and methodological orientations. Furthermore, Creswell (2014) uses a set of questions to highlight the nature of each element. What is reality? (ontology); What does it mean to know? (epistemology); How do we find out? (methodology). Ontology deals with the nature of reality or truth, while epistemology refers to the nature of knowledge. Methodology becomes the strategy that the researcher uses to obtain the data (Davies & Fisher, 2018). These elements are encapsulated, first in the philosophy of each paradigm. The aim of the positivist paradigm is the production of predictive, generalisable data, while the anti-positivist/post-positivist paradigm's aim is that of uncovering the meaning of reality as

understood by individuals. The interpretive paradigm aims to describe, explore, and understand experiences. For the advocates of the critical paradigm, raising awareness and eliciting social change is important, while the pragmatic paradigm aims to solve the world's problems (Davies & Fisher, 2018). Four broad paradigms are identified by their general intentions: positivist, post-positivist/non-positivist; interpretive; critical; and pragmatic. A considered view of general intention of the above paradigms leads to the interpretive paradigm as the researcher's choice for use in this study.

6.2.1 Understanding interpretive research paradigm

The interpretive paradigm aligns with the qualitative research methodology since it seeks to assist with data generation (Henning, 2005). It is a paradigm that enables a researcher to interpret the meanings of the data (Cohen, Marion and Morrison, 2007). According to Gunbayi and Storm (2018), the interpretive paradigm (IP), is associated with the subjective approach as an analytic tool. In the context of the CHAT, the IP is employed in order to focus on a unit of analysis, using the ontology of a normalist approach that seeks knowledge from the people who own it. Mertens (1998) explains that the normalist approach rejects the existence of the objective reality, while choosing a methodology that provides insight in a unique and effective way. In this case, the interpretive design is used to facilitate interactions between the researcher and participants through available opportunities. Through such opportunities, participants also gain an understanding of the perceptions of their enactment practices in the context of the school (Shoba, 2018). The normalist approach appeals to participants to share their thoughts that reveal the original meanings of what they understand and regard as reality. The process unfolds while the participants are in their familiar environments.

Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006), recommend the use of the interpretive approach for harnessing knowledge, while focusing on the interrelated social interactions that mediate the phenomenon. Qualitative studies use the interpretive paradigm in the search for a subjective reality that exists in the interpretation of data, such as the findings of the educators' enactment of the NFEP programmes. This reality is understood based on human behaviour of the educator's experiences of teaching NFEP programmes. Creswell (2007) refers to the interpretive paradigm as

the qualitative research paradigm. It is a lens of the qualitative research methodology which leads the researchers towards understanding particular phenomena. In undertaking such an activity, the researcher contrasts, composes, replicates, catalogues, and classifies the object of the study (Cohen et al., 2011). Qualitative methods are used for accessing rich data from samples (Davies & Fisher, 2018), where such samples are manageable.

The interpretive paradigm is characterised and understood using some of the following assumptions (Creswell, 2007; Davies & Fisher, 2018). These are that qualitative research is naturalist, and therefore occurs in natural contexts where social action takes place; that it is based on assumptions in cases where theory does not exist. Theory and hypothesis are not established a priori, and as such, theory will evolve from the research data. The researcher is the most crucial research tool that controls the data generation process in the form of words, pictures, and actions which portray the lived experiences of the participants. There are also the aspects that the main focus is on how things occur and what the outcome is; that idiographic interpretations take precedence over generalisation; and also, that negotiated meanings will emerge from the data. In this study, the negotiated meanings are mediated by contextual artefacts and the process of socialisation of the CHAT narrative.

The interpretive paradigm is guided by its ontological, epistemological, and methodological orientations that do not subscribe to a single reality, since the interpretive paradigm recognises that it is dealing with more than one individual, and describes each case individually (Davies & Fisher, 2018). The practise of the interpretive paradigm is largely a communicative process (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017), in which the researcher engages participants in a dialectical process with bias as an accepted norm (Davies & Fisher, 2018). Furthermore, the concern for the interpretive paradigm approach is to concentrate on generating data that can be analysed and passed as believable, authentic, and above all, containing measures of trustworthiness, based on interpretive validity (Hope, 2016). It can be discerned that, when the interpretive paradigm is utilised, the research design and research methodology become dependable in dealing with matters of human behaviour (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). This includes enactments of the NFEP programmes by educators. This is an important aspect in research since the results need to be confirmed by fellow research professionals and academics as containing measures of trustworthiness. The next section explores the strengths of the interpretive paradigm in qualitative research.

6.2.2 Interpretive paradigm in qualitative research

Among the key attributes of the interpretive paradigm is its compatibility with various perceptions of researchers (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). Researchers become aware that they can access information from exploring individuals, ultimately gaining multiple realities of lived experiences. This derives from the relativist ontology that purports that the researcher who conducts qualitative research believes in the existence of multiple realities which will present themselves for investigation (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). When engaging the interpretive paradigm, one is aware that the paradigm is framed by subjective epistemology and needs to access participants to make meaning of their own data (Lincoln & Guba, 2000).

Khoza (2015) conducted a study of student teachers' reflections on their practices of CAPS, in which the participants were able to construct their personalised meanings of reflective practices which informed their practices. The research findings demonstrated that, when researchers use the interpretive paradigm as a research ethic, they reflect on and think critically about their practices, either written or verbalised. The participants had involved themselves in critical moments of introspective reflections. It is also common practise for researchers to engage the interpretive paradigm in a communicative process involving interviews, discussions, and observation, in an active process of knowledge creation (Kisaka-Jwan, 2018). In this process, the researcher acts as a participant, using a naturalist methodology in which there is a complementary relationship in knowledge construction. Participants and the researcher form a community of practise (Creswell, 2014) and create knowledge for horizontal use (Kisaka-Jwan, 2018), in improving the enactment process.

The use of the interpretive paradigm is associated with the following weaknesses that were identified from the literature. The weaknesses represent learning areas for researchers who intend to use the interpretive paradigm. Bernstein (1999) argues that the subjective interpretation of the interpretive paradigmatic approach leads to the presentation of incomplete, inaccurate, and inconsistent interpretations of the data on the phenomenon in question. First, researchers impose their views of reality on others, simply based on their own beliefs. Second, the reputation of the use of the interpretive paradigmatic approach by anti-positivists is challenged by positivists. The positivists argue that the anti-positivists' claim to objective reality in the absence of the use of

scientific methodology, should be dismissed (Davies & Fisher, 2018). Positivists argue that the interpretive process engages human consciousness, which cannot be controlled when it responds to researchers' inquiries. Qualitative research has the ability to study meanings, while quantitative research focuses on quantification of the data (Bryman, 2008). The debate between positivists and non-positivists is one of "numbers versus words" and "artificial versus natural" (Bryman, 2008, p. 621), which become the fundamental distinctions that characterise these two dominant paradigmatic views. In the end, each paradigm has its own distinct epistemology, ontology, and methodical approaches (Davies & Fisher, 2018), and each one has its own practical relevance (Christensen et al., 2013). However, in using the interpretive paradigm in qualitative research, the researcher is confronted with complex data which must be interpreted and understood, so that a theory can be generated, while quantitative research primarily seeks to identify trends and to use the data for testing existing theories (Braun & Clarke, 2014).

There are a number of ways of mitigating the weakness a researcher may encounter when using the interpretive paradigm; however, much depends on the context of the study. On Bernstein's (1999) quality of findings, Cohen et al. (2011) suggest the use of data generation instruments that will increase research rigour. This study used triangulation of methods in the choice of semi-structured interviews, participant observations, and document analysis. Such instruments are considered reliable and consistent (Patton, 2002). Regarding the polarised positions of the positivists versus anti-positivists, the anti-positivists and positivists have differing ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions which serve different purposes (Davies & Fisher, 2018). The two camps can co-exist, and have done so for centuries. In calling for professional practice by researchers, Bell and Bryman, (2007) state that researchers should be guided by research ethics. However, the ethics of social research are complicated. Research subjects are humans who can resist being manipulated by researchers; and the intrusion of bias cannot be eliminated, since research is conducted by humans (Shenton, 2004), who must be prepared to defend what their research stands for (Howe & Moses, 1999), by demonstrating its trustworthiness.

The discussion on the research paradigm sought to position the interpretive paradigm for use in this study. A summary of the rationale for the use of the interpretive paradigm in this study is presented below.

The interpretive data was found to be useful based on the goal of the study, that of seeking to understand the phenomenon in which educators enacted teaching and learning, which is subjective. Therefore the pursuit of deep insights required the use of the interpretive towards developing an understanding of the educators' forms of enactments, how they enacted teaching and accounted for their enactments, based on their lived experiences. Braun, Maguire and Ball (2011) refer to the process of explicating meaning as comprising interpretations, translations, contextualisation and recontextualisation. This indicates the complexity of the process of educational enactment in which data has to be subjected to interpretations in search of hidden meanings (Sheikh & Bagley, 2018). The interpretive paradigm was relevant to the study in that it explored the lived experience of the educators and managed to reveal the differences from one educator to the other. The unique differences in conceptions of forms of enactments, their usage and justifications for adopting particular ways for enacting teaching added the character and authenticity of the data. Cohen et al., (2011) recommend the use of data generation methods through which adequate and manageable data could be accessed. Accordingly, using the interpretive paradigm, the researcher chose the semi-structured interviews, observations and document analysis as the research tools through which adequate data was generated for the construction of knowledge. In addition, the researcher used the interpretive paradigm, having considered that constructivism is a nuance of the interpretive paradigm (Davies & Fisher, 2018). The interpretive paradigm was used in a bid to construct knowledge that contributed to debates on improving NFE's enactment.

The discourse provided the basic principles that will guide this study, such as on the assumptions that lead to the development of a theory. A qualitative methodology was adopted since strengths outweighed the weaknesses, bearing in mind that the challenges can be mitigated in ways that benefit the study. The discourse has shown that the interpretive paradigm is aligned with qualitative research (Cohen et al., 2011; Davies & Fisher, 2018). Qualitative research seeks opportunities in which to establish the participants' meanings, as they understand them in their context (Creswell, 2013). The interpretive paradigm has the key role of facilitating data generation and meaning-making in qualitative research. The discussion ends following section presents the characteristics of the case study approach, leading to how it was utilised in the study.

6.3 Case-study Approach

The case-study construct is defined below, together with the various types of case study in general use. The wide use of the case study that persuades researchers to utilise the method are analysed and contextualised for NFEP programmes' enactment research, after having discussed the weaknesses and ways to negotiate them.

Yin (2003) defines a case study as a single instance of a bounded system. In a later study, Creswell (2009) refers to a case study as an exploration or in-depth analysis of the bounded system, yielding to the fact that case studies have limits imposed on them. In a more detailed conceptualisation of a case study, Cohen et al. (2011) state that the qualitative case study provides an in-depth examination of a single instance of some social phenomenon within its real-life context, so as to produce knowledge. These definitions serve to highlight the particularistic nature of case studies and their purpose. Definitions also emphasise the use of an analytic approach that is focused, detailed, and ensures rigour. The case study research is viewed as an in-depth, detailed study of an individual or a small group of individuals, such as this current study of educators who are enacting the NFEP programmes in schools.

When considered within the CHAT, the phenomenon becomes the unit of analysis, while enactment is the activity. The exploration of the activity is mediated by tools that are located in the real-life context of the enactment process, such as the NFEP's roles and rules that frame the school's teaching and learning system. The case-study method is principally operated by the 'how' and 'why' questions (Yin, 2003). Below are the types of cases available for various research purposes.

This part of the discourse pays attention to the major types of case studies in respect of their distinct features and uses. Fyvbgerg (2006) attests to the existence of several categories of case studies, such as Burns's (2000) typology that comprises historical, observational, situational, clinical, and multi-case studies. The focus of the discussion is on the universally recognised types of case study. Baxter and Jack (2008); Cohen et al. (2011), and Yin (2003) concur on the categorisation of case study researches into three dominant types. This typology contains the explanatory, descriptive, and exploratory cases studies. An analysis of the explanatory case study is first given.

Explanatory case study: Yin (2003) maintains the position that explanatory studies are undertaken in order to seek answers to questions by researchers on a phenomenon. Hence, the study is guided by a set of questions by which it maintains focus and consistency. This entails that, as per the

narrative of the explanatory case study, these questions are used in an endeavour to explain the lived experiences of the participants in the contextual boundary of the natural settings. Budden (2016) adds that a case study can access research exploits that survey or experimental strategies may find challenging. The use of questions has a profound effect on understanding the case, based on resultant knowledge (Yin, 2003). The explanatory case study is a unique type of case study, in that it accommodates emerging issues during the research process for as long as those issues enhance understanding of the phenomenon (Elshafie, 2013). For its data generation, the explanatory case study follows a triangulation process that includes techniques such as interviews, observations, document analysis, and pictures (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). According to Yin, (2014), these features display the uniqueness of the explanatory case study, deriving from the guidance that is provided by the questions. The next type of case study to be described is the descriptive case study.

Descriptive case study: In the descriptive case study, the aim of the researcher is to provide a full description of the phenomenon in its natural setting (Yin, 2003). One of the strategies from the literature is the use of a verbal narration of the case. This is framed in the form of a story that describes the phenomenon, as informed by the descriptive theory (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). The other strategy involves the researcher, who documents the actions of the participants as the event unfolds. The descriptive case study is unique in that abstract concepts that otherwise would not have been detected, omitting such from the participants' narrations of lived accounts, would be revealed in the enactment of the activity. The researcher observes the phenomenon as it unfolds, while he or she is not influenced by a script that evaluates the concepts and what to record. These moments, when they are captured in written form, can be captured in compelling linguistic configurations that may choose drama over deeds. When this happens, the real issue of the phenomenon may be overshadowed. The last case study to be outlined is the exploratory case study.

Exploratory case study: To explore is to look for something of interest. An exploratory case study is undertaken in order to find something of interest or value in the phenomenon. Mills, Durepos and Wiebe (2010) state that the goal of an exploratory case study is to explore a case that leads to a theory for explaining the phenomenon. Therefore, the case study justifies its usefulness in cases where an intervention is relatively unknown (Yin, 2011). In such circumstances, the exploratory

case study is viewed as lacking predetermined outcomes, which should interest the researcher's curiosity and inquisitive mind. Similarly, the NFEP programmes enactment is a case at hand from the point of view of embarking into the unknown terrain of the NFEP programmes practise that was launched in 2015.

Dlamini (2017) contends that intrinsic motivation is a prime factor that drives the researcher. It follows then that a researcher may be intent upon learning about a phenomenon that will yield a theory. However, inasmuch as the opportunity presents itself to the researcher, possibilities of achieving the goal depend on the use of the correct data-generation tools (Hardman, 2005). Cohen et al. (2011) support Hardman in recommending open interviews, observations, reflective activity, and documentary analysis, as key instruments. The rationale for their choice is that "these interpretive methodologies share some kind of observation, description and studying the phenomena in situ" (Elshafie, 2013, p. 8).

Using an interpretive paradigm, the researcher embarks on the exploration research journey. The researcher embarks on a search for rich data that is needed to account for the participants' beliefs, cultures, and experiences that facilitate, leading to an understanding of the complex phenomenon. In order to accomplish this activity, Hardman (2005) further argues that the researcher immerses him or herself in the phenomenon in every way possible. The researcher must therefore, be engulfed by the phenomenon, becoming absorbed by the phenomenon. These actions include familiarising with the phenomenon's elements such as, with reference to CHAT, the object, activity, the subjects, rules, division of labour, the community, and the various tools that mediate the phenomenon. How this happens is subject to the ingenuity of the researcher in the context of the phenomenon. Mark (2010) refers to these relationship-building efforts as the foundational perspective that results in a collaborative research activity.

Based on the interrogation of the three types of cases studies, this study adopted the exploratory case-study approach in order to adequately address the 'how' and 'why' of the NFEP programmes' enactment by educators. Yin (2003) posits that the exploratory case study is positioned for one to embark on a study of a case in which a theory is sought; and not for studies subject to an existing theory or hypotheses. Therefore, 'the explorer' will access the rich vein of data for such a purpose. Furthermore, as the researcher, one relied on experience in the use of the data-generation tools, in the practise of my profession as a lecturer and researcher. The committed and the acknowledged

enactment perspectives were to ensure that education, training, and experience, as personal attributes, were utilised, while the acknowledged vision would guide me in the use of triangulation methods in order to produce a research document meeting the required standards of professionalism in the field. Schartner (2015) comments that building a theory from data is one of the advantages of the exploratory case study. Likewise, the researcher was intrinsically motivated to construct theory on teaching and learning in the NFEP school-model programmes, as a personal outcomes. The use of the acknowledged form of enactment influenced the adoption of the triangulation process using established research methods (semi-structured interview, document analysis, observation) (Shoba, 2018). The case-study research and the data-generation methods would ensure measures of trustworthiness of the findings (Shenton, 2014).

Every item has its own key features that distinguish it from the others, features that help to articulate its quality. The case-study research has key features that give it its basic shape and strengths. One key feature of the case study method is its capability of producing thick and detailed descriptive data on the phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2011). This is an important attribute, owing to the complex nature of generating qualitative data (Cohen et al., 2011). Utilising the case study ensures that sufficient data is generated in response to the curious ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions, says Yin, (2003). Furthermore, “the case study inquiry copes with the technically distinctive situations in which there will be many more variables of interest that data points at as one result” (p. 130). The data will enable the researcher to understand the actions of the participants, in line with the inquiry.

Another distinctive feature is that the case-study search is focused on cases in which parameters will be clearly defined. Budden (2016) maintains that, “In usual occurrences this method selects a small geographical area with a limited amount of individuals as participants in the study” (p. 184). This illustrates that the case-study method caters for a close exploration of the phenomenon that a researcher would have separated from others and within a particular context, such as that of educators enacting teaching and learning in the school-model programmes that were set up by the NFEP (2015). The phenomenon is located within its own context and is understood from participants’ perspectives (Bassey, 1999). The current study, which is located in the NFEP school model, has only the potential for the transferability of the findings on educators’ pedagogical practices to similar NFEP programmes’ school models in the country.

Cohen et al. (2011) posit that the case-study approach relies on the researcher performing a ‘participant’ role. In this role, the researcher must exude certain attributes that positively affect the research process. Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2011) prioritise the researcher’s motivations as being instrumental and foundational to all other personalised attributes, such as commitment and passion. In this functional role, the researcher is inquisitive, analytic, and therefore, critical about every aspect of the process in order to ensure measures of trustworthiness of the research results (Dlamini, 2017). Formunyan (2015) concurs that researchers performing such roles produce research that is linked to their personalities since research is driven by their committed enactment. Khoza (2015) elaborates on the committed enactment as the form of enactment that researchers use in order to create an identity. When the researcher’s individual identity is aligned with the research’s goals, the researcher will embrace the enactment process. The researcher’s perceptions and interpretations become aligned with the research throughout the inquiry (Creswell, 2014). These are some of the salient features that shape the various types of case studies. The challenges that a researcher can encounter when utilising the case study method can also be mitigated.

Baxter and Jack (2008) are aware that it is characteristic of case studies to accumulate massive amounts of data. Such data are needed for use in developing comprehensive evidence on participants’ lived experiences, on which knowledge is constructed. The activity of generating the data can be laborious. In addition, replication of the data-generation interviews, documentary analyses, reflective activities, and observations with each of the participants can be monotonous.

This is when the data is made sense of; and this often results in detailed descriptions of the phenomenon. The large volumes of data on the phenomenon are needed in order to have a phenomenon that is fully described and ascribed. Without sufficient data, therefore, the researcher risks not being fully understood. Budden (2016) captures the ‘soul and spirit’ of accurate reporting, as follows: “The main premise of the report is to capture the essence of the phenomenon in such a way that the reader’s imagination is catapulted to the context of the research as if they were there” (p. 194). However, in constructing them, researchers can produce reports that are biased, subjective, and full of idiosyncrasies (Denzin & Lincoln, 2012). These are some of the vices that damage the trustworthiness of qualitative research studies.

Klein and Meyers (1999) argue that these vices are rooted in the preconceptions that researchers hold. Researchers must heed the need to be immersed in the study from an informed position of

the contexts of the phenomenon. The researcher will then become an outsider-insider participant who is supportive and empathetic, while being non-judgmental. Yin (2003) calls for a methodical approach to handling the data, until a report is produced, by suggesting six methods for reporting a case study. The methods are the linear, comparative, chronological, theory building, suspense, or sequenced procedure. Researchers are organised from inside, namely, from both the committed and the acknowledged enactment perspectives. The researcher was informed by the structure of the CHAT, as a system for research writing and was guided by elements of CHAT.

Researchers often encounter the hurdle of accessing research participants. In a politically polarised community, political affiliations are instrumental in accessing public schools. Contrasting ideologies between school management and research purposes have seen researchers being denied entrance into schools. Management may feel threatened by the research findings, or suffer a fear of the unknown syndrome. Management may not wish to risk their jobs and positions of authority. In such environments, research rigour is compromised; as researchers cannot implement all measures, such as repeat verification visits/member checking. Researchers have to apply the ‘Do it right first time’ principle as much as possible.

The last challenge to be debated relates to the generalisability of case-study findings. This is a common challenge associated with the case-study approach (Cohen et al., 2011; Merriam, 2009). Kivunja & Kuyini (2013) state that the generalisability of research findings occurs when findings are applicable to other situations through making inferences. The generalisability construct is more common to users of the positivist paradigm than non-positivists. The opposing positions are addressed through an agreed position by anti-positivists; that qualitative research studies cannot be detached from the people involved in the phenomenon (Gunbayi & Sorm, 2018). Hence, this NFEP programmes enactment study explored the participants’ contextual factors which influence the process, without much attention to generalisability issues. The study was guided by the interpretive paradigm; and ensured that, instead of generalisability of findings, the results would be transferred to similar contexts, namely, other educators enacting teaching and learning in the schools model in Zimbabwe. The researcher was fully aware that the:

“interpretivist researcher deals with human behaviour which is by its very nature continuously variable, contextual, and subject to multiple interpretations of reality, s/he is not able to reproduce exactly the same results” (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 34).

Having adopted the interpretivist paradigm to frame this study, and being aware of its principled position on the matter, strengthened the researcher's use of the commitment enactment in order to produce findings that would be transferable to similar contexts. In addition, Yin's (2009) position is that generalisation within the qualitative case-study approach must be considered as representing analytic generalisation, based on the theory that would have been generated.

Based on the background information that was presented above, the case study method was chosen in order to facilitate the exploration of the phenomenon in which educators enacted NFE teaching and learning, in a way that was intensive (Bassey, 1999). The researcher considered and used the data generation methods that frame the case study approach. Literature by Baxter and Jack (2008) and Yin (2003) convinced the researcher that the semi-structured interview, the observation and document analysis methods were explicitly suited for gathering in-depth data on the everyday experiences of the educators in enacting teaching and learning. Semi-structure were a flexible and versatile instrument, the observation method afforded the researcher to witness enactment in real time, while document analyses revealed the quality and use of primary documents in supporting enactments. Kisaka-Jwan (2018) also concurs that based on the above analysis, the enactment of case study approach can be rationalised. The next section presents the discourse on the sampling construct, reflecting how sampling was used in the study.

6.3.1 Sample for the study

Gillham (2000) posits that research is the study of human phenomenon in the real world, in which the human beings become the main subjects of an inquiry aimed at understanding phenomenon (Denzin and Lincoln, 2012; Leedy and Ormord, 2012). However, it is unrealistic to study the entire population, owing to constraints of both time and money (Mabuza, 2018). Researchers are restricted to taking a representative portion of the population, here called a sample (Cohen et al., 2011), which reflects the parent population's characteristics. Frey, Botan and Kreps' (2000) view of a sample is that of a sub-group of the population or a sampled unit representing the characteristics of a known number of units within the population. The selection of the sample is referred to as sampling.

Strydom and Delpont (2013) define sampling as the act of selecting a small number of entities that the researcher considers representative of the entire population. Technically, sampling reduces the number of study units, which should help to reduce operational costs (Mabuza, 2018). Theoretically, sampling produces a subset of the population which builds the trustworthiness of the results (Shenton, 2004). In addition, from a communal enactment perspective, the researcher uses his or her familiarity with the populations' characteristics, to inform him or her that the population possesses the characteristics that can be used to galvanise the research. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) reiterate that the trustworthiness of the findings of the study is dependent on the nature of the sub-group that provided the data. It is therefore crucial for the decisions on sampling to be taken at the research-planning stage in order that the researcher is clear about who will provide the in-depth data on the phenomenon under investigation (Cohen et al., 2011). Cohen et al. lodged a five-stage process that a researcher could follow in order to ensure that the sampling process contributes significantly to the trustworthiness of the research. The process was assured by demonstrating that the population is being properly represented (Shenton, 2004). The findings were considered a true picture of the population from which the sample was extracted.

Cohen et al., 2011) posit that, first, the researcher must address the question of the sample size in a way that ensures that the population has been appropriately represented. However, Creswell (2013) argues that, with qualitative research, sampling does not follow the positivists' selection procedure, that which adheres to statistical probability of selection. Instead, theoretical norms are used to determine sample size; and the researcher has the prerogative to decide on the sample size. Mukeredzi (2009) justifies the use of a small size sample comprising of six participants on the basis of the paradigmatic location of the study, namely, the interpretive and qualitative framework. While the sample size could be uncharacteristically small in number, a qualitative case study should be framed by intense interrogations and detailed analysis of the data (Yin, 2003). The next stage relates to the sampling strategy.

The researcher chose to use the non-probability, purposive sampling frame. This study is a qualitative study that adopted the interpretive paradigm's ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions favouring the use of the non-probability sampling (Cohen et al., 2013; Strydom et al., 2014). Non-probability sampling is linked with the features of the case study approach since the approach is both qualitative and compatible with the use of the interpretive

paradigm (Budden, 2016) Furthermore, non-probability sampling saves money and time (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007), resources which the researcher did not sufficiently possess.

There are two dominant sampling frames that researchers use, namely, the probability, and non-probability sampling frames (Cohen et al., 2011), based on the chosen research designs. Quantitative designs seek to determine statistical inferences about the data based on probability sampling. The most common sampling frames are the simple random, stratified, cluster, and the systematic sampling frames. Qualitative designs align themselves with non-probability sampling frames that seek in-depth knowledge about phenomenon (Creswell, 2007; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The four major non-probability sampling frames are the purposive, convenience, snowballing, and quota sampling (Cohen et al., 2011). In addition, Cohen et al. argue that a non-probability sampling strategy is the most suited to qualitative designs in which researchers seek to illuminate participants' thoughts and behaviour, as discussed below.

The non-probability strategy uses non-random criteria, in order to select small samples that mitigate the increases in bias and sampling error associated with large samples (Denzil & Lincoln, 2012), on condition that the small sample answers the research questions. Therefore, the non-probability strategy should facilitate the selection of representative units from the entire population (Latham, 2007). In the quota sampling frame, the population can be divided into sub-groups, based on criteria such as qualifications, employability, and social status, thereby increasing representation at a large scale. Snowballing can be likened to networking (Frey et al., 2000), following the researcher's inability to locate informants. Snowballing uses informal channels such as learners and mobile phones to contact fellow informants. Snowballing resonates with a researcher who has envisioned a specific group of people who cannot be explicitly identified. The researcher therefore relies on someone who is able to get in touch with this group, because it has the particular characteristics that the researcher needs (Budden, 2016). However, the quota framing did not suit this qualitative study in which the researcher had the full support of the school heads with full knowledge of the informants and how to access them. Purposive, convenience, and snowballing sampling frames were used in this study to select appropriate samples, as discussed below, beginning with the sampling frames

Purposive sampling: Creswell (2013) comments that purposive sampling serves the selection of individuals and study sites in order to learn and understand phenomenon. Braun and Clarke (2007)

add that the particular set of participants may have to be accessed on the basis that they have particular characteristics such as experience. This was the case in this study, in which all the participants had been teaching for about a year. The researcher included a particular set of participants, based on judgment and belief that these were the people to facilitate an in-depth inquiry (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010). First, the three study sites (schools) were purposively selected. The criteria for such were to study NFEP programmes' enactment at schools that were vibrant in their enactment of NFEP programmes. According to the NFEP (2015), schools have the potential to enact three types of programmes, at the time of the study. From the committed enactment perspective, the researcher knew that NFE is for voluntary learners. Such learners can be influenced to divert their attention to more urgent roles in life – abandoning learning for farming and small-scale mining activities, in search of a better life. The researcher sought to access data that would be unique, in that the enactment of the three programmes would become known, and the findings would represent a holistic picture of NFEP programmes' enactment in schools. One school offered basic education at primary-school level, another school offered part-time continuing education at secondary-school level; and the last school enacted functional literacy education (skills). In this study, the researcher purposely settled on educators who had been teaching NFEP programmes for at least a year. The researcher was certain that they had become acquainted with the teaching field, at least to some degree. Similarly, educators in all the programmes possessed the content to teach NFE based on the formal-education training colleges, as well as the pedagogy on teaching schoolchildren. The participants were full-time educators in primary and secondary schools. Purposive, convenient sampling techniques which included snowballing were employed, with the assistance of the school heads, their deputies, and NFE school coordinators. The composition of the participants assured me of accessing rich data from willing sources.

There were some notable difficulties encountered with selecting a school with a viable functional education programme, owing to some of the following reasons: income projects require start-up finances at a time when the government is struggling to finance even main-stream education (Ngwenya, 2018). Functional literacy projects are normally funded by the donor community. There is a scarcity of donor funding worldwide, owing to demands to deal with life-threatening disasters. Cyclone Idai destroyed lives and infrastructure in Zimbabwe and Mozambique in early 2019, and its victims need humanitarian assistance. This is a priority area that requires donor funding, compared to education funding. Extensive rebuilding is currently in progress. In addition, payment

of fairly large amounts of money, as joining fees and the purchase of inputs and educator' fees prohibit most rural-based people from engaging in FLE programmes.

Convenience sampling: The convenience frame is used for obtaining participants who are readily available, willing, and accessible, to participate in the study (Cohen et al., 2007; Etikan et al., (2016). This becomes convenient to the researcher in terms of considerable savings of time and money (Cohen et al., 2011). The researcher settled for schools that were actively enacting NFEP programmes, were accessible at reasonable cost, and where the educators were available to participate in the data-generation process. In using the convenience framework, the researcher does not intend to generalise the findings since qualitative studies do not generalise their findings elsewhere (Cohen et al., 2007; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The researcher used the sampling frames that were supportive of one another, to heighten the trustworthiness of research results.

Based on the communal enactment values of social relations, cooperation and respect, all the participants completed the data-generation process, but not without incident (this is to be discussed in the data-generation section). In using the purposive and convenience sampling frames, the researcher accessed rich data from data-rich informants. This ensured that the data were internally valid and reliable in order to enhance trustworthiness. The researcher was able to source data from credible and dependable educators. Such people were interested in participating in a research that was the first of its kind since it became mandatory for schools to provide NFEP programmes to out-of-school children, youths and adults. Some of the participants thought that they had found an opportunity to publicise the work they did, so that the programmes would receive funds for resources, levies for learners, and money for their incentives. '*Pamwe tingawane ma donor*'; 'Maybe we can get donors for our project,' remarked an enthusiastic participant. There were others who seemed to have found an opportunity to raise issues with their employer, preferring to refer to the incentive as being too small to buy even an 'air pie' (free lunch). Such educators wanted to lobby the government to pay reasonable incentives. The standing arrangement was that educators were paid a fraction of the levies; but the irony was that the communities could only afford to pay Z\$ 15 (ZAR25) to attend ZABEC, \$35 (ZAR60) for PTCE and \$ 25 (ZAR40) for the FLE programme per term, at the exchange rates when I did the research.

The use of the purposive, convenience, and snowballing sampling frames helped to meet costs and time deadlines for data gathering, while achieving qualitative research standards. Qualitative

research uses non-probability methods in order to study human beings and explore a phenomenon based on questions that arise from reflection on community contemporary issues, as well as those that emanate from professional practise. For example, the NFEP programmes enactment study addresses concerns for relevant education for out-of-school children, youths and adults, while from a professional practise perspective, NFEP must be driven by a theory that emerges from the research findings.

Snowball sampling: Flick (2011) provides a self-explanatory principle of the concept, and demonstrates the enactment of the snowballing sampling frame. In using the snowballing frame, the researcher invites the first participant, who, in turn, refers the researcher to the next participant, and so forth. Snowballing is a communal enactment in which referrals are made based on the parameters that the researcher would have set. In this study, the school heads referred me to the NFE team leaders, who then made their final choices for me to consider. In all instances, the educators met the criteria for the research participants (see Table 6.1 below on profiles).

Sampling of schools:

The researcher consulted the NFE and the lifelong learning management team in the district, before accessing the selected schools. The researcher was conscious of the statistical unrepresentative nature of the sample of participants, but was confident that these participants had the attributes and potential to fulfill the research objectives (Christiansen et al., 2011; Cohen et al., 2011). In addition, Bryan (2012) avers that participants should understand the research questions, so that they respond meaningfully. The knowledge generated was for theory-building on NFEP programmes' enactment, of which there was a gap of knowledge. The study was the first one on enactment of the three programmes that make up NFEP programmes' enactment in schools. It study sought to produce knowledge that would result in informed insights on the current phenomenon, while paving the way for improvements were they were required.

The selection process started with purposive sampling of the schools that enacted teaching and learning within the NFEP programmes. These were known to the management of NFE programmes in the district. With their assistance, a list was compiled, which the researcher used to purposively select the schools. At all three schools, the school heads welcomed the researcher, warmly. The researcher concluded that due to the influence of three universities and three teachers' colleges and three tertiary institutions whose learners and lecturer often requested assistance in

undertaking research, the management recognised the need to extend their cooperation to the researcher, too. . On hearing and reading the request form for permission to conduct research, they handed me to the deputy heads. The deputies at each school were equally welcoming. After having introduced oneself and the study, the researcher gave them the gatekeeper's request and consent forms to read and to discuss with me. No discussion followed, except to wish me success, followed by the signing of the forms, thereby endorsing the full support of each of the schools for me to generate data. The researcher then explained the profile of the suitable participants for the research purpose; and their selection was smoothly accomplished.

Sampling of participants: In this study, a sample of seven (7) participants was adopted and was used to provide data. The number is justified on the basis of the scope of the inquiry. All the three sampling frames were found to have some strengths for use in accessing rich sources of data and accordingly, the purposive, convenience and snowballing techniques were systematically used. There were three programmes in the NFEP programmes school-model. These programmes are researched on separately, then presented and discussed independently of each other, before the findings are merged in order to produce one story of the teaching and learning in NFEP programmes 'school model. The seven educators were chosen to purposively represent the three programmes in the three schools. There could have been an equal number of participants per programme per school. However, owing to the diverse and complex nature of NFE programmes and their learners, this could not be achieved. Traditional programmes (basic education and part-time education) were represented by three participants each, while functional literacy had one participant. Functional literacy is popular with adults only, while the other two programmes have learners of mixed age-groups. In addition, a school and its community which can provide a skills-development programme need to recruit a qualified instructor, normally only one instructor per such programme at any given time. One such school was located in the district and had a single qualified instructor.

Sampling challenges and mitigation: However, there are challenges associated with the use of purposive, convenience, and snowball sampling frames that are now presented below. First, the research can be affected by errors in sampling (Saunders et al., 2012). One type of error is the use of unsuitable participants that the researcher would have purposively hand-picked. However, Cohen et al. (2011) argue that a sampling error does not particularly denote the outcome of an

oversight made in the sampling process but rather a variation in characteristics displayed by individuals, owing to haphazard selection. The researcher would then be using participants who lack adequate information about the phenomenon. This reflects badly on the researcher, who must adhere strictly to his or her criteria for choice of participants. The researcher sourced help from a fellow researcher who scrutinised the final sample against the set criteria, in order to ensure strict compliance with the checklist.

There is also the challenge of researcher bias in the selection of participants, say Cohen et al. (2007), which results in the omission of better-informed participants. According to Mpungose (2017), such biased selections can lead to biased findings. A way of mitigating bias is through triangulation (Shenton, 2004). While the triangulation process is recommended as a measure that minimises the effect of researcher bias in the data-generation process, a strategy that ensures conformity with a transparent criteria for the objective selection of appropriate participants, must be put in place. The researcher was challenged to keep to the acknowledged enactment use that is framed on professional practice.

The final challenge to discuss pertains to time consumption in the analysis and reporting of data (Cohen et al., 2011). The use of these non-probability sampling frames provides the researcher with participants from whom data is generated in a laborious process that demands time and patience. The data is in large volumes. When the data have been availed, analysing and reporting data of this nature becomes lengthy and may lead to mistakes in reporting, add Cohen et al. In emphasising that this is the nature of qualitative research, Zainal (2007) expounds that the thick description and detailed, rich insights gained from the data that reveal the lived experiences of participants are required, to facilitate the identification and explanation of the complexities derived from these experiences. The qualitative researcher must therefore remain focused on acknowledged enactment, embarking on analysis of the data. In the study, the researcher ensured that, at the planning stage, the researcher braced for this eventuality through proper time-management strategies. Practices that lack credibility can lead to a poor state of data that is generated (Cohen et al., 2013; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014).

Etikan et al. (2016) encourage the selection of participants based on their engagement in their relevant field, such as in NFE, as is the focus in this study. This is important in ensuring responses to the questions that seek information on the phenomenon under investigation. All the participants

that formed the final sample had been enacting the NFEP for varying durations, following the launch of the policy in 2015, therefore their experience was valued.

The researcher reflected on the sampling strategy and noted the following success areas. Purposive sampling provided the study with the sample of school schools to use and the sample of participants. Using snowballing sampling, vital information was sort which produced the sample of seven educators who were rich sources of data that the researcher sought. The convenience sampling was use all round to decide on the educators and the schools. The sampling process revealed the synergistic nature of sampling procedures when undertaking qualitative research. Creswell (2007) observes qualitative research sample determines the quality of the data. Accordingly, the researcher planned carefully in order to utilise the benefits that accrue from using more than a single sampling strategy in this study.

Pre-data generation procedures: Preparing the participants was done owing to the need to remove any unforeseen obstacles. Accordingly, all the participants participated in

One-on-one discussions that comprehensively covered the confidentiality clause, the purpose, and the structure of the interview process. After each of the participants accepted the invitation to participate in the study, each of them was issued the consent form to read and discuss any obscure area, of which there were no major areas of concern. Nonetheless, the researcher highlighted the core areas, after which the participants signed the forms. A general concern was the time that each interview session would take, since the interviews were to be held outside normal teaching time. Most of the participants claimed that they were pressed for time; while one of them preferred the weekend. The interviews were to be between sixty and eighty minutes. The extra twenty minutes was to allow for moments of silence. Braun and Clarke (2014) posit that a way to encourage people to talk is to allow for moments of silence after they have stopped talking. Participants were informed that they could choose a suitable time and venue. The researcher was to return during lunchtime on a day agreed upon during the same week, to draw up a register of appointments. All the participants were satisfied with the final list, since it ensured that there were no clashes. The data-generation process was to commence as arranged, with none of the participants having any reservations about taking part in the data-generation process.

The participants' cooperation boosted the researcher's confidence to work with participants who would be willing and professional in this exercise. From the outset, the researcher realised that the

probability of collecting data that were trustworthy was high. The participants were all volunteers and were willing to use their experience in researching during teacher training, to respond to the research questions. This attitude would enrich the process with well-framed responses. In the data-generation process that was to follow, participants’ personal identification was hidden and replaced by pseudonyms. This is an ethical and moral principle that researchers engaging in qualitative research adhere to, in order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity in the conducting of a research study (Christensen, Johnson & Turner (2014). Data collected on participants’ profiles were compiled following the initial meeting, before the actual data generation phase and is presented next, bearing pseudonyms.

6.3.2 Profiling sample of participants

The rationale for profiling the participants is located in characterising CHAT in NFEP, in which enactment practices may also be understood by analysing participants’ profiles. The argument is that Vygotsky (1978) analysed an activity in CHAT as being mediated by artefacts such as tools and history, such that it becomes “socially constituted within a culture” (Bertelsen, 2003; p. 298). In the same manner, individual educators’ actions are mediated by components of their career portfolios, among other factors such as personality traits. Therefore, their enactment perspectives and actions in the enactment activity are contingent upon such factors as age, skill, strengths (education), social standing, and experience, gender and beliefs (Cohen et al., 2011).

Table 6.1: Participants’ Work Profiles

Programme	Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Qualification	FE Enactment Experience	NFEP Enactment Experience
ZABEC	ZA	F	53	Dip. Ed	19	4
ZABEC	ZB	F	57	BED	34	4
ZABEC	ZC	F	63	MED	43	3

PTCE	PA	M	37	MSc	14	4
PTCE	PB	M	53	ME Ed	31	4
PTCE	PC	F	48	BEd	25	4
FE	FA	F	41	Bed,B Tech	18	1

Table 6.1 presented the profiles of the seven educators who contributed the data during the data generation stage. Their education portfolios were viewed using criteria that are linked to each of them, through their pseudonyms. Pseudonyms safeguard the true identities of participants by instituting measures that make identities anonymous. In addition to pseudonyms, the biographical details portrayed the participants, gender, age, qualifications, and programme that each participant enacted, level/grade of learners taught, and experience at teaching in the non-formal education sector, following the launch of the NFEP five years ago, in March, 2015. Of particular interest to stakeholders in teaching and learning, are the qualifications of the main actors in the teaching activity, the educators. While Table 6.1 shows that the participants had qualifications that were related to teaching, the key determinants of the requisite qualifications are the employers, who use a qualifications frameworks to determine minimum qualifications. In Zimbabwe, the relevant ministry stipulates the basic requirements in the syllabus for each programme. Participants who were enacting ZABEC were using the primary-school qualifications in which the diploma in teaching is the minimum qualification required. Likewise, secondary-school educators enacting the PTCE were holders of a first degree in the special subject they taught in the formal education system. The FLE programme is a technical subject of which the national foundation certificate (NFC) is a minimum qualification. This programme is generally offered to learners through polytechnic colleges and high schools. These profiles mediating the behaviours of the educators were analysed for traces of fitness of purpose. The participant with a qualification in garment-construction technology was presumed to possess the content that learners need in order to realise their learning outcomes in such a programme. Such a qualification makes the participant a ‘master of content’ while the same participant can still be regarded a ‘misfit of pedagogy’ if the participant lacks the pedagogy for teaching adults. The researcher used the observation method in order to complement the interview and document-analysis techniques, and primarily to establish the degree of trustworthiness (Khoza, 2012).

6.4 Data-generation Methods

To generate data is similar to the act of assembling data accurately. Kisaka-Jwan (2018) refers to the process as a negotiated process in which the researcher and the participants engage in an activity of co-creating meaning. Similarly, the task for the researcher is to ensure that the data are understood, analysed, and interpreted in relation to the research questions (Cohen, 2011). This study used one-on-one semi-structured interviews, participant observations, and a document analysis. Semi-structured interviews served as the primary method of data generation, since the study involved human experiences (Cohen et al. 2011; Yin, 2003). By use of these multiple data generation methods, the researcher was able to engage the participants for deep insights, in order to gain an understanding of the phenomenon under study. In addition, the decision to settle on these methods was taken in order to enhance the trustworthiness of the study and its findings (Shenton, 2004). The following section illuminates the use and experience of each method in generating the data, commencing with the structured interview.

6.4.1 Semi-structured interviews

Literature points to the interview method of data generation as having been in use for a long time in qualitative research (Britten, 1995; Maree, 2007). Vos et al. (2013) define an interview as a specialised interchange of information between the interviewer and the interviewee, who is perceived to possess knowledge that the researcher seeks in order to explore a phenomenon. According to Maree (2007) an interview is a two-way conversation in which the interviewer poses questions in order to gain answers on particular issues. The responses can be in the form of ideas, views, and opinions. The role of the interviewer is explicit, that is, to elicit responses by asking questions, while that of the interviewee (participant) is to supply the responses.

Qualitative research seeks to understand the world from the participants' point of view (Creswell, 2011), the search being for participants' meanings of the phenomenon (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017), as mediated by the participants' thinking, school of thought, or set of shared beliefs. Similarly, the face-to-face interview method facilitated the exploration of educators enacting the NFEP programmes, so as to obtain data, not only for explaining why the participants do what they do,

but in addressing other the key research questions for this study on the forms of enactment used by educators and how they deploy them: Research Question Three was the main research question: Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways that they do in the non-formal education policy (NFEP) programmes? This main question and all the others were framed around CHAT which incorporated NFEP curriculum concepts. Thus, the elements of CHAT, as synchronised with NFEP, were adopted. Consultations with research supervisors ensured that the research questions were suitable for data-generation purposes. Furthermore, the choice of the face-to-face semi-structured interview was to ensure that the same questions were asked of each interviewee in the same way and in a systematic order, in order to minimise bias (Edwards & Holland, 2013) while allowing for probing (Patton, 2002). The communication process could be diverted slightly from the script, in order to make the method more suitable and adaptable to prevailing situations. The semi-structured interview accommodated issues of emotion, especially when educators explained their experiences, in order to give weight to each one's world view. Some participants described their passion for enacting NFEP programmes because of feelings of empathy, while others were demoralised by the meager incentives that they received in an inflationary environment.

Cohen et al. (2007) and Creswell (2011) confirm that the interview method is aligned with the interpretive paradigm, in which qualitative research seeks to understand the world from the participants' point of view. The researcher adopted a one-to-one semi-structured interview schedule for obtaining data from the participants. The interview schedule contained a set of predetermined open-ended questions that were constructed based on policy concepts that were incorporated CHAT, since the CHAT underpinned this research study. The participants who enact teaching and learning in NFEP programmes were valuable reservoirs of data which the study required in order to understand the participants' NFEP enactment practices. The researcher valued their contributions to the study and became sensitive when handling the participants and thereafter showed them a genuine sense of interest by having to listen attentively. In turn the researcher was able in order to obtain deep insights of the phenomenon. However, at first some of the participants were reluctant to speak at length. They were economical with their response truth about their teaching experiences. The researcher had to handle the delicate process cautiously, maintaining gender and cultural sensitivity.

The interview method has been in regular use for many years, owing to its strengths in qualitative research (Cohen et al., 2011). The semi-structured interview allowed the researcher explored leads that were linked to the enactment phenomenon (Creswell, 2007). In following the new leads, new questions arose; and these were accommodated by the flexible method (Braun & Clarke, 2014), using the typically unassuming question, ‘Could you give me an example?’ This method allows for new issues to arise, that were used to develop an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. The interview method is adaptable (Creswell, 2007). Patton (2012) views probing as an advantage that allows the researcher to enter the world of the interviewee by flowing with the tide in search of elucidations and elaborations but without causing any stress (Braun & Clarke, 2014) Researchers must be alert for leads, entering freely into new forms of dialogue, with the enthusiasm of participants, add Braun and Clarke. Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2007) state that the interview is an adaptable technique to use, such that the researcher was able to accommodate interviewees with different personal attributes. For example, one of them kept signaling for opportunities to elaborate on experiences by saying: “Listen to this, Mabuto,” whenever he thought that the researcher was about to terminate the interview. What the participant was not aware of was that the interview does not follow rigid guidelines (Budden, 2016), since the researcher was flexible and interested in the participant’s complete life story. In addition, the flexibility of the method extended to the use of the mother tongue when necessary. Some participants did use their mother tongue, although sparingly, since all of them had attended institutions of higher learning where English was the official language of communication. The researcher, with each of the participants ensured that the correct versions of the English translations were obtained. There was a risk that interpretations, translations, and recontextualisation of concepts, from mother tongue to English and vice-versa, would result in distortions and discomfort. Therefore, when a researcher is interviewing participants who speak English as a second language, communication becomes a barrier, and the use of the mother tongue increases relationship building, also called rapport (Ndamba, 2009). Shoba (2018) contends that recognising the human aspect as portrayed in the language of interviewees, is unavoidable in qualitative studies. Qu and Dumay (2011) concur that interviewing requires that interviewers respect the interviewees in ways that show curiosity about other people, even when they use their mother tongue. The researcher made an effort to hear and understand what people said using the f mother tongue, by summoning the use of other major languages that are spoken in Zimbabwe, namely ChiShona and SiNdebele since he researcher was multilingual.

The art of listening wins the day in qualitative interviews, bearing in mind that: “Interviewees are truth tellers who are faithful to the transmission and production of facts and knowledge” Qu and Dumay (2011, p. 244). The researcher showed respect by arriving early for the interview sessions, listening attentively, so as to minimise having to ask a participant to repeat their response. The researcher also displayed culturally correct non-verbal cues of being attentive by leaning forward and head nodding. In addition the use of a ‘loose structure’ ensured that the interviews were not conducted rigidly but systematically, such that all relevant topics were covered in a single session. The method facilitated access to first-hand information about the NFEP programmes’ enactment phenomenon, which is the essence of qualitative studies (Flick, 2006), from the educators in this study, who were the primary sources of data.

Mertens (2008); Qu and Dumay (2011) point out the disadvantage of using the interview method, namely failure to access participants. There were three programmes in three schools, and the seven participants, who enacted the three programmes in the study, had personal profiles that suited the study. The schools were all public schools. Each had a different programme under their administration, bringing with them different and diverse contexts, from which to learn and understand enactment of teaching and learning in NFEP’s programmes in schools. Participants were cooperative in varying degrees; and all of them were interviewed, and observed while teaching. However, only a few relevant documents were available for analysis, while two participants were uneasy with committing themselves to observations. The researcher’s persistence and patience paid off and they were observed, eventually. The participants might have felt that the state of the classrooms would be a source embarrassment since there were no lights due to load shedding by city authorities

Another challenge was the interviewer effect which is a common with the use of interviews (Bernard, 2011). This refers to an interviewer’s urge to control the interview session by adopting a rigid approach to the proceedings, usually in the interests of managing time and ego. The interviewer then disturbs the flow of the interview to the frustration and mental withdrawal of the interviewee. Instead, the interviewer allowed the interviewees to exhaust their stories, following the experience of the first interview. In the first interview, the interviewer had hoped to adhere to procedure as per the rehearsal that had been done the day before. The researcher had anticipated that the interviewee would adhere to the same sequenced pattern. When the discussion spilled into

another sub-theme, the interviewer held back, hoping to find a dignified way to realign the interviewee. The interviewer later, readjusted to the development and continued with note-taking, but rather late in the conversation. However, the interviewer's fears of missing some information were allayed by the use of the active voice recorder. This experience was an important lesson on flexibility; and the researcher learnt how to manage the subsequent interview situations more appropriately.

The interviewer was also aware of a limitation called the methodological practice and technique, by Qu and Dumay (2011). For example, an interviewee may hold back vital information for fear of disclosure. In mitigating this limitation, interviewers use the consent form as an assurance of anonymity, and the voice recorder for accurate records. While some interviewees may dismiss the importance of the consent forms, but without openly saying so to the interviewer, the researcher repeatedly reiterated the confidentiality clause in the consent forms, thereby managing to win back their confidence based on assurances of confidentiality.. Another mitigation strategy from Qu and Dumay (2011) is to reconceptualise the contested question at another time. The opportunity did not arise to enact the plan since all questions were dealt with in the initial interview. However, at times, some interviewees seemed perturbed that they were being given the opportunity to make known their experiences and feelings of teaching in a sector that had, so far, seemed unattractive to researchers. It was important to ensure that the data were dependable, confirmable, and credible, so that the findings would be trustworthy, adds Khoza (2018). Next to be discussed is the observation method for data generation.

6.4.2 Observation method

Cohen et al. (2011) comment that social science is rooted in observations, while Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) define an observation as looking systematically and noting interaction systematically. In practice, researchers are engaged in a systematic process of recording the behavioural patterns of people, events, settings, and artefacts (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). In educational research, a researcher can observe a phenomenon in a classroom with or without necessarily questioning or communicating with the learners. The distinctive feature of the observation research process is that it offers an investigator the opportunity of gathering live data from naturally occurring social situations (Cohen et al., 2011).

Another advantage of the observation method is its directness (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). The researcher can observe behaviour directly, as it unfolds. The researcher in this study witnessed how the educators enact teaching and learning in NFEP programmes. Creswell (2014) explains the purpose of undertaking an observation as learning how behaviour unfolds naturally, as in a natural context. According to CHAT, the natural context of a classroom activity is mediated by tools, artefacts and other social beings in the environment (Foot, 2014). The researcher observed how the educators engaged the activity system using tools, content, and rules. The researcher went directly to the phenomenon, learning first-hand about the event, without relying on accounts of others. This process eliminated intervening factors from contaminating the data, such as memory loss (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). This could have occurred if the researcher had relied on second-hand information from others to inform him of how educators enacted teaching and learning in the NFEP's programmes in schools. Cohen et al. (2011) add that the directness to live data facilitates the generation of valid data. Such quality data adds to the trustworthiness of the findings, since the data contains behaviour that is observed and recorded as it unfolds (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). The researcher chose to use the observation method, by Cohen et al. (2011) known as a reality check, driven by the acknowledged enactment to establish the authenticity of the interview data that had already been obtained in interviews. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) argue that the validity of interview data could be infested with elements of artificiality, namely untruths. Caution was exercised before readily accepting the data as being fully authentic, based on a single data generation method, such as comprising the reflections of the participants only. In contrast, the data from the observations described what ensued in natural settings. This is notwithstanding that the data so described, would be subjective, which is a common feature of qualitative studies (Cohen et al., 2011; Davies & Fisher, 2018). Such prejudices that are inherent in interview data might be significantly reduced by use of the observation method, add Cohen et al.

The other strategy for eliminating aspects of artificiality was the engagement of repeated visits, in which multiple data were gathered and analysed for consistency. When using observations, the researcher can take advantage of collecting data over a prolonged period through repeated visits to the same data sites. Data were generated over repeated visits until saturation points are reached (Yin, 2003) which results in the use of a longitudinal approach. According to Cohen et al. (2011), a longitudinal approach enables participants to reflect repeatedly on the phenomenon, to a point that over time, a rapport develops that is characterised by sensitivity and reciprocity. This suggests

that such elements breed success in research work. The researcher was able to visit all the participants at least twice and was able to observe, hear, and record the participants' enactment practices as a first-hand experience. The researcher used the complete observer role, also known as the participant observer role (Cohen et al. 2011).

There are four major types of observer roles by Cohen et al. (2011) and Mertens (2015). First is the complete participant role, in which a member of the group utilises insider knowledge of the phenomenon to observe colleagues, without their knowledge. Second is the participant-observer where a group member announces their assumed role. In both these roles, the participant-observer may be too intimate with the phenomenon, such that they lack objectivity. Third is the outsider who acts as an observer-participant. This role is performed by one who is a researcher, conducting the role unobtrusively. Fourth, is the complete observer role which facilitated the data generation for this study through a structured observation checklist with items to look out for. The classrooms were the natural setting in which all the participants were observed. This was a preordained observation that would enable one to understand the enactment phenomenon, premised on CHAT elements of object motive (enactments), outcome (goals), activity, tools (resources), rules (time), community (accessibility), and division of labour (roles).

The use of the observation method was adopted to complement other data-generation methods, namely, the interview and document analysis (Gillham, 2008). Cohen et al. (2011) adds that the complete observer observes while being either covert or overt. This role was performed without getting involved and disruptive so as not to influence the dynamics of the enactment. There was no concealment of the researcher and his identity and mission, and the participant introduced the researcher as a lecturer, researcher, and student, which did motivated some learners owing to the levels of participation, thereafter By being overt, gave the study a human face to note-taking and recordings, as agreed in the consent forms that the participants had already signed. Taking down notes was a challenge in unlit learning spaces but, together with a few other learners, the researcher produced mobile-phone light. The voice recorder also became a handy resource. The researcher observed all the participants while they were enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes, in accordance with the programmes that the sampled schools offered.

However, not all the participants were comfortable with the use of this research data-generation method. There were visible non-verbal signs that were witnessed, particularly the long silence

between the request to observe the activity and the response. In all circumstances, the responses were not readily available at the first time of asking. This was followed by more appointments proposals, in order to settle on suitable date and time. It took an average of two follow-up meetings and several mobile-phone calls to arrange appointments. In an extreme case, one participant would not respond to calls and phone messages at all for a week. The researcher had to pay the participant a visit at the school to arrange to observe the lesson. This arrangement resulted in two foiled appointments, during which the researcher went to the venue, while the participant did not. Several follow-up phone calls were made and they went unanswered. When some of them were answered, excuses such as that the participant had forgotten the phone at home, a neighbour had passed away and that the participant had been sent on an errand to another town were received. The other participant who had been elusive at confirming a teaching appointment, one evening sent a WhatsApp message inviting the researcher to a teaching session that was commencing in five minutes' time; while being aware that the researcher lived several kilometres from the venue.

Having experienced this reluctance in accommodating the researcher, one senior educator (who was not part of the sample) was approached during a general discussion on NFEP with him, in order to understand the attitudes of the participants on lesson observation visits. The response was that this exercise was the first one in which an external person had a desire to observe the teaching and learning of NFE programmes at night. The researcher assumed that the facilitators either lacked confidence or were concerned about the implications of their performance, in case the teaching was sub-standard.

The following challenges are associated with the observation as a data-gathering tool. These are discussed with regard to the implications of the findings of the study, and ways to mitigate the effects. Cohen et al. (2011) raise some complex psychological issues. One issue relates to the failure of the method to impact the motivation levels that participants were likely to exhibit while being observed. The other concern is also a psychological one in which researchers take for granted that what they see represents the inner feelings of the participants. The implications of both concerns are that the validity of the findings is challenged, since the findings may under represent the educators' actual competences and vice-versa. Cohen et al (2010) suggest that the triangulation of methods and repeated visits are the sources of increasing the reliability of the findings. Time

permitting, more visits should have been conducted; but this was not possible since the formal educators were engaged with end of year examinations' coaching and invigilation.

Technically, one of the method's major weaknesses is that observations are seriously time-intensive (Robson, 2002). The researcher had to attend sessions that lasted close to two hours when some participants exceeded their time, probably to impress the researcher by ensuring that they did their best. In addition, the visits were costly to conduct, owing to distances that were travelled, and the frequency of repeated visits. In such a case the researcher made appointments in ample time. The budget for travelling to schools shrunk due to inflation Researchers must also seriously consider issues of proximity, rather than take financial risks that impact on family income and quality of life. Theoretically, there was also the major concern about data analysis in relation to the degree of inference that the researcher imposed on the data.

“When an investigator observes a certain act or behaviour, he or she must process this observation and infer as to whether or not the behaviour indicates a certain variable” (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996, p. 212).

This is a real problem that affects the trustworthiness of the data, since inference is related to validity. According to Braun and Clarke (2014), the degree of trustworthiness depends on the amount of evidence that the researcher-observer can produce on the phenomenon. Much will depend on the competence of the researcher to infer accurately what was observed. To mitigate this limitation, Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) recommend the use of the qualitative research by well-trained observers. This suggests that, by using a committed form of enactment that includes experience with using the method, the researcher was in a position to make some accurate inferences, owing to teaching and research experience. The researcher was confident of making reliable inferences on the participants, as a fellow educator, who was using the acknowledged form of enactment to analyse the data.

6.4.3 Document analysis

Documents are the data-gathering tools which contain valuable information that the researcher seeks (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The use of documents in research is referred to as document analysis or document review from which researchers obtain information on the phenomenon, in the form of valuable insights into the dynamics of the activity (Mertens, 2009). Document analysis

involves scrutinising the contents of documents for evidence of patterns of change or development on specific issues (Dahberg & McCaig, 2010). The researcher with access to documents uses them for analysing, interpreting, and uncovering meanings about phenomena (Dlamini, 2017). Researchers have to engage a process of extensive reading of either primary or secondary sources of data (Maree, 2007). The primary sources contain information that was compiled by those who participated or witnessed the event, such as the information in an educator's scheme books. Secondary sources are documents, such as books that were authored, based on the experiences of others.

For this study, the relevant documents that related to NFEP programmes teaching and learning enactment were:

Secondary sources- Zimbabwe government's national Non-Formal Education Policy (2015) which provides the framework for the provision of NFE in Zimbabwe as a responsibility of all primary and secondary schools, with effect from March, 2015; ii) Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Secretary's Circular Minute Number 13 of 2016 on implementation of the national NFEP in primary and secondary schools, independent colleges and trustee schools. The document is the guide on how the policy could be successfully implemented; and iii) syllabi for primary and secondary education which provided the aims, assessment objectives, and assessment scheme and curriculum content and syllabus for the National Foundation Certificate in Garment Construction.

Primary sources- These included scheme books, evaluation records, and attendance records that the educators produced based on the acknowledged form of enactment

Creswell (2007) recommends the use of primary sources rather than secondary sources, in order to guard against selective interpretations that suit specific argument, namely those who authored the materials. In using secondary sources, there is a chance that researchers might advance other people's views as opposed to relying on the authentic experiences of participants. Documents were composed of paper-based materials (hardware-tools) only. Research does not preclude the use of software tools, such as computer files, video films, and other taped records (Mertens, 1998). These documents are associated with the enactment of NFEP programmes in schools. Furthermore, Mertens (1998) noted that access to such documents has to be negotiated upfront, since the documents form the schools' competitive edge, which has to be safely guarded by restricting access to the materials.

The strengths of using documents include access to low-cost and authentic information (Maree, 2007). In this digital world, one no longer needs travel far to access documents (Mertens, 2009), provided that they are computer literate. This was not the case in this study owing to the fact that the research documents had not yet been uploaded on computer software and even then, there were no computers in the schools. In addition, most documents were for 'reading only' while on site, since they were considered to be confidential, and there was need to safeguard the schools' competitive edge over other schools.

Document analysis has several advantages that Cohen et al. (2011) and Mertens (2009) have documented, as follows: First, as in all qualitative research, the researcher is the most important data-generation tool (Mertens, 2009). Therefore, to the researcher, data generation was based on documents which presented an opportunity for the use of the committed enactment in teaching. Based on training, personal experience, and specific knowledge of research (ideological-ware tools), the researcher made decisions on what to incorporate into the set of documents for review (Maree, 2007). The researcher had the advantage of carefully arriving at meanings that are grounded in one's personal identity (Samuel, 2009).

Second, document analysis facilitated an unobtrusive examination of materials for details that might otherwise have gone unnoticed (Cohen et al. 2011). Participants cannot impose their influence on the researcher. In addition, documents were checked and re-checked for reliability of findings. In this study, the researcher made notes regarding the documents that were not to be borrowed while there were no reprographic machines in the schools, with which to make copies, easily. Having these documents for analysis would have constituted a 'behind the scenes' look into a phenomenon (Jacobson, Pruitt & Rugeley, 2009). With documents in one's possession, 'data mining' can be conducted anywhere at any convenient time, since documents are 'non-reactive', to whatever happens to them in the research process (Formuyan, 2015). The data in documents are stable: (Bowen, 2009) they never change, meaning that the data can be subjected to reanalysis whenever it is necessary to do so (Mudyahoto, 2017). The method does, however, bring with it some challenges to which mitigation measures are required, as discussed below.

A major concern associated with the document-analysis data-generation method is the researcher's subjectivity (Cohen et al. 2011). Dahberg and McCaig (2010) state that bias can infiltrate the selection of documents by the researcher. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) warn the researchers to

minimise personal influence and bias so that research can be an accurate account of the phenomenon. Shoba (2018) recommends the adoption of data-triangulation methods such as the interview, observations, and reflective exercises, as a strategy for minimising the effect of subjectivity on the trustworthiness of the research results. Accordingly, the researcher incorporated interviews, document analysis, and observations, to reduce levels of prejudice in the current study.

Creswell (2003) is concerned about the omission of background information on the phenomenon that informs the outcome of the activity of teaching and learning in some documents, such as the information on socio-economic and cultural issues. This often makes it difficult for the researcher to interpret the data according to the context of the activity. Hence, this study was framed by CHAT principles that incorporated curriculum elements. The CHAT promotes the understanding of the interactions between the educators and the activity. The enactment of teaching and learning in NFEP programmes is mediated by a number of interrelationships with tools, rules, the community, activities, and division of labour (roles), among other factors (Engestrom, 2001; Foot, 2014; Koszalka & Wu, 2007).

Second, there was a need to complement the interview and observation methods with insights into the documented enactment of teaching the NFEP's programmes. The analysis of documents added insights, challenged existing ones, and/or confirmed them, and contributed to a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. Last, it is clear that the merits of using the document analysis method outweighed the demerits; and the researcher was confident of minimising the negative effects of the document-analysis method of generating data.

6.5 Data Analysis

Flick (2013) posits that the data-analysis step is at the core of qualitative research since it determines the outcomes of the study. This is a process that follows the data-transcription stage by focusing on the sense-making process of the phenomenon's data, with regard to the questions of the study (Creswell, 2007). At this stage, data are organised, accounted for, and explained (Cohen et al., 2011). It is the process during which the researcher has to consolidate the data that participants would have expressed (Kalof, Dan & Dietz, 2008; Merriam, 2009). Those participants' definitions of the phenomenon; the sets of patterns and the themes that emerged, need

to be correctly interpreted. Cohen et al. (2011) warn that the outcome of analysing data in qualitative research studies is one that does not result in a completely accurate story of the participants' social encounters with the phenomenon. This is the case owing to the researcher's view that is mediated by numerous factors that will influence the researcher's sense-making. The researcher's personal identity comprising beliefs and experience added to the list of factors that impact educators' enactment of data analysis decisions. Therefore, the data-analysis process must be framed by a suitable approach. In support, literature attests to several approaches by various researchers, such as Creswell (2007) and Descombe (2010). These analysis approaches include the guided analysis, thematic analysis, content analysis, discourse analysis, and grounded theory (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007).

The study adopted the guided analysis approach for data processing, using eight themes for presenting the findings. The guided analysis approach's prime consideration is the emergence of categories, when and how they emerge. Samuel (2009) regards this approach as a priori analysis, which involves the determination of categories prior to the data-generation phase; and it is one which accommodates further modifications of the categories that will emerge during interaction with data in the data-analysis phase. The categories will then be negotiated and refined in relation to the data that the researcher would have collected (Khoza, 2015).

Themes and categories had emerged in the literature before the generation of data; and these were modified, following interaction with data at the analysis stage. These themes were then used in order to explore the phenomenon and for understanding the data, based on similarities, differences, and inconsistencies that were to emerge from the data. Furthermore, the rationale for choosing to use the guided analysis was that it is a flexible approach that is located within the interpretive paradigm in which researchers seek to interpret data (Budden, 2016). Practically, the CHAT framed the research study, while the guided approach was used for the production as well as the processing of the data on the enactment of teaching NFEP's programmes by the educators. In generating the data, focus was on the researcher's claim that educators enact teaching and learning in NFEP programmes, based on forms of enactment, namely the communal, acknowledged, and committed enactments.

Despite that a researcher may have a data-analysis approach at hand; Cohen et al. (2011) posit that qualitative data analysis is a complex task when making interpretations, owing to multiple

meanings that the data can portray. The researcher must ensure that there is coherence within the modified categories (Samuel, 2009). In this study, the committed form of enactment's produced sound knowledge in making decisions on the categories, in line with the flexibility of the guided analysis technique. Emerging issues were accommodated, including the formation of new sub-themes. The probability of benefiting from the guided analysis method was high. Multiple methods had been used to generate the data, namely, the semi-structured interview, observation and document analysis methods. There was a likelihood of handling, not only sub-themes that needed to be merged, but also the others that later emerged but did not generate enough data in order to stand independently (Budden, 2016).

The use of a guided analysis technique enabled the researcher to keep focus on the study's main theme. This theme, which was analysed and interpreted against the background of the research questions and objectives was: the acknowledged enactment which relates to the professional positioning of policy enactment (curriculum, syllabus, books, discipline content); the communal enactment as it relates to the intentions of enactment at community level (horizontal vision); and the committed enactment which relates to the way educators enact teaching in particular ways. Tawana (2017) asserts that the researcher should determine the relevance of the units of data, such as from the above forms of enactment, towards supporting the emerging story.

Furthermore, owing to the complex and voluminous nature of qualitative data, Maree (2007) recommends that data analysis be approached in a highly organised manner. Similarly, guided data analysis process for the study was modeled on Creswell's (2013) data-analysis spiral (DAS) approach. In this approach, the stages move in analytic circles and not linearly, so that there is an iterative flow, in which the stages are updated on a continuous basis. Therefore, the data that were generated from the interviews, observations and documents review were to be analysed using the following five steps: organising the data; reading and memoing the data; describing, classifying and interpreting the data into codes and themes; data interpretation; and representing and visualising the data.

Organising the data: This is the first step, during which the researcher summoned organisation skills in order to devise means for organising the data into computer files. It was important to transform oneself into a para-office manager, given the extensive data from the qualitative research (Cohen et al. (2011). The data-management process entailed converting the files of raw data that

were generated from the interviews, participant observations, and document analysis into units of text, namely, sentences and half-stories. According to Gray (2014), at this stage, the researcher is beginning to have ideas about the data, gaining a preliminary feel for or understanding of the data, in anticipation of the actual process of analysing the data (Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2012). Creswell (2013) recommends a process of reading only without interpreting the data, in order to become familiar with the data. Therefore, knowing something about the type of data helped with organising it systematically. This approach facilitated the structuring of the data, although this was done loosely at this time, into the predetermined themes. The art of managing data requires the researcher to ensure that data are updated, secured, and retrievable with ease. Vos et al. (2013) recommend that the researcher generated computer files to be stored on a memory device, with secret codes to ensure safety of the software resources. The device was, locked away in a cabinet to which the researcher had exclusive access, thereby mitigating security concerns and confidentiality.

Reading and memoing: This is the stage at which the researcher visits the completed files in order to begin to make sense of the entire database. Blanche et al. (2014) put it more succinctly when they refer to this stage as the familiarisation phase, while Creswell (2013) visualises a researcher as an explorer. The researcher should immerse him or herself in the data. Using both the committed and acknowledged enactments, the researcher should begin to know more about the data. Every document, if read thoroughly, will provide insight into the phenomenon. The researcher's memos (field notes) contained ideas in single texts, short sentences, phrases, and key concepts that 'bounced off' the mind and into the memos. Reflections on the field notes led to initial categorisation of the data (Creswell, 2013). As part of good data-management practise, the researcher coded the memos according to the guided-analysis themes that had been adopted for the study.

Describing, classifying, and interpreting data into codes and themes: Creswell (2013) refers to this stage as the heart of the qualitative data analysis. At this stage, the data are coded, which entails assembling, disassembling, and reassembling data in contemplation of noting plausible meanings of data and conclusions (Cohen et al., 2011). The successful outcome of data analysis depends on, among other actions, full descriptions of what the researcher sees (Flick, 2013). This was the time for the researcher to transform the notes, which had been in situ, into texts that could

be read. Gray (2014) advises that the researcher must accept that, at first, many codes will be formed, only for them to be trimmed, following more and more reading of the data.

These were some of the issues that strengthened the use of the acknowledged and committed enactment on Creswell's (2013) DAS model. However, there were instances when a question generated many codes at first (Kumar, 2014). In other cases, codes that had been merged or discarded were reassigned new codes (Creswell, 2013), while some texts can belong to more than one code (Blanche et al., 2014). The researcher had to use the committed enactment to ensure the alignment of texts with codes, in order to facilitate theme making. Themes are broad units of data, comprising many codes (Creswell, 2013). In this process, some of the themes were shed, thereby effectively reducing data to eight themes. The literature on policy elements that were characterised in CHAT was adopted. The use of the guided analysis approach accommodated new and relevant categories that were to enhance data interpretation (Patton, 2002), owing to its adaptability. In trimming the themes, a researcher must analyse the entire data, choosing what to focus on (Cohen et al., 2011). Creswell (2013) suggests a deconstruction strategy as one way of capturing some types of information, for example, moments of silence, incidents when the pronoun 'we' was preferred, as well as texts that seemed to have been misplaced. Such incidents contained hidden meanings that become useful for gaining insights into participants' experiences. It was also the time to analyse the use of any peculiar texts. The next sub-step is the interpreting step, which in most approaches is the final state. This was not the case in DAS since the data had yet to be presented.

Interpreting the data: Data interpretation in quality research involves a process of abstraction of the broader meaning of the data from the previous actions that had placed the data into units of several codes and then into themes (Creswell, 2010). This is an opportunity for the researcher to demonstrate claims of an understanding and interpretation of the phenomenon. It was during this period that the researcher focused on metaphors as rich sources of multidimensional meanings (Creswell, 2013). For example, one participant stated that the meager teaching allowance was insufficient to purchase an 'air pie' for lunch, when air is a free commodity. Blanche et al. (2014) concur with Creswell that it is helpful for the researcher to check with others on the quality of the interpretations. The researcher made sure that the interpretations were checked out with a fellow lecturer and re-examined, to ensure that they blended well with the CHAT framework of the study.

Above all, the interpretation must link with the broader literature that already exists (Creswell, 2011).

Representing and visualising the data: The implication of this final stage of DAS is that the researcher represents the data in the way that the data is packaged. Creswell's (2013) DAS framework suggests several ways of operationalising this stage, such as the use of visual images of data, matrixes, propositions and metaphors; while Corden and Sainsbury (2006) and Patton (2002) argue for the use of direct quotations. The researcher presented the data analysis with quotes, metaphors, visual images, and propositions in a way that was to fulfill the intention of this exploratory case study of generating knowledge that would add to existing epistemology on NFEP programmes' enactment of teaching and learning in schools.

6.5.1 Trustworthiness

The quality of research is often determined through an assessment of measures of trustworthiness (Bryman, 2002). Various criteria are used for this task, including Creswell's (2009) framework that focuses on measures of transferability, dependability, credibility, and confirmability. These are measures that a researcher employs in order to supply sufficient evidence that the findings can justifiably be transferred to similar settings. Cohen et al. (2011) add that trustworthiness also provides a justification that the study represents the area that was studied, by having produced information that accurately revealed the phenomenon that was studied. This study used three instruments for data generation, namely, the semi-structured interview, document analysis, and participant observation for the purpose of triangulation of data in order to extrapolate sufficient evidence on the phenomenon. Cohen et al. (2011) advocate for triangulation of data for the purpose of achieving measures of trustworthiness, on the grounds that the use of multi-methods minimises the effect of the researcher's bias. The use of different methods in this study accommodated differences in gender, experience, and individual professional training. The researcher collected and used various data which could be trusted (Mertens, 2015). The data came from professional educators, who were qualified, and who were endowed with diverse experiences in terms of years of service of enacting various types of NFEP programmes. Inasmuch as the participants' qualifications and experience complemented each other, the data-generation methods, created a balance that improved trustworthiness. This was achieved by making up for the shortfalls of the

other methods which was bound to provide a fuller picture of the phenomenon. Furthermore, the three data-generation methods were credible methods that are reliably used in qualitative research studies.

Babbie and Mouton (2009) propose some measures that researchers may apply in qualitative studies in order to establish trustworthiness in research findings. These factors are credibility and authenticity, dependability, confirmability, transferability. These constructs are discussed, showing their effect on the establishment of trustworthiness for this study.

Credibility and authenticity: These two constructs are strongly linked to each other. Credibility refers to the act of establishing confidence in the ‘truth’ of the findings and that comes with authenticity; therefore, the two coexist. Shenton, (2004) steers the discussion to the researcher who should demonstrate that “a true picture of the phenomenon under scrutiny is being presented” (p. 63), in the participants’ minds. The technique that was used was triangulation of methods for collecting data. Similarly, Cohen et al. (2007) advocate for data generation from many sources. The researcher generated research data from three credible sources, namely, semi-structured interviews, document analysis, and participant observation, in order to ensure the authenticity of the data, thereby enhancing measures of trustworthiness. Khoza (2016) points to the technique of voice recording what the participants articulate in the interviews as one such means of generating authentic data. The researcher extended the use of the audio-recording to the teaching that was also observed. Recorded data-generation sessions make the task of transcribing data much easier, adds Khoza. Creswell (2012) contributes to the debate by proposing other measures for purposes of authenticating the data, namely auditing and member checking, which are a communal enactment, in which the researcher returns to the participants to verify his notes, and to approve the data. In instances where the researcher was overwhelmed by the data while analysing such, participants were consulted, mostly over the phone in order to minimise costs, while being cautious that the original meanings were not distorted, and the data remained authentic and credible. While accepting that there are problems associated with ensuring the authenticity of the data, Yin (2003) urges the use of multiple sources of data in order to handle problems of establishing trustworthiness of research evidence. Next to be discussed is transferability.

Transferability: Shenton (2004) relates transferability to the quality of the data, whether the data provide sufficient details of the context of the phenomenon. Such is needed to facilitate decisions

about the findings being applied to a similar context that the reader is familiar with. In qualitative research, the focus is on the applicability to a small number of people within demarcated knowledge spaces (Creswell, 2007), such as another school that is enacting similar NFEP programmes. The theoretical underpinning of transferability is the committed enactment in which researchers will need to extrapolate on contexts for transferability. The researcher was mindful that: “a case study deals with a specific context which may not represent the generalised experiences of the whole population but transferability is possible if the context is similar to that of the study,” (Khoza, 2015, p. 183). Merriam (1988) adds that thick descriptions of data provide ample evidence to anyone who is interested in the transferability of the data to other contexts. Similarly, the potential for transferability for this study is located in the thick descriptions and purposive sampling as common features of the study (Budden, 2016). In the current study, thick descriptions of the phenomenon and supporting concepts were captured. These were followed by justifications for an emerging theory that underpinned the study (CHAT). Likewise, the research paradigm, design, and methodology that supported the field action of the study were debated, leading to decisions on the data-generation tools. Data that were generated from a purposive sample using multi methods were analysed, qualitatively. The field notes and recordings were confirmed by participants as being authentic in NFEP programmes enactment in the selected schools, and hence, applicable to similar contexts of this study. Dependability is discussed next.

Dependability: According to Cohen et al. (2011), dependability is the extent to which the study could be replicated, resulting in the sameness of findings. If this case study were to be, “repeated, in the same context, with the same methods and with the same participants, similar results would be obtained” (Shenton, 2004, p. 71). Rolfe (2004) concurs that researchers may repeat the study on condition that there is sufficient detail on the study in question also they are aware that repeatability does not mean that similar themes and categories will be realised, even by expert researchers. What is crucial is to produce research results that are dependable (Khoza, 2015), since dependability allows research readers to evaluate the findings.

Some of the strategies from literature for establishing measures of dependability are discussed below. First, is the need for sufficient detail at every stage of the research (Shenton, 2004). In this case, the thick data in sufficient quantity and detail will facilitate the process of making judgments on the dependability of the results. Bryman (2002) argues for an audit system at every stage of the

research process that guarantees adherence to all research procedures all the time. Such ‘checks and balances’ will therefore, function as means for predicting the dependability of the research findings. The purpose of the audit system is to inspire the researcher to take as many steps of the research process as operational, as though one were under close supervision (Yin, 2009), as though ‘Big Brother’ were watching. The study solicited help from a seasoned researcher who acted as a critical reader to ascertain the consistency of research process and data by conducting an audit trail.

Second, is the use of triangulation (multi-methods) for data generation, another way of establishing dependability of research data (Khoza, 2015). In this approach, there is verification of the data that were gathered in order to ascertain that data were consistent across the sources. Triangulation of data-generation methods helps to reduce bias by the researcher, while promoting research trustworthiness (Creswell, 2013). The positive outcome of the verification activity demonstrates the dependability of the data. In this study, the researcher used a seasoned researcher to verify the consistent use of the multiple methods, and to minimise bias from the researcher.

Third, Corden and Sainsbury (2006) state that the use of direct quotes has developed into standard practice in qualitative research, in order to enhance quality assessments. This approach is premised on that qualitative research is located in the naturalistic inquiry in which researchers find themselves producing field notes of what participants would have said (Creswell, 2009), with the risk of data loss. It is against this background that Paton (2002) argues for the use of direct quotes, primarily to capture verbatim the ‘emic’ perspective, which is the insider’s perspective, by contrast with the ‘etic’ perspective, which is the outsider’s view of what was said. The study presented research data in participants’ direct quotes which represented the views of the participants as they were expressed, as well as using the data to support analysis in producing dependable results (Khoza, 2016). Based on this observation, the researcher used direct quotes to establish dependability of the research data and findings, since the data that had been recorded in field notes and on audio recorder spoke for themselves. Patton (2002) further confirms that direct quotes allow for participants’ voices to be heard, including their feelings, actions, and individual sense-making about the phenomenon. Likewise, the research adopted the use of direct quotes to represent the participants’ views in this study, and for supporting data analysis in the production of findings, as

measures for establishing trustworthiness. Excerpts and quotes from interviews, observations and discussions on document analysis were used for establishing dependability.

Fourth, dependability of the data was strengthened through the use of the structured data-generation instruments. Using these instruments, uniform questions were asked uniformly, in order to maintain the set parameters of the study. These theoretical boundaries were delineated by the main research questions, in order to ensure that a standard, committed enactment use produced an epistemology that would facilitate constructing a theory for NFEP programmes' enactment in schools. The processes were underpinned by the themes that emerged from the characterisation of policy concepts in CHAT elements, in order to establish measures of dependability. In closing, Rolfe (2004) comments that these measures interactively contribute towards enhancing validity and reliability; and subsequently contribute significantly to research trustworthiness.

Confirmability: The challenge that Shenton (2004) poses to researchers is to ensure that, as far as possible, the research findings can be confirmed as portraying the lived experiences of the participants. This assertion arises from the real risk of the penetration of researcher values into the findings (Bryman, 2002). Ndlovu, (2016) observes that, while confirmability runs parallel with the principle of objectivity, and is unattainable, a researcher can demonstrate, as far as possible, that the findings represent the phenomenon that was studied. A committed enactment use, in which researcher bias was, as far as possible, eliminated from the interpretation of participants' narratives of the phenomenon, was the researcher's objective. Hence, Cohen et al. (2007) view confirmability as the extent to which others and research participants can confirm that the research findings portray participants' understandings, rather than the researcher's prejudices.

In an effort to minimise bias while creating space for the high levels of confirmability, the researcher adopted triangulation of data-generation techniques (semi-structured interviews, participant observation and document analysis), a self-regulating and externally-led audit trail for every step of data process. In addition, the participants checked the preliminary draft of the data analysis. In the data-generation phase, identical procedure guided the interviews, in which the participants were asked the same questions in a fairly consistent procedure, including the use of identical guides/checklists during participant observations and document analysis, in order to ensure consistency. These approaches were used to ensure that the research study's findings accurately portrayed participants' responses. In conducting this confirmability process, the

researcher used the acknowledged enactment to drive the quality process. The communal enactment promoted issues of value and ethics, together with a committed enactment that demanded the use of the researcher's personal TPACK. The researcher also immensely valued the research supervisors' contributions by frequently auditing the research process.

6.5.2 Ethical considerations

Ethics are morals of good or correct practice, and any harm that may emanate during the study is to be avoided (Ngozwane, 2018). The concept of ethics refers to matters of human rights (Spreen & Vally, 2006), and adherences to ethics is now standard practice for researchers who undertake qualitative research (Cohen et al., 2011). Having to observe ethics and respect for participants' rights is understandable, given that qualitative research design in education involves human subjects. Mpungose (2017) explains that it is inevitable for researchers not to interact with participants in the process of generating data which can lead to the encroachment on participants' private spaces. "Qualitative researchers are guests in the private spaces of people in the world" (Ndlovu, 2016). Researchers must therefore, respect the rights of the participants at all times (Yin, 2015). Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2011) inform researchers to conform to ethical practice when conducting research; while Bryman (2008) states that adherence to ethical conduct ensures the success of the study, as well as the safety of all those involved in the study. The researcher was informed by the communal form of enactment that ethical social interactions will benefit the researcher and the participants. Therefore, a researcher acted for the good of the community, for the participants, and for himself, by initiating and ensuring ethical practice.

The following actions were conducted in the ethical treatment of the research participants:

- *Informed consent*: the communicative process that the researcher engaged in order to seek the participants' consent involved informing them that their participation was valued and had to be voluntary (Ary et al., 2010) and that they were free to withdraw from the research at any time (Ary et al., 2010; Borg & Gall, 2005). The researcher made it clear to them that choosing not to participate would not attract any adverse consequences at all. A critical factor was to explain the research process so that the participants could make personal informed judgments and decisions about their intended involvement. As such, the nature of the study, its aims, possible advantages

to each participant, risks, dangers, and obligations were revealed to them (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Cohen et al., 2007). However, the researcher was not aware of any risks that were associated with the study. Accordingly, the participants were informed about the interview process, while encouraging them to participate freely and to be truthful with their responses, in order to increase measures of trustworthiness of the findings. The potential participants were also informed that research findings would be published. Their consent was to be based on full and open information.

- *Confidentiality and anonymity:* Participants and the data that were obtained were kept anonymous. No names were used in the research report. In addition, the participants were assured that the data were not to be shared with anyone other than for research purposes and with the participants' consent.
- *Withdrawal from the research process:* The participants were informed at the start of the data generation process that they had the right to withdraw, and did not have pressure to continue if they did not want to participate in the study (Bryman, 2012). This meant that they were to leave the study at any time if they considered it necessary to do so, without have to account for their action. They were also allowed to withdraw their data. Even at the end of the study, participants had a last opportunity of withdrawing the data they had provided for the research.
 - *Protection of collected data:* Vos et al. (2013) advise researchers to generate computer files with secret codes to ensure safety of the software resources. A computer memory device was used, to which only the researcher had exclusive access, thereby effectively mitigating security concerns.

In driving the communal enactment, the researcher informed the participants of the ethical issues for the study. The researcher began by applying to the UKZN's Ethics Committee for ethics clearance, from which approval was granted in order to proceed with the study. Next, the researcher applied to the MoPSE's Head Office for permission to conduct the study, from whom a positive response was received three months later. Thereafter, as per the head office's instruction, the researcher approached the provincial office regarding access to the schools. The researcher was granted direct access to the district schools' inspector. In order to access the school heads, the

district schools' inspector gave permission to personally access the school heads that were in the purposive sample of schools. Khoza (2018) advocates for purposive sampling which is conducted through convenience sampling, in order to obtain the most accessible groups, which the researcher adhered to in this study.

Relying on the committed enactment that was characterised by social public relations skills, the researcher approached the school heads at their respective schools. The principals warmly welcomed the researcher. Having explained the purpose of the study and how data generation would be conducted, so as to enable the school head to make informed decisions, the school heads signed the school gatekeepers' letters that granted the researcher permission to meet the educators. The educators at these schools formed the population from which a purposive with convenience sample of participants was drawn. All three schools were enacting one each of the three different NFEP programmes, as follows: the Zimbabwe Basic Adult Education Course (School A), the Part-time Continuing Education Course (School B) and the Functional Literacy Education Programme (School C).

In the next step, the researcher went to each of the three schools to address the participants on ethical issues surrounding participation. McMillan and Schumaker (2010) evince that participants' rights to privacy have to be respected, including raising the participants' awareness that ethics were principles of right and wrong that, as a researcher, the researcher was to observe and respect. In line with the issue, the researcher addressed the participants on informed consent, confidentiality, withdrawal from the research study process, and non-maleficence (Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Beauchamp & Childress, 2009; Ary et al., 2010; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The researcher informed the potential participants, both verbally and in writing, that their participation was voluntary (Ary, et al., 2010) and that they could withdraw from the research at any time (Borg & Gall, 2005; Ary et al., 2010). The researcher emphasised that choosing not to participate did not hold any adverse consequences for them. The researcher relied on the committed enactment principle to explain how the participation would benefit them intrinsically, and that the researcher valued their contributions towards building a theory on the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes in schools. Potential participants were informed that they were not going to receive any financial rewards. Giving them rewards is an unethical

research practice. Furthermore, participants were informed that research findings would be published on the Internet for public consumption.

The nature of the study, its aims, processes, risks, dangers, and obligations were also addressed (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Cohen et al. 2011) of which there were no risks known. This was in order to allay any fears, such as of job loss or victimisation. The researcher also informed potential participants about how interviews were to be conducted; this was on a one-on-one basis with the aid of a voice recorder. As such, their consent was based on full and open information (Gray, 2014).

This information was buttressed with an obligation to abide by the University of KwaZulu-Natal's code of ethics, which emphasised upholding confidentiality. The researcher, engaged participants who expressed their informed consent. The researcher assured participants that their information would not be used for any other purpose except for the research (see attached certificate ethics). Participants and the data were to be anonymous and secured in secret computer files with a password known only to the researcher. Pseudonyms were to be used on the transcribed data and in the research report. The researcher informed participants of their right to withdraw from the study at any time should they feel uncomfortable. They were also entitled to withdraw their data, as an expression of rights. Participants should not have pressure to continue should they not want to participate (Milgram, 2014). Even at the end of the study, the participants had a final opportunity to withdraw the data that they would have provided for the research.

With regard to protecting participants from harm (non-maleficence), whether physical, psychological or social (Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Beauchamp & Childress, 2009; Ary et al., 2010; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The researcher made an undertaking not to inflict any harm, intentional injury, or emotional disorientation. The researcher took measures to ensure a safe knowledge environment, such as conducting a visual inspection for sources of discomfort and risk, relating to such as ventilation and noise when conducting interviews and observing lessons. In reality, this was not going to be fully achievable at all the learning environments that were available. The researcher did not have authority to act. Some lessons were held in unlit rooms that were only made visible by using lights from mobile phones. The researcher also contributed phone light during participants' observation visits. Cohen et al. (2007) allude to the researcher having

concern for the participants' physical and psycho-social safety. This suggests that hygiene factors have an effect on teaching and learning interactions.

Last, each participant was handed the consent form to read, reflect on, seek clarification on, and to sign voluntarily. The signing of the consent forms by the participants assured me that they were participating voluntarily, based on informed decisions. The researcher had also heeded Creswell's (2013) call for ethical issues to be cleared before a researcher embarked on generating the data, in an organised way.

6.5.3 Limitations of the study

Mertens (2015) points out that, in general, limitations are found in all researches. Furthermore, Lacorte (2005) is specific that limitations affect teaching and learning in areas such as time, activities, and educator roles (Maree, 2014). Limitations therefore, deserved to be discussed, so as to learn from them. In fact limitations are non-hypothetical but are lived experiences of those who attempted what the present generation of researchers sets out to do

The researcher accepted the following limitations that affected the enactment teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes, discussing mitigation measures that helped to establish measures of trustworthiness of the data. First, the researcher faced constraints in accessing only participants with five years of experience. Such participants would have been enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes since the launch of the NFEP in 2015; the study recognised these educators as possessing the 'richest' data.

Cheng and Wah-Wong (2002) attest to the use of more experienced educators. Experienced educators are more professional in their enactment than the less experienced educators. However, not all participants in the purposive sample belonged to this group of participants. The researcher had to select participants from the selected schools that had the programmes that were of interest to the study, at the time of the study, with some participants less experienced than others. As a result, educators' experience of teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes varied, and could have limited the researcher from accessing rich data. At School C, where the research interest was to study the enactment of FLE, the selected school was the most vibrant, and had a large class with a qualified tutor who could provide answers to assist with generation of data. The school was

conveniently located within fifty kilometres from the researcher with two roads to access it by car, in the event of a calamity. Only one educator taught the programme, owing to the inability of the government to pay reasonable allowances for educators. Instead, the community, through the payment of levies by the learners at Z\$ 25 (ZAR40) each per term, could not afford more than one teacher. Most of the levies went towards the purchase of sewing materials and overheads, such as electricity and water, costs which have been escalating owing to inflation. This effectively reduced the sample of participants to a total of seven, owing to unforeseen circumstances. In the end the study could not benefit from using only those educators who had been enacting NFEP programmes since March 2015, and could have shared their 'richer' stories with the researcher. Nonetheless, the data that were generated from all the participants who had an average of three years' experience were considered credible and representative of the field under study, based on teachers' understanding and qualifications. The researcher's committed enactment regarding interviewing experience and skill was expected to probe and elicit dependable data.

Second, Yin (2003) declares that, when using the case-study research design, generalisation of findings should be dismissed and replaced with transferability of findings. In addition, the use of the case-study design with a purposive sample of seven participants was not a true representation of the population of educators enacting the NFEP in Masvingo district. Theoretically, however, it was a good sample size for this qualitative research study (Creswell, 2011; Yin, 2003). Generalisation of findings was always going to be difficult. On a positive note, the sample of seven participants was not susceptible to excessive bias (Yin, 2003), which was an advantage in establishing trustworthiness.

Third, the researcher became aware of one's influence during the interviews when some participants inadvertently inferred that the findings of the study could assist the educators to gain more recognition and financial rewards from the government for their low-paid voluntary services. There were others who expected the results to help in luring back the donor community to assist with funding some NFEP projects. Such participants were likely to exaggerate their responses in the hope of creating credible cases that would suit their agendas, generating artificial data. Therefore, these data were likely to lower the credibility, dependability, transferability, and trustworthiness of the findings. Nonetheless, triangulation methods were adopted to minimise the contradictions through corroborations of data.

Baxter and Jack (2008) raise the researcher's awareness to a characteristic of case studies, that of accumulating massive amounts of data. Subsequently, researchers using the case study approach may encounter a limitation regard handling the data (Mabuza, 2018). The source of the limitation is traced to the voluminous data that researchers collect for use in gaining an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. According to Bathmaker (2010) and Budden (2016), limitation is compounded by the complexity of data structuring, which is also a tedious but necessary exercise. The researcher ensured that there was ample time within which to engage the process. In order to alleviate the problem, the researcher analysed the data after every phase. For example, interview data were analysed well before the observation visits were conducted.

In addition, participant observations seemed to have created some tensions, as was manifested in some participants taking longer than expected to commit themselves, let alone to present some lessons for observation. The indications could be that the educators felt that they could be exposed, and needed time to present lessons more competently. At times, participants' performances can be exaggerated and artificial. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) point out that data can be infiltrated by artificiality and half-truths. Cohen et al. (2007) are also aware that qualitative data can be subjective. One way of minimising artificial data/fake data is through repeat observations. This was not possible, owing to limitations of time, since data generation was sandwiched between school holidays and the season for national examinations, once school term had resumed. Data triangulation became the source of verified and authentic data.

The researcher's presence during observations in youths and adult groups where the researcher was introduced as a research student from the University of KwaZulu Natal, and a lecturer at a local university, seemed to have generated some keen interest and positive attitudes among the learners. The researcher's presence could have influenced the quality of teaching and the level of learner participation.

The physical knowledge space for some evening classes that had limited light negatively affected teaching and learning. Participants claimed that they could not engage learners in written and reading activities without electricity to illuminate the environment. For the researcher, the limited visibility made it practically impossible to observe everything, such as non-verbal language from the participants and the learners. Although the groups and the participants tried to mitigate the limitation of visibility by using light from mobile phones, the devices were far from ideal; at time

only four such devices (including the researcher's mobile) served a class of twenty-two learners in a large room. Both the participants' and learners' social movements were limited by darkness and lack of safety. A study by Schneider (2002) confirmed that too much or too little light is a health hazard, negatively affecting the teaching and learning in this study.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter presented the research design and methodology that were used in conducting this study. This is a qualitative study that was framed by the interpretive paradigm informing the case-study design in exploring the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes. The discussion focused on the research process in its attempt to obtain rich data for responding to the main questions of the inquiry. The case-study design was subsequently discussed, with justifications for the choice and for the sampling frames, and for the sample size adopted and eventually used. Furthermore, data-generation methods were presented, showing their appropriateness for producing data that were required for establishing trustworthiness. These methods were the one-on-one semi-structured interviews, guided participant observation, and document analysis.

The chapter also discussed the rationale for the use and operationalisation of the guided analysis when generating and analysing the data. The presentation then progressed to cover measures that the study undertook in order to establish measures of trustworthiness, by focusing on the concepts of credibility and authenticity, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. This was followed by a discussion on ethical issues whose first principle is 'to do no harm' to the participants (Dooly, Moore & Vallejo, 2017, p. 351), in order to minimise negative effects of the study on the participants. Last, the limitations of the study were discussed. The next chapter presents the research findings, and discusses the forms of enactment framed by the eight themes that emerged from the literature.

CHAPTER SEVEN: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION: OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

7.1 Introduction

Following the discussion of the research design and methodology that was presented in Chapter Five, the next chapters focus on exploring educators' forms of enactment teaching and learning in NFEP's school-based model's programmes, in the three NFE programmes currently implemented in schools. Likewise, these chapters presented a descriptive analysis of the qualitative data that were generated from the phenomenon using semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis as the data-generating methods. Three chapters are used for data presentation, discussion, and interpretation. Chapter Seven focuses on the data that addresses the theme on what forms of enactment the educators used when teaching in NFEP programmes. Chapter Seven engages the data on how educators' enactment influenced their teaching themes that informed the educators' decisions on enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes in the way they do, when they teach such programmes offered in schools.

7.2 Data Presentation

The aim for this section was to present the data that were generated towards understanding enactment in teaching and learning in NFEP programmes and to discuss the findings. This was done in the context of qualitative research, in which the data were organised, accounted for, and explained according to the way that the researcher understands the data (Cohen et al., 2011). Furthermore, a clarification of the study phenomenon, identification of patterns, themes, and inconsistencies was used to facilitate the data presentation and analysis process. Likewise, inferences were made based on the literature that was found in the previous chapters of the study.

In this exploratory case study, the data were presented explored the enactment of teaching and learning in the complete range of the NFEP programmes in schools, and the findings were discussed. The schools enact teaching and learning in the various NFEP programmes, hence three schools were purposively and conveniently sampled for this study. Seven educators participated in the study, since they were conveniently located in the host schools, as formal school educators.

The study explored the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes in search of answers to three critical research questions:

1. What forms of enactment do educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes at selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?
2. How do educators enact teaching and learning in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?
3. Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?

The exploration of the enactment of teaching and learning in the three NFEP programmes was conducted in order to provide an in-depth overview of the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP's programmes on offer in the school model. The NFEP's school-based programmes are the Zimbabwe adult basic education course (ZABEC), the part-time continuing education (PTCE) programme, and the functional literacy education (FLE) programme. Educators enacting teaching and learning had their teaching experiences analysed in anticipation of responding to the study's three critical questions that have been presented in the paragraph above. An understanding of the types of enactment they used (visions), how they do it (activities), and why they did it in particular ways (influences), was sought from the considerable amount of data that were generated. The findings are discussed in the next three chapters. This chapter discusses themes that relate to forms of enactment that educators choose to enact teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes. Similarly, the next chapter, Chapter Eight, focuses on understanding how the educators' forms of enactment impacted their teaching. Chapter Nine is an inquiry into why educators enacted the teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes in particular ways during teaching and learning. Using the themes that emerged from the literature on the policy conceptual framework characterised by the CHAT principles, meaning-making was offered of the research findings. As was raised in the research methodology chapter, the data were generated from the educators enacting teaching and learning in three different programmes, namely, ZABEC, PTCE and FLE programmes, in three different public schools. The schools are: a government school, a town-council school, and a rural-council school. The participants' views are discussed using the following pseudonyms for the sake of anonymity. The participants, who were enacting the teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes in the Zimbabwe adult basic education course (ZABEC),

were listed as ZA, ZB and ZC; while those on the part-time continuing education (PTCE) programme were PA, PB and PC. The functional literacy education (FLE) programme participant was listed as FA.

As alluded to in Chapter Six, the study used guided analysis in which themes and categories that emerged from the process approach were adopted and merged where applicable. The findings were exploratory in nature. There were eight themes that were used for exploring enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes. These were generated from policy concepts that were characterised in CHAT. In presenting the findings, a table that illuminates the fitness of purpose for the critical research questions to the themes was presented first. This was followed by presentations of the findings, largely by way of direct quotations and discussions. The available literature in the thesis was creatively used for supporting the discussion of the findings. Table 7.1, below, shows a conceptual framing of the data analysis of the study.

Table 7.1: Themes Framework

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	THEMES	CATEGORIES
1. What forms of enactment do educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes at selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?	Theme 1: Enactment Forms	Acknowledged enactment Communal enactment Committed enactment
2. How do educators enact teaching and learning in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?	Theme 2. Enactment Resources Theme 3 Enactment Content Theme 4 Access to Enactments Theme 5 Enactment Activities and Roles	Hardware resources Software resources Ideological-ware resources Intended content Enacted content Attained content Physical access Financial access Cultural access Educator-driven (instructor) Problem-driven (facilitator) Discipline-driven (subject specialist)
3 Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?	Theme 6 Enactment Time rule Theme 7 Enactment Goals Theme 8: Enactment Assessment	Allocated (explicit) Instructional (enacted) Aims Objectives Outcomes Formative (Assessment for learning) Summative (Assessment of learning)

Table 7.1 shows both the structure and flow of the data analysis of the study. The first column contains the research questions, while the second column depicts the themes; and the third column reveals the related categories that emerged from the data. There were eight themes. The categories (in brackets below) that emerged from the data were as follows: Theme 1: Enactment forms (acknowledged, communal, committed); Theme 2: Enactment resources (hardware, software, ideological-ware); Theme 3: Enactment Content (intended curriculum, enacted curriculum, attained curriculum); Theme 4: Access to Enactment (physical, financial, cultural); Theme 5: Enactment activities and educator roles (educator-driven/instructor, problem-driven/facilitator, discipline-driven/subject specialist); Theme 6: Enactment rules on time (allocated/explicit, enacted/implied); Theme 7: Enactment goals (aims, objectives, outcomes) and Theme 8: Enactment assessment (formative/for learning, summative/of learning). Question 1 was addressed using one theme, namely: Enactment forms. Question 2 was delivered through four themes, which are: enactment resources; enactment content; access to enactment; enactment activities and educator roles. Last, Question 3 was addressed using themes about enactment rules on time; enactment goals and enactment assessment of and for learning. Findings were presented by way of quotes; and were linked to available literature of the study within the chapters that preceded the current chapter. The intention of the study was to provide an in-depth overview of the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes, in the full range of the school model of non-formal education programmes. The data were first categorised by programme, discussed, interpreted, and then merged; in order to provide the overall in-depth overview and understanding of teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes in schools. In interpreting the findings, education policy/curriculum concepts, as characterised in CHAT were used to understand the findings in a coherent manner. Data that were generated on the forms of enactment (acknowledged, communal and committed) for enacting teaching and learning in each of the NFEP programmes were presented and discussed first, before interpreting them, based on the different programmes. After that, the data were merged into a holistic, in-depth overview of the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP's school-model's phenomenon. The forms of enactment that influenced the educators' enactment of the three different programmes were presented first. The educators were supported by their profiles, which are presented below, in clusters:

ZABEC: All the educators were holders of at least the Diploma in Education, which is the minimum requisite qualification; and some had additional qualifications of bachelor and master's

degrees in education. All the educators had a minimum of three years of experience of teaching since the launch of the NFEP (2015).

PTCE: All the educators possessed first degrees in their specialist areas in which the minimum teaching qualification is a diploma in teaching. Among them were master's degree holders. The least experienced at NFEP enactment had three years of experience, with one educator having been teaching PTCE related subjects, for fourteen (14) years.

FLE: The educator had 14 years of teaching technical education in formal education, and about one year of enacting teaching and learning in the particular NFEP programme.

There was an average of 3 years of experience to rely on in the sample of educators, regarding the quality of the data that were generated. The prelude to discussions of the data of each theme is a brief presentation of the theme. This will be followed by the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of the data on categories that formed each theme.

7.3 Conclusion

In Chapter Seven above, an overview of the actual data presentation, analysis and interpretation was given. The chapter aimed at outlining the nature and characteristics of Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten, regarding the specific research questions that the data were to address, as well as the themes that sought to address the questions. The concepts that were linked to the themes were introduced as well as the profiles of the participants and how the data were to be presented. Quotes were to be used, owing to the need to establish dependability, as well as to enable the researcher the use of the data to support analysis in producing dependable results (Khoza, 2016). Chapter Eight was the first chapter that covered the actual data presentation, analysis and interpretation. It was followed by Chapters Nine and Ten. Each chapter carried the data and findings for a specific question, in the sequence of the research questions. The questions were systematically linked to each other.

CHAPTER EIGHT: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION ON EDUCATORS' FORMS OF ENACTMENT

8.1 Introduction

Chapter Eight presented a descriptive analysis of the qualitative data that were generated from the phenomenon using semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis as the data-generating methods. It focused on the data that addressed Research Question One, which read as follows: What forms of enactment do educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes at selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe? It was addressed by a single theme: Enactment Forms and its categories, namely: acknowledged communal and committed forms of enactment. An abridgement of the constructs was presented below, premised on the fairly wide coverage of the same constructs, which had already been done in Chapter Two of the study, on forms of enactment.

8.2 Abridgement of forms of enactment

A brief presentation on the relevant concepts was done, premised on the fact that the same concepts were discussed in detail in Chapter Three of this study. The aim of the presentation was to provide focus on the data that were presented, analysed and interpreted in Chapter Eight of this study. The abridgement covered the constructs that framed Theme One, namely the acknowledged, communal and committed forms of enactment.

Acknowledged enactment; Acknowledged enactment is driven by facts, based on a vertical curriculum/body of knowledge (Bernstein, 1999). It is a requirement that educators who are enacting the performance-based system of education administer identical information to all learners (Khoza, 2016). This is done in anticipation of measuring the learner's achievement in the cognitive domain on a comparative basis with other learners (Khoza, 2017).

Communal enactment: The communal enactment, which is also called the societal vision (Khoza, 2016) and, horizontal use (Kisaka-Jwan, 2018), is one in which the educator is driven by needs of the community (van Manen, 1977). Van den Akker et al. (2009) reiterate that community issues

and problems become the focal point for educators' enactments. The communal enactment aligns itself with the use of horizontal forms of knowledge in a process that focuses on solving community problems using common knowledge (Bernstein, 1999). This is to ensure that, in the context of teaching, the knowledge or content becomes specific to a situation of the community's context.

Committed enactment: The committed enactment is framed by the 'person-self,' in terms of one's needs, interests, and goals in life, and in teaching, with reference to educators. The committed enactment is also known as the personal or the habitual vision, habitual in the context of habit formations that characterise the educator in cognitive, affective, and skills domains (Shoba, 2018) and other interactive processes. Therefore, educators become aware of what represents them, as educators, owing to values that they have developed and acquired and by constantly engaging in deep moments of reflecting on who they are. Van Manen (1997) points out that those educators develop a sense of self identity which addresses the question about their preferred forms of knowledge, practices, morals, and social issues. The identity performs the role of informing the educator during practise (Makumane, 2018).

The data on enactments were discussed, starting with ZABEC participants.

8.2.1 Acknowledged enactment driving ZABEC

ZA: I am a qualified educator and when teaching Mathematics, I teach basic mathematics concepts and operations to do with addition, subtraction, division and multiplication. My learners need basic skills for everyday use in the streets where they sell goods, for example. However, the group is bound to complete the exercises at home when they prepare food and measure things ZABEC course next year. The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE expects them to write the Grade Seven national examinations with the learners in formal education. I need to complete the syllabus. I know how to do it because I have an idea of what the main content is.

ZB: I suppose the MoPSE could not have hired people from outside to teach here [...]. I use a scheme-cum plan based on the syllabus that is found in formal education. For example, teaching language skills leads to effective communication. I have been interacting with other educators in workshops and I have gained a lot of new information on language teaching [...]. My understanding of Shona culture is now broader than what I learned at college. I have been exposed

to varieties of cultural dances and songs. My class enjoys these dances and songs especially when I demonstrate the dances to them. I have also accumulated a lot of folk tales that I use to inspire them to be creative story tellers and writers.

ZC: The syllabus contains everything I need in order to teach the learners. Two years after the NFEP, I was told to join the ZABEC team. However, after many years of teaching, I know what the MoPSE wants me to emphasise. My wish is to have more books from the government. Books are very helpful at developing reading, speaking and writing skills. This will enable the learners to write good essays [...]. The syllabus is clear on the topics, activities and different media such as objects and charts. My classroom walls have the charts that I use. Books are the preferred media that they can take home and use for practice.

Based on these excerpts on the experiences of the participants regarding their use of the acknowledged enactment, all the participants were on ZABEC as part in of an extension of their teacher- role. To them, the responsibility of teaching on ZABEC was similar to that of formal school teaching, where the syllabus was the official guide to teaching and learning. All the participants indicated that it was expected of an educator in public service to render services to the community. The participants were doing a duty that the MoPSE expected them to perform. Using their existing knowledge and facts about teaching primary-school level learners, participants said that they were able to interpret the syllabus so as to determine the core content areas owing to limited time for teaching. Hobart and Frankel (2001) and Khoza (2015) comment that educators who are informed by acknowledged enactment, have ample facts or knowledge on which to base their enactment practice, being aware of their teaching profession and understanding their rationale for teaching. ZB confirmed the use of content in the syllabus, while ZC stated that she relied on her training and experience to teach according to the syllabus. Educator ZA had to ensure that the same amount of content that was covered in the formal education syllabus was completed, and that the learners were ready for national examinations. The acknowledged enactment had played a part at influencing all the participants to teach on the ZABEC. The participants needed books in order to enhance teaching and learning. It was also noted that, in using the acknowledged enactment, ZB had sought more knowledge with which to promote teaching and learning, in order to provide motivation for the learners to immerse themselves in learning the Shona language. This attitude

aligns with Wahyuni's (2012) assertion that educators using acknowledged enactment must operate at the professional level.

8.2.2 Communal enactment driving ZABEC

ZA: I teach on the ZABEC and I shall refer to mathematics in particular. I want to help the community which had become infested with people who were being looked down upon and who were neglected. When we started, there were many unemployed adults, youths and children who were either idle or doing some naughty things, such as taking drugs and stealing. There were others who were in informal trading activities where they sold various goods for a living. But they did not earn much because they did not have good skills for doing business. The idea behind ZABEC is to empower such people with skills. For example, I know that buying and selling involve making financial calculations and every cent counts. Through ZABEC, I am teaching them mathematical operations of addition, subtraction, division and multiplication. They learn to apply these concepts in their daily lives. They will be able to measure ingredients when cooking as well as to calculate the cost of products that they buy for resale. These are important life skills. Providing them with skills makes them self-reliant and they become accepted members of the community because they will be contributing something to their families.

When I asked ZA how the communal enactment had influenced her teaching, ZA stated that the current enrolment of eighteen learners in her class reflected the interest of the community in the programme; and she felt that the programme deserved her support.

ZA: I end up offering the learners extra lessons so that they might make good progress. I have to write the exercises down on some cards since we have a shortage of books. This is additional work that I do. By the way, the ministry is not paying for our services. We get a little amount as an allowance from the levies that the community pays for the learners to attend school [...] about Z\$ 100 (Rands, 160) per term and sometimes Z\$75 (125 Rands). Anyway, I get so concerned when some learners fail to attend lessons [...]. I try to deal with the absenteeism, by contacting the parents or guardians using my mobile phone but it is expensive now. In the end I send their peers to check from the homes and to inform the parents or guardians. Sometimes the parents come to school to discuss the challenges being faced by their children.

I also face some challenges relating to shortages of teaching materials [...]. We now have devised a plan where educators on ZABEC are now expected to bring some teaching resources, whatever resources that we can get and we share them amongst ourselves.

ZB: I am enacting the ZABEC in an effort to rid the surrounding streets of children who are not attending school. I am aware that these children and youths lack school fees and that their parents might be deceased, resulting in child headed families. The community regards 'street children' as community rejects and so these children need to be accepted by the community and even by their families and guardians [...].I grew up as an orphan, too and I know how they feel. The cultural values such as respect for elders, for other people and for people's property promotes peace and unity in the community [...] I teach them basic education skills to enable them how to communicate and to respect our cultural values such as respect and theses skills assist those street children who are vendors to improve their businesses .When I probed ZB on how the communal enactment had impacted on her teaching, this answer ensued.

ZB: I have a long day that runs from 0700-1300 hours with my formal education class. Then I have a shift with NFE learners from 1300-1500 hours. I have learned to adapt to my new schedule so that the needs of the community are met through NFE [...], despite challenges with shortage of books and low allowances since the government stopped paying for teaching resources and our incentives. On Friday afternoons we do not have NFE lessons and so I go home early and rest.

ZC: I am on ZABEC in order to assist the community by protecting it from the misdeeds of the unemployed adults, youths and out-of schoolchildren. One of the subjects that I teach is English, which is used for communicating by the majority of our people. It is also used in many parts of the world. The learners get important skills to use in the community. I need support from the government for more books and pay. I have learned to write most of the work on cards made from Manila paper that I source.

The data from the interviews and educator-learner interactions that were noticed during participant observations spoke loudly of the participants' communal enactment. All the participants stated that they were teaching on ZABEC, having realised that there was a gap in the community for basic literacy skills, namely, reading, writing, and numeracy. The educational needs for the community are also contained in the non-formal education policy (2015), which states that a basic literacy education programme should embrace reading, writing, and arithmetic. Initially, not all the

participants were aware of this form of enactment that influenced their teaching. However, they expressed a desire to provide those willing to learn with basic literacy skills from a community's needs perspective. ZA pointed out that the learners lacked basic education skills that were related to mathematics education. ZB stated that there was a need for basic communication skills and cultural values; while ZC said that the lack of basic education, in general, was a security threat to the community in which the school functioned. ZA further reported that the programme needed the support of the educators. This demonstrated that the need for basic education became apparent through a relationship that existed between education and society (Turkkahraman, 2012), in which the two institutions co-existed. However, all the participants cited a shortage of materials and poor remuneration for their services. ZB and ZC blamed the government for the lack of materials and incentives.

All the participants said that they were strongly driven by the communal enactment to assist community members to gain basic education skills; and they had even found some short-term solutions to the shortage of basic resources. ZA said that the community of educators pooled their own resources; while ZA made reading materials using her own resources. Khoza (2016) states that, when educators reflect on the challenges they face in enacting education policy, they are bound to develop practical solutions. The communal enactment had influenced all the participants to create space, time, and resources for enacting basic education with. Above all, the participants were focused on enacting an education initiative that needed to provide learners with basic life skills that the community required. Teaching language (English and Shona) provided communication skills; while mathematics developed calculation skills in the learners. Among the learners were learners who sold goods in order to generate money for the payment of school levies. The communal enactment is achievement-oriented (Ngubane-Mokiwa & Khoza, 2016). The results or outcomes of education must be observable; and better still, measurable. All the educators stated that they faced material shortages and inadequate incentives. The responses from participants that pointed out the committed enactment are discussed next.

8.2.3 Committed enactment in ZABEC

ZA: I enjoy teaching mathematics. Through ZABEC, mathematics is transforming lives. I am happy to see learners who before they came, they could not do basic operations but now they can make accurate calculations, I mean, add, subtract, multiple and divide. Before enrolling, they were

being short changed by customers when selling their goods. They also tell me that this practice has stopped. They can calculate profit and loss. I am using my experience of teaching mainstream classes to promote NFE for a good cause. Some of the learners have come back to tell me how their lives are improving and to thank me.

ZB: I am enacting the ZABEC for very little payment at all. We get a small incentive from the levies that are paid by the learners to attend school. I am qualified teacher and I already know how to use the syllabus to draw out what to teach young learners. I would like to see orphaned children benefit from this programme.

ZC: Following the launch of ZABEC by government, I was invited to teach a ZABEC class since I am professionally qualified to teach this level of learners. I teach Level 1, which is equivalent to Grades 1-2 in formal education. Among the subjects that I teach is English in order to enable the learners to speak with others who speak English and who may not speak our vernacular. We speak English during the lesson on English I know to speed up the process of learning English.

The findings from the data on the three participants, namely, ZA, ZB and ZC, showed that all the participants held similar beliefs about teaching learners attending the ZABEC. They all took up the task of teaching on ZABEC since they were qualified school teachers. The committed enactment influenced ZA to take up teaching based on an affective domain, that she enjoyed teaching. These beliefs influenced the participants to volunteer to teach NFE learners. Van Manen (1977) noted that educators often ask themselves critical questions about their identity. This suggests that often educators living in a community may be driven by the desire to leave a ‘teaching footprint’ based on committing their professional work to a project, such as the teaching of out-of-school children. Khoza (2016) explains the belief and action as being helpful towards assisting educators to understand themselves and for predicting one’s responses to community issues. Using the committed enactment, educators created individual and group identity. An example is ZB’s account, whose passion for her learners resulted in a reciprocity that saw the learners go to her home to check on her when she had failed to turn up for teaching, since ZB had demonstrated a passion for her job to the learners.

8.2.4 Interpretation of forms of enactment driving ZABEC

Forms of enactment that were driving ZABEC were composed of three categories, namely, the, acknowledged, communal, and committed enactments. These enactments are the basis of the important decisions that participants enacting the ZABEC have to make. It was important for the study to provide a response to Research Question One on the forms of enactment that are in current use by participants enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes. Data had therefore, to be collected. Educators make important decisions based on forms of enactments in order to successfully promote teaching and learning (Khoza, 2015). Van den Akker (2009) reiterates the need for an inquiry into the relationship that exists between teaching and enactments by asking the question why educators teach. Similarly, as part of a response, Khoza (2016) says that educators teach their subjects because they have a teaching vision, also called a form of enactment in this study.

Arguably, ZABEC participants had forms of enactments, but were not aware what they were until engaging them in the study. The participants described their rationale, and data classification structured the enactments. Furthermore, the triangulation method of data generation in which the semi-structured interview, educator observation, and document analysis revealed that the participants on ZABEC used the influence of all three forms of enactment when teaching, applying the enactments in different settings. The intensity of the forms of enactment were analysed and discussed, from the most dominant enactment to the least.

Findings revealed that the participants did not have terms for the forms of enactment that influenced them to serve the community by participating in ZABEC. The literature describes such a rationale as one of putting the community at the centre of their teaching. ZA referred to assisting the community that was plagued by members who were loitering about. ZB identified the growing number of street children; and ZC was concerned about risks to the school owing to lack of jobs among out-of-school children, youths and adults that could induce thefts and other security risks. There was a consensus that education was a viable strategy towards solving the problems of the community. Khoza (2009) opines that, when members of a community take action, they would have been intrinsically motivated to construct a new reality within the community. Therefore, the communal enactment, which van Manen (1977) calls the practical enactment, is unique in that it is framed by teaching activities that must lead to an education that enhances the abilities of the community members to solve problems, where the reasons become socially acceptable (Khoza,

2015). The communal enactment drove the participants (educators) to support ZABEC in volunteering to teach out-of-school children, youths, and adults. Furthermore, the participants' attitude to action is interpreted as having emanated from an insider's knowledge of the issues that affect the community. Bernstein (1999) argues that community members operate on common-sense knowledge that is derived from the community and driven by community needs. Similarly, the participants knew and understood the consequences of failure to act. Budden (2016) asserts that it is important for educators to actively participate in community-based activities in which the school is located. Hence, based on the communal enactment, ZA demonstrated support by mobilising resources together with fellow educators; ZC bought and made learning materials; while ZB attended development workshops that were to improve teaching and learning. Such actions are interpreted to mean that there were circumstances when the educators put at the centre the provision of resources to learners. The communal-enactment-driven teaching draws the comment that communal enactment is characterised by learner-centredness (Mabuza, 2018). This means that, with a communal form of enactment, the participants become aware of learner needs and how to assist, even with learning materials, including offering their services to the community. Bernstein (1999) says that the communal form of enactment is framed by horizontal knowledge, a form of knowledge that is characterised by tacit, common-sense knowledge, made up of opinions. When the government introduced the concept of ZABEC, the participants were attracted to it in order to empower members of the community through basic education. Schiro (2013) aligns the communal form of enactment with educators who are learner-centred, as was shown by the enthusiasm with which the participants embraced the ZABEC concept and the learners. The participants adjusted their teaching strategies and content in response to the needs of the community (Budden, 2016).

In addition, the data revealed that all the participants used the curriculum and syllabus to inform them of what they taught. The reference to the use of the curriculum inferred the use of goals in teaching. There was further evidence during educator observations of where aims and objectives were used. Primary documents that were reviewed also contained teaching goals. ZA was confident with using the syllabus, while ZB had developed some personal documents for teaching, based on the syllabus. Likewise, ZC remarked that the syllabus was a helpful guide which contained the topics, activities, and lists of resources for use in enacting ZABEC. Van Manen (1997) reiterates that, when educators use goals, they would have adopted the acknowledged

enactment in order to efficiently accomplish learning outcomes. The use of the syllabus had a strong influence on the participants' adoption of the acknowledged enactment. ZA pointed out that the curriculum that was used for teaching in-school learners was replicated with out-of-school learners. In using this curriculum, the participants complied with the directive from policymakers. The NFEP document's Secretary's Circular 13 of 2016 on the implementation of the NFEP Paragraph 9.0 declared that enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes would be based on the same curriculum and syllabi that were in current use in the school. What was not clear was the rationale to impose the use of a curriculum in two different contexts. The narrations of the programmes, that is, formal education and non-formal education, suggest that there are some fundamental differences between the two types of programmes. On analysing the NFEP, paragraph 10.0, the policymakers accede to the need to make the NFE timetable flexible owing to circumstances of the learner, but without the same flexibility being accorded to the choice of content, let alone developing a different curriculum and syllabus for NFEP.

The data that pointed to the committed enactment is located in the usage of terms such as expert, professional, qualified. Likewise, I interpreted the presence of such terms to portray the use of the committed form of enactment. Similarly, Khoza (2015) explains the source of influence for committed enactment as one's personal experience. An interpretation of the participants' profiles provided evidence of the experience of enacting ZABEC, with all participants having carved out their own professional identities. ZA explained that she was using her experience to transform lives; ZB responded that, as a qualified educator, orphaned children benefited from her teaching; while ZC reported that she was professionally qualified to teach the Level One learners. This means that personal attributes are centrally located in the committed enactment in which they are the pillars of a self-identity. Interpreting the data further, using her identity to enact ZABEC, ZA valued transforming learners into consumers and users of mathematics education; ZB valued assisting out-of-school children to obtain basic literacy skills; and ZC was intent on being identified with teaching Level One learners to communicate in English. Based on participants' responses, the findings are interpreted to show that the participants relied on all forms of enactments, depending on the circumstances. Mackey et al. (2019), in their recent definition of enactment, argue that knowledge of the form of enactment promotes an understanding of the sense-making that accompanies teaching and learning actions of educators.

8.2.5 Acknowledged enactment driving PTCE

PA: I am employed to teach geography because I am a good teacher. I need to impart knowledge that benefits the next generation. I want my learners to pass. In fact, Geography is the area that I specialised in [...], starting at high school where I excelled in the subject. I then took Geography in my first degree at university. As you can expect, I use my vast knowledge and experience to teach it. I have even advised some learners to study Geography although they did not have a sound background of the subject. They took my advice to enroll for Geography at A level and they did well. I have the knowledge and the confidence and I use it to teach in order to benefit my learners [...] while the syllabus is there to guide me. I make sure the learners are ready to write the examinations using the content from the textbooks [...], but there is a shortage of books.

PB: My rationale is to teach so that they pass examinations. Professional teaching is my job. The MoPSE asked me to teach non-formal education well before the introduction of the NFEP in 2015 [...] fourteen years ago. Learners who fail to get good grades in business education have come to attend my lessons in order to obtain better grades. Most of them need to gain entry into tertiary and university institutions. The government has designed a syllabus and my job is to implement it. Although there is a shortage of time, I have to use the school holidays and weekends in order to get more work done. Mostly we are on examinations preparation and the techniques to use, so that the learners increase their chances of passing.

PC: People fear Mathematics [...] and they fail to move on in life. I have been 'schooled' in Mathematics and to teach Mathematics is my profession. I meet people without A level mathematics who want to progress with their studies to tertiary institutions. When they pass, then they can move on. I now frequently teach in semi-darkness due a lack of electricity in this town. It affects my work but we have to move on. We use phone lights but we cannot do written work. Even when I give the learners some homework, those who are employed cannot do it because there is no power at night in homes.

The findings revealed that all the participants enacting PTCE were highly qualified and experienced educators, who were employed to teach based on their qualifications and experiences. These professional attributes influenced the participants to teach various subjects. All participants

found it quite easy and comfortable to identify with their profession, as subject specialists. Mabuza (2018) points out that, when educators become confident with the knowledge of a discipline, they can prepare learners to perform well in assessments. Consequently, the acknowledged enactment influenced the participants in their choice of activities and content when they prepare learners for national examinations. PA, for example, declared that he was employed to make the learners pass their examinations by guiding them through the content. Similarly, PB and PC openly expressed that they were there to enable learners to obtain good passes and move on in life; since all the participants were fully conversant with the knowledge of the discipline for preparing learners to perform well during assessments. Sitati, Kennedy and Ndirangu (2017) aver that effective teaching is grounded on specific objectives and content of the discipline. PA stated that geography was his best academic subject, suggesting that he was aware that he had an edge over other educators who teach geography with reference to using the acknowledged enactment's facts and knowledge of the subject. Such factors had influenced the participants to teach under the PTCE programme. The findings also revealed that the acknowledged enactment influenced the participants to enact a performance-driven curriculum. The participants prioritised the passing of examinations by the learners. All the participants gave accounts of some of the challenges that they faced in enacting a timed performance-driven curriculum. The participants had to persevere under difficult conditions, regarding the learning environment that was not conducive owing to inadequate lighting. All educators faced some challenges, nevertheless remaining professional. The hallmark of a subject specialist is being focused on the goals of the learning activity (Tyler, 1949). Likewise, all participants stated the desire to enable learners to pass the examinations, based on use of committed enactment. Furthermore, PC indicated that enacting a performance-driven curriculum under difficult conditions had had the impact of making her change from her preferred role of learner-centred teaching to that of an instructor. Next, the findings on the communal enactment are discussed, starting with a brief presentation of the communal enactment construct.

8.2.6 Communal enactment driving PTCE

Educators enacting the PTCE programme provided the following responses that are aligned with the communal enactment in teaching.

PA: I need to support those learners in the community who are supplementing failed subjects. That is my job. As they master the concepts, I raise awareness to such issues as the need to control

environmental factors that relate to population control. The community becomes alert to repercussions that are associated with failure to manage the environment. The local branch of the Ministry of Environment and Environmental Management approached me for the inclusion of a contemporary topic on environmental management, which I have done [...]. Unfortunately, I face challenges of inadequate resources such as books and a lack of lighting in the classroom owing to electricity shortages that are affecting the country. But I am not dampened in helping members of the community who need to improve their chances of proceeding to tertiary institutions based on good passes.

PB: I have been asked by the community, through my school head teach part-time learners namely non-finishers of academic high school education and those who are failing to access university education owing to the low grades that they obtained. I have a desire to assist the disadvantaged [...] and for me to go the extra mile. I am aware that the learners want good pass rates after failing to get them in formal school. I trust myself to teach them in order to pass. But we do not have adequate books. Learners need knowledge and skill to create jobs for themselves and for others [...]. I provide them with an education that they can use in order to create jobs in their immediate community by doing further research and teaching during weekends.

PC: I teach people so that they make progress in life. Teaching high school Mathematics gives people the power to make informed decisions in life. I have been trained to teach Mathematics. I want to see that the learners are passing. In doing so, I am helping the community. This is my place.

The above quotes from the participants enacting the PTCE showed that the communal enactment influenced their decisions to teach the PTCE programme. PA said that he supported the learners so that they pass previously failed subjects. In addition, he had been approached by a government ministry to teach a module on environmental management. PB talked about the provision of an education that would enable the community to create jobs, after having been approached by the school head to render such a service. While PA and PB talked passionately about the influence of the communal enactment as having become the reason for their engagement with PTCE teaching, PC was not as passionate. PC revealed her inclination to act according to the teaching profession. PC was not keen to talk much about the communal enactment, which revealed that this form of

enactment was not a dominant part of her teaching belief. Khoza (2016) confirms that there exists an enactment that is more dominant than others; and for PC it was not the communal enactment.

Nonetheless, PA and PB's use of the communal enactment in driving the PTCE programme was based on an awareness of the needs of the community. PB indicated that the community expected to obtain skills for job creation; while PA mentioned that skills and knowledge were needed in order to handle environmental crises, among them weather and population crises. PA further indicated that the community had directly influenced teaching content by requesting him to include a contemporary topic on environmental management. Pyle (2003), in a study on enactment of a kindergarten curriculum, showed that it was possible for the community to be involved in community education programmes, by suggesting new topics for the transformation of the community. This is notwithstanding the inadequacies of resources for teaching that the community is failing to provide, such as a lit classroom. Therefore, the findings showed that the communal enactment had influenced PA to broaden the content, while PB had developed a habit of researching into the content needs of the learners and conducting extra lessons. Khoza (2015) explains that professionalism and a willingness to act professionally, with passion, characterise enactments for teaching. PB indicated that he wanted to go the extra mile; and PB felt obliged to act on the needs of the community. The next section presents data that was analysed as promoting the committed enactment of the PTCE.

8.2.7 Committed enactment driving PTCE

PA: I teach Geography because I like geography. I want to impart knowledge for the next generation's survival. For example wherever I have taught, I have produced good results with the highest number of A grade passes. I have produced O and A level results with a 100% pass rate. I asked him to elaborate how he had managed to attain the high pass rate and the response was: Geography was my best subject in high school. I developed a liking for it and so I took it up as my main subject in my undergraduate studies.

I teach about the environment and how we can hand it down to the next generation while it is still livable. That is what I mean. The next generation must benefit from what I do today [...]. In addition I have always achieved a 100% pass rate and that is where I peg myself. I am fond of

using theories to unbundle complex issues such as the Malthus theory of population versus resources.

PB: I have fourteen years of experience of NFE teaching experience. I have a desire to assist the disadvantaged. I also have an urge to go an extra mile in my line of duty as a professional educator in the community [...]. However, at the heart of teaching business studies is my desire to create entrepreneurs among the learners [...]. Theories, in wrong hands can confuse the educator and the learners, so I use them carefully to reinforce my teaching. This is the community in which I live. Also, I want to get a good name from the community

PC: I want to teach people who want to make progress in life by teaching them high school Mathematics which gives people the power to make informed decisions. I have been trained to teach Mathematics. I want to develop people to be critical, accurate with an attitude of 'no retreats no surrender'. I want to teach learners who wish to advance to tertiary institutions.

All the participants stated that they taught on the PTCE programme from a personal belief of being of service to the community that was founded on their professional backgrounds. The participants had a desire to be recognised for their involvement in solving community problems in education, as individuals. Specifically, that desire was to enable the learners to do well in the subject areas that they were enrolled for. In doing so, PB declared a desire for a good name by achieving both personal and community goals. Khoza (2015) contrasts the acknowledged enactment which focuses on the performance of the learners with the committed enactment, observing that the committed enactment facilitated the creation of educators' personal identities. Furthermore, Schiro (2013) evinces those personal meanings of what educators stand for and can do in teaching, becoming quite clear in the committed enactment. This attitude was manifested in the participants' willingness to teach and to be held accountable for their enactment practices, while being driven by a passion for the job and personal knowledge that included theories. PA said, *'I want to impart knowledge...'* PB remarked, *'I also have an urge to go the extra mile...'* while PC stated, *'I want to develop learners...'* The committed enactment triggered intrinsic motivation based on an awareness of community factors that then influenced the participants to respond to the committed enactment use, grounded in a personal identity that is framed by passion. The findings showed that all the participants wanted to excel, to which Berkvens et al. (2014) respond that, in the communal enactment use, participants whose personal identity is about excelling, for example, produce

quality teaching. Similarly, the committed enactment played a role in influencing the use of theories that resonate with the facts of each discipline, and shaped personal identities for PA and PB. These teachers used theories to simplify and to reinforce learning. Furthermore, in committed enactment, the sincerity of the participants may not be doubted in their interaction with the learners (Makumane, 2018) since educators value the knowledge and personal meanings that have become their identity. Next are the interpretations of the findings on how the three forms of enactments impacted the PTCE programme.

8.2.8 Interpretation of forms of enactment driving PTCE

This section presents the interpretations of the findings pertaining to Theme One about the question of forms of enactment used by participants for enacting teaching and learning in NFE programmes, with specific reference to the PTCE programme. The focus is on sense-making of the findings presented in the section preceding this discussion regarding the acknowledged enactment which the participants were not aware of until the study. The findings revealed that all the participants enacting PTCE were highly qualified and experienced educators. The PTCE programme was run by a team of knowledge experts. Of knowledge experts, van Manen (1977) and Mabuza (2018) posit that subject specialists determine and contribute knowledge and expertise that can be relied upon in the practise of acknowledged enactment.

A review of their profiles showed that all the participants had qualifications that exceeded the minimum qualification stipulated by the parent ministry, namely a diploma in teaching. In addition, they had several years of experience of teaching on the NFE programme under review in this study. All the participants expressed confidence to produce learners with good passes. PA stated that he was a competent educator with a good history of producing passing learners; PB shared the same sentiments when he said that learners who need to do well in their examinations were seeking to join his group; while on a similar note, PC responded that she was a trained teacher. One of the common characteristics among the educators was that they were exerting their influence so that the learners achieved their learning outcomes. Van Manen (1977) observes that, in acknowledged enactment, the focus is on educators to improve the performance of learners towards the accomplishment of learning outcomes. This means that the participants were in a better position to understand and deliver the vertical curriculum that they were employed to enact.

Although Sitati, Kennedy and Ndirangu (2017) aver that effective teaching is grounded on specific objectives and content of the discipline, there are variables that can impede the effective delivery of teaching and learning. For example, the findings revealed that PA and PC were utilising classroom facilities that were not conducive to the use of a preferred pedagogy, owing to lack of electricity. They were restricted to teacher-centred activities at the expense of individual-learner activities, such as written work. The participants were concerned about failure to complete the syllabus. In acknowledged enactments, the syllabus is the guide for the participants who needed to prepare learners for assessments on set times; hence the participants had devised plans to illuminate the classroom using light from mobile phones. Such was the influence of the acknowledged enactment on participants, which means that one has to be resourceful and innovative, in order to safeguard the reputation of the discipline.

Making sense of the data also led to the identification of some responses that pointed to the use of the communal enactment by the educators who were enacting the PTCE programme. There were several instances where participants referred to decisions to assist the community in ways that would enable the learners to obtain better passes in the subjects that they had failed. This behaviour was interpreted as having been induced by communal enactment, this referring to social action or public service (Khoza, 2016; Mabuza, 2018). Schiro (2013) testifies that, in communal enactment, participants put the society at the centre. This means that the participants prioritised the needs of the community over their own needs. The findings revealed that PA had set goals for PTCE that would enable the community to create jobs through entrepreneurship education; similarly, PA had set goals that would see the community realise better grades in education. Participants therefore, expressed attitudes that supported a community approach to solving community problems, while at the same time they were enacting a performance-oriented curriculum. These are moments when the communal enactment was strongest in driving PTCE – more than one form of enactment can become a driving force in one activity (Khoza, 2015).

Research findings also revealed that the school head had approached PB to offer his services in helping learners who needed to improve their pass rates after having failed to achieve good results in previous examination attempts. This was done because, in communal enactment, communities often rely on their own experts to help solve common problems, using horizontal knowledge (Bernstein, 1999). Similarly, PA was requested by a government ministry to teach environmental

management at a time of catastrophic effects of climate change. Participants taking action on behalf of the community can be influenced by other persons. The findings showed that there was space for the use of the communal enactment to enhance teaching and learning. The communal enactment was grounded in Bernstein's (1999) remark that education can be influenced by common-sense knowledge and social opinions. The community believed in PTCE as the panacea for failure. In turn, the participants created space for the community to achieve its learning outcomes. PB indicated that he wanted to go the extra mile. He was obliged to act on the needs of the community. Such attitudes can be used to account for the perseverance that the participants demonstrated when they faced challenges such as of poorly lit classrooms. Despite that the community could not provide a classroom with adequate lighting and enough books, teaching resources, and better incentives, the participants were not detracted from the core activity. Khoza (2015) explains that professionalism and a willingness to act professionally with passion characterise enactments for teaching.

The findings pointed to the committed form of enactment's use in the enactment of teaching and learning on the PTCE. However, the participants' accounts of a rationale for teaching did not have a name for the driving force. Some of their stories were interpreted as the committed enactment use. The findings from the analysis of the participants' profiles indicated an average of three years of experience among the participants. Therefore, experience and individual experiences with enacting teaching in the formal education system had had an influence on teaching in the NFEP programme. According to Khoza (2016), the experience attributes become part of one's identity, which will inform the educator during practice (Makumane, 2018). PA and PB stated that they often used theories in order to enhance teaching and learning. Learners also identified the educators by their theories. The findings showed that all the participants had embraced the goal of enabling the learners to do well in their examinations by obtaining good grades. Educators had become aware of what they wanted to do, and what they could do in their enactment of teaching in the various subject areas. Schiro (2013) contends that such educators have created personal meanings about their teaching through their identities, becoming committed to these identities. In support, Berkvens et al. (2014) add that educators, whose personal identity is about excelling, for example, produce quality teaching. This explains the success rate that PA enjoyed in teaching geography. In addition, Budden (2016) posits that the committed enactment elicits the best practices from educators and learners. PB stated that his intention was 'going the extra mile', and PC declared

that her attitude was that of ‘no retreat, no surrender’ while PA stated that he had pegged his goal at achieving a hundred per cent pass rate, thereby excelling in the enactment of teaching and learning practise.

8.2.9 Acknowledged enactment driving FLE

The participant responded as follows:

FA: I use my professional training on teaching secondary schoolchildren to teach adults, most of whom are much older than me. I use the content that is in the HEXCO syllabus and some that I gathered at college and attachment. Most of the adults are semi-literate. This presents a challenge on what suits them [...]. I know that they need a lot of support and to believe in themselves. I use Bible teachings to motivate them. They understand the teachings of Jesus, who went about inspiring people to change for a better life [...]. But there are problems since their basic literacy levels are quite low. I use methods which have been in use for a very long time and were being passed down from generation to generation. I then asked FA to elaborate on these methods. FA: I have introduced community learning methods of peer learning for hand garment sewing and discussion techniques. I have to prepare teaching materials although some of the adults cannot read. For example, they took three months to grasp what should be done in three weeks. I then make some models for everyone to see when I demonstrate, for example on different ways of stitching. The FLE programme is registered with the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development for the National Foundation Certificate in Garment Construction. I follow the Higher Education Examination Council syllabus. However, the requirements such as structure, duration and entry requirements have been modified to accommodate the group of adults. For assessment, it is a requirement that learners must submit written assignments, should do a practical project and write examinations. I am travelling to town to submit practical work assignments to the ministry, today after the interview is over.

The findings that were based on the data from FA on the enactment of the FLE programme are first interpreted for evidence of the acknowledged enactment use. The interpretation is supported by the quotes that pointed to the use of acknowledged enactment. The main evidence was

documents and approaches that were used were aligned with the acknowledged enactment; although the educator did not have a name for the rationale that provided the influence.

The responses from educator FA pointed to the use of the acknowledged enactment to drive a performance-focused curriculum. The teaching was grounded in a technical training background in terms of content; while using a pedagogy that suits children more than adults. Hence, FA reflected on the pedagogy and noted that the pedagogy for use with schoolchildren may not be transferred to adult learning environments. Brookfield (1986) and Knowles (1980) advocate for the use of a theory of andragogy that is contextualised to adult learning. The low levels of literacy tended to present FA with challenges related to the styles of teaching and learning of the adults. The findings showed that the adults took three months to grasp what should have been accomplished in three weeks. FA was using a modified national foundation course in garment construction certificate syllabus. The syllabus was the major source of content and assessment criteria. Therefore, FA was enacting the lowest level of a vertical process of the garment construction discipline using the modified syllabus to influence her form of enactment (Khoza, 2016). In pursuing an acknowledged enactment, the cognitive domain processes need to be developed, using content from the syllabus. The impact of the acknowledged enactment use on FA was to assist the learners with writing assignments, engaging in practical sewing projects, and preparing the learners to write examinations.

8.2.10 Communal enactment driving FLE

Below are the responses from Participant FA.

FA: Following the delivery of industrial sewing machines for use by the secondary school learners, some community members (adults) requested that they learn garment construction [...]. I volunteered to train the adults. The adults were to get skills that enable them to generate funds towards fees for their children and money for their families [...]. There are some barriers such as limited time for some slow learners among the group but learning in groups is helping [they talk freely and in vernacular]. We have only six machines for use by 32 learners, which results in delays as the learners take turns. I have devised some plans and one of them is starting the lessons

at least one hour early every day. We also had to skip our lessons on Wednesday to ensure that the adults performed their duty of going to the dip tank with their cattle.

What is evident about FA's communal enactment of FLE was an awareness of community needs. FA agreed to teach on the FLE programme when the prospective learners approached her with the request to do so. These shaped her vision of functional literacy education enactment. Voluntarism is associated with internal thought processes and values that put communities at the centre of activities, and is associated with communities that believe in common-sense horizontal knowledge of community experts being applied for the common good (Bernstein, 1999). It is also evident from the findings that the communal enactment narrative is linked to socio-economic development in a pragmatic way, in which skills are developed and competencies are gained. Such are the characteristics of the communal enactment which van Manen (1977) calls the communal enactment, the practical enactment. Khoza (2015) refers to communal enactment as a process of equipping community members to solve community problems that are affecting it. Findings showed that the communal enactment influenced FA to devise strategies, among other actions, that ensured that enacted time that had been lost was recovered.

8.2.11 Committed enactment driving FLE

The findings from the data on the educator enacting the FLE programme are discussed below:

FA: I am a qualified technician and tutor. I teach students to design and to sew. So, I volunteered to teach the adults garment construction in the same classroom in which I teach secondary school learners. I sometimes use some theories of learning such as by Brunner and Pavlov which I was taught at college since the adults are slow learners and take more time to learn [...] but I now know that adults do not want to be put under pressure. I was told at a workshop on NFE that I attended early this year that adult learners are mature learners. I teach the same course to high school learners and this gives me good experience. The adult learners have an important examination waiting for them. I try to give them as much information as I can. I am preparing them to pass despite some challenges like shortages of electricity and materials for use in sewing garments.

The findings are that FA was using the committed enactment that was informed by her professional knowledge and experience of teaching children. FA was teaching adults in the same learning environment where she taught students the same skills that the adults were learning. Initially, FA did not anticipate the challenges of teaching adult learners, who have low literacy levels and are slow learners, in addition to the personal experience of teaching children. FA stated that she lacked the personal experience of training adults; she had assumed the teaching and learning styles of adult learners would be very similar to those of children. Knowles (1980); Brookfields (1986); Jarvis (2009) argue for the use of a pedagogy for teaching adults, known as andragogy. Andragogy recognises the use of adult learning principles, such as self-directedness, orientation to learning; readiness to learn; use of experience, and motivation. FA had responded to the adults' readiness to learn about garment construction for vertical use and horizontal use, owing to the employment of committed enactment. FA was driven more by a personal view of her competence to do the job and passion, as her personal identity, hence FA volunteered to take up the challenge.

8.2.12 Interpretation of forms of enactment driving FLE

The data from educator FA showed that, from the outset, she was informed by the syllabus as well as her own content accumulated over time. The sources of information included the personal notes from college and during attachment. Goals of the garment construction course were used for determining the content and assessment of teaching. Khoza (2015) advises that, when teaching is framed by curriculum goals, an acknowledged enactment is used for driving the vertical curriculum in which learners ascend from lower levels to the higher levels of the education system. The national foundation course in garment construction certificate (NFCGC) syllabus had the following framework:

Title and level of award: National Foundation Certificate in Garment Construction

Aim: The aim of the course is to develop a garment construction operative with knowledge, skills and attitudes required in the clothing industry.

Objective: By the end of the course the student(s) should be able to construct garments.

When participants use primary and secondary documents with goals for teaching, they are driven by an acknowledged enactment in which they are following a performance-based curriculum (Bernstein 1999). The use of such a curriculum brings with it the following responsibilities for the educator, namely, ensuring that each subject is delivered with its own knowledge, which is its unique content (Khoza, 2015). In this context, educators teach the same type of content from the lowest level to the topmost level. FA was driven by content; she employed the acknowledged enactment to teach adult learners using unique content for garment construction. However, in using the vertical knowledge that frames acknowledged enactment, FA had encountered challenges. One of the major challenges was the low levels of literacy among the group of learners. In these circumstances, FA had to work extremely hard, and was under pressure to meet the deadlines for assessment. When following a performance-oriented curriculum, the acknowledged enactment will influence the educator on the choice of content, time, and teaching activities. This explains the need for more time that FA expressed when she encountered the slow rate in the development of cognitive processes of the adult learners. This is interpreted as a case of the use of a syllabus that was beyond the capabilities of the learners. van den Akker et al. (2009) advise educators to be wary of misalignment between cognitive level and quantity of content because this leads to disgruntled learners. In addition, FA stated that the use of the available syllabus came with the requirements for learners to write assignments and to undergo a written theory examination.

Evidence that was linked to the communal enactment was the goal of “equipping learners with practical skills for a day to day living to promote self-sustenance” (Secretary’s Circular Minute Number 13 of 2016, p. 2). More evidence was that FA was aware of the educational needs of the community. This awareness had influenced FA to volunteer to teach the adults. Samuel and Van Wyk (2008) comment that the teaching that addresses the needs of the community is driven by a communal enactment. The goal of the FLE programme was to provide members with competencies for income-generating projects. FA engaged adult learners in order for them to address their socio-economic issues (Makumane, 2018).

The committed enactment was evident in the data that spoke of FA’s personal identity. The communal enactment was important in the enactment of teaching on the FLE programme. All other decisions, visions/reasons for teaching can be traced to the committed enactment. Khoza (2015) posits that the entire learning environment is enabled by the educator’s reasoning, which is the

committed form of enactment. FA made crucial decisions that impacted FLE teaching and learning. The decision to volunteer to teach the adult learners led to the use of theories of teaching and techniques that would facilitate success in the vertical curriculum and for mitigating challenges such as shortages of books, time, and electricity. Ultimately, the use of the three forms of enactment created an environment in which garment construction occurred.

8.3 Conclusion

Chapter Eight discussed the response to Question One of the study under the theme: Enactment forms. The theme focused on the forms of enactment that were used by educators in enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes. The findings on each of the three sets of participants working in ZABEC, PTCE, and FLE, were presented separately, then discussed and interpreted, in order to facilitate the development of a consolidated holistic in-depth overview of the enactments of the school-model programmes. The next chapter, Chapter Nine, focused on Question Two of the study which, was addressed by Theme Two (enactment resources), Theme Three (enactment content), Theme Four (access to enactment) and Theme Five (enactment educator activities and roles). Likewise, each chapter focused on producing findings for a specific question, in the sequence of the research questions, in which the questions were systematically linked to each other.

CHAPTER NINE: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION ON EDUCATORS' ENACTMENT PRACTICES

9.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented, analysed and interpreted the data that pertained to Theme One. The data were in response to Research Question One: The findings revealed a sustained but limited use of all the forms of enactment, owing to various complex psychological, philosophical, social and institutional issues. The data pointed to participants who had a limited knowledge of the concept and types of enactment and of programme goals. Chapter Nine explicated the data on theme Two, as response to Research Question Two: How do educators enact teaching and learning in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?

Research Question Two was addressed by four themes and their categories. The themes are Theme Two: Enactment Resources, Theme Three: Enactment content, Theme Four: Access to enactments and Theme Five: Enactment educator-activities and roles. A curtailing of the main themes that provided the data is presented below, since the details of the policy concepts were presented in Chapter Two of the study.

9.2 Synopsis of themes on educators' enactment ways

A brief presentation on the relevant concepts was done, premised on the fact that the same concepts were discussed at length in Chapter Three of this study. The aim of the presentation was to provide focus on the data that were presented, analysed and interpreted in Chapter Nine. It covered the concepts that of the following themes: enactment resources, enactment content, access to enactments and enactment educator activities and roles.

Enactment Resources: A resource is any material used for teaching (Reinders & White, 2009). The concept of resources includes tangible and intangible resources. The tangible resources include educational resources such as educational books and gadgets that have physical attributes, software resources such as e-learning platforms that are intangible and are without physical attributes; as well as ideological-ware resources that are intangible and are in the mind (Khoza, 2012). Their purpose is to enhance education change by communicating learning (Amory, 2010).

Enactment Content: content is the information that is taught and learned. It frames the narrative of the scholarship of teaching and learning in which content is imparted by educators in the form of subject matter. The content is categorised into intended, enacted and attained content. and becomes the means by which learning should happen (Alfrey et al., 2017). The manner in which the participants enact various subjects of the programmes results from the influence of the content that they use. The content therefore, becomes the means by which change in the learners occurs (Alfrey et al., 2017).

Access to enactments: The Theme on accessibility highlights the factors that impact access to education, which are physical access (is it possible to reach a school?), financial access (is the education affordable?), and cultural access (is the programme socially acceptable?) say Berkvens, et al., 2014).

Enactment educator- activities: Teaching activities refer to the actions that educators propose and use in order to maximise the attainment of learning outcomes, or for the purposes of making teaching possible (O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). Yair (2000) comments that the role of educators is to provide teaching and learning activities that are varied, in order to accommodate individual learning styles, while maintaining high levels of motivation from the learners. The educator activities and roles are educator-driven activities and instructor roles, discipline specialists and content-centred roles, and the problem driven-facilitator activities. The research participants provided the following accounts of the data, starting with ZABEC participants.

9.2.1 Enactment hardware resources on ZABEC

ZA: Hardware, I suppose that's something hard. The use of resources depends on the topic that I will be doing. Mathematics for example, has many topics that have to deal with addition, subtraction, division and multiplication. I use books although for the learners these are short. The books have the content that is needed. I sometimes use objects such as counters, stones and the clock face for teaching about time. There are times when I use real objects, such as cups for measuring volume. I then inquired about what informs her to teaching using real objects.

ZA: The resources are mentioned in the syllabus but I also add my other resources, I mean those that are not in the syllabus [...] learners need life skills to use at home. So when we practise with

real objects that they use in their daily lives, they learn faster. They also like it since they are familiar with real objects which means they are learning to use something useful [...] using these resources helps them to understand better [...] it improves memory. They can remember what the teacher was saying.

ZB: I use text books, the syllabus, teaching plans, scheme of work, the register, the individual record and the extension record book. I record the progress of fast learners in the extension book, the remedial book is for recording the corrected work [...] and there are plenty of charts that are used for mainstream learners that are already available. The teaching materials are simple since they were written for the learners at this level. I have also some cultural instruments which raise a lot of interest. [...] these are children of the streets who miss such things. When I asked about what informs the use of such materials which were designed for another group of learners, ZB said: We maintain uniformity with the mainstream learners.

ZC: I use tangible objects when I introduce new work. [...] It is important to start at the same level in a new topic. I use real objects such as table, bench, hoe, and basket. I have also made some cards using manila paper. I try to make the lessons relevant. I have charts too that I use.

Van den Akker (2003) was eager to establish the nature of educational resources that teachers use for engaging the learners. Findings revealed a wide range of material resources employed by teachers enacting teaching and learning in ZABEC. All the educators used a range of materials that included charts, models, cultural artefacts, and official documents. ZA referred to the use of models and real objects. Some of these were sourced from the community itself. ZB pointed to the use of similar material resources on the basis that the materials are simple and readily available. This shows that, in their simplicity, the materials were user-friendly, and communicated the correct meaning to the learners. ZC added that she was influenced by the drive to make education meaningful to the learners and the way they live in the community. The educators were influenced by the communal enactment in promoting horizontal use of knowledge that appeals to members of the community Bernstein (1999). It was evident that teachers enacting ZABEC were using basic physical resources in order to enhance teaching and learning. The educators were also able to take advantage of the ubiquitous nature of basic materials such that they knew the materials for ZABEC that were available in the community. This was an innovative idea that ensured that teaching was reinforced by hardware resources, every time.

9.2.2 Enactment software resources on ZABEC

Participants on ZABEC said:

ZA: I have no computer. The school cannot afford it. I have some skill which I would use to operate it and get some content to add to what the textbooks are providing

ZB: After all, electricity is required to operate a computer and there is no electricity owing to load shedding [...]. Using computers is a modern way of teaching. The learners would find this interesting. They see others on mobile phones playing games and I think they also know how to play those games. A time will come when the school can have computers for teaching and learning.

ZC said: The school has no budget for computers. They are costly to buy and to use. But they are good sources of information which is current. I have some computer skills [...] I have a mobile phone which I use for communication.

Participants teaching the ZABEC programme did not know much about software, nor did they appear to miss the numerous advantages that are associated with the use of the modern technology for teaching and learning. Budden (2016) states that exposure to software can facilitate the development of research skills of critiquing, evaluating, and analysing data, in addition to the acquisition of content. Participants and learners on the ZABEC programme can benefit from the committed enactment use of the software resources. All the participants pointed to the lack of financial resources for purchasing hardware and software resources.

9.2.3 Enactment ideological-ware resources on ZABEC

The participants' responses are presented and discussed, below:

ZA: What now come to my mind are the teaching methods that I was taught at teacher training college. I use them to explain concepts. The most common one is about starting from the known to the unknown. The known is what happens at home and for the vendor [...] it's about what takes place when selling on the streets.

ZB: I am rich in Shona cultural knowledge and practices. I know many songs and dances that are performed at traditional ceremonies such as when the Karanga people are appeasing the spirits. I often tell the learners some folk stories that are not even in the textbooks. The children listen attentively when I say, 'Iyi ngano hamusati mamboihwa' (You have never heard this story). [...] This helps them to learn better since they enjoy the stories.

ZC: (After I had explained the concept twice). I can say I show them love, passion, empathy. Because of the background of these children [...] they need to be encouraged to like school, otherwise they drop-out.

The participants were all unfamiliar with the concept of IW. Having explained the concept to the participants, ZA stated a principle of teaching that she had learned while undergoing training, while ZB and ZC did not mention any theories of teaching and learning. Instead, ZB stated that she was a reservoir of and expert in Shona culture; while ZC stated that the plight of the learners had influenced her to become empathetic. In turn, ZC exerted her influence so that the learners liked attending school. The committed enactment use of theories was not demonstrated even during educator observation. Instead, the IW that was noted during educator observations was framed by empathy, passion, and tolerance which were used for driving teaching on ZABEC in a communal enactment use. Davids (2013) reiterates the importance of the IW in that ideology informs the educator not only about the actions to take, but about how to act.

9.2.4 Interpretation of enactment resources on ZABEC

The findings revealed that hardware (HW) resources, especially print media in the form of books, charts, reading cards, and the syllabus, were frequently used by all the educators enacting the ZABEC initiative to engage the learners. This demonstrates that hardware resources play an important role of influencing the teaching and learning in ZABEC. The reasons for the use of these HW resources ranged from being user-friendly to their availability, according to whether or not the school could afford to buy them. The UNESCO Report (2016) confirms that books remain the major influence on teaching in Africa; and that there is an acute shortage of books. The books for use in ZABEC are in short supply, confirmed ZB and ZC.

The participants' use of the hardware resources was informed by the committed enactment. Participants reported that the HW resources were simple to use, since teachers were the ones who selected which resources to use in different contexts (Budden, 2016). The communal form of enactment also informed ZA to outsource materials from colleagues and to develop a culture of sharing the available hardware resources. The acknowledged enactment informed the participants about the content and on how to make the most use of hand-made hardware resources, ensuring that the content was aligned with the discipline (Samuel, 2009).

Despite literature having revealed that several decades have passed since the invention of the computer and its software, the findings highlighted that participants enacting ZABEC were not using the technology in education. The participants cited the lack of finance by the school for the purchase of the HW and SW that is needed. The sample of participants seemed to be semi-literate in the use of computers. To them, the mobile phone and Internet and WhatsApp platform were simply other communication devices. They had the phones but were not using them as educational software resources. In addition to the influence of the HW on teaching, the findings revealed a very limited understanding of ideological-ware. The limited use of the IW was interpreted following reference to terms that the participants used to describe their personal technologies, such as experience, subject specialist, and empathy. Participants used these personal attributes to exert influence on teaching based on a committed enactment. They were observed expressing empathy and tolerance for the learners during teaching, in a communal form of enactment that was driven by IW resources. Participants used teaching principles that were learned at the teacher training college to select learning activities, while empathy, which is a natural attribute, was used in order to motivate the learners. In ZABEC, it is important to motivate the out-of-school children (the street children) to enjoy attending lessons.

9.2.5 Enactment hardware resources on PTCE

Participants on the PTCE programme said:

PA: There is the syllabus which is a guide on what we should cover. There are insufficient copies of the syllabus so I end up reading to the learners. At the venue, there is a white board [...] I use the boards for making illustrations, Geography, for example, is a diagram based subject. Although

I prefer to use the white board because there are coloured markers for different illustrations, there is a shortage of markers [...]. I end up having to dictate notes to the learners and it takes longer to do. I also keep an attendance register, a fees register and mark schedules [...] No they are not up to date. I am pressed for time since I teach at the formal school. Register was marked at the end of lesson so as to include those who came late.

PB: The major resources are the books since they provide us with the information that we need. The learners provide their own books [...] but this is not compulsory because of the high cost of education and living in this country. Secondly we rely on past examination papers. The learners have to practise before they write the examinations. I was issued with a computer by the school and the learners have personal mobile phones. I send them their homework and any additional material that I find.

PC: When I teach Maths I need mathematical instruments, graph paper and books. These are the main resources. We do not have enough of the mathematics equipment since learners buy for themselves. We end up sharing what we have which is not ideal for night classes since we have tight time demands.

The participants on PTCE were aware of the importance of hardware resources for teaching. PB pointed out that books were a crucial source of information that they needed to enhance teaching and learning. However, these resources were in short supply. All participants used past examination papers. They were informed by the performance-oriented curriculum which uses summative assessment to determine what the learners should have learned. According to Khoza (2017), such educators operate within the acknowledged enactment, which places the knowledge of the discipline at the centre of the learning. Only one educator (PB) had a computer for sending information to learners.

9.2.6 Enactment software resources on PTCE

The participants responded as follows:

PA: We use WhatsApp quite a lot. It is useful for sending and receiving feedback. We do not meet often and so we can communicate with each other on WhatsApp. I give them work to do and they

send it back to me so that I can prepare a response when next we meet face-to-face. However, the challenge is the cost of data bundles which keeps going up.

PB: Some of the learners have mobile phones that are connected to the Internet. They use phones for research when they do assignments. I told them that I expect them to explain the information and not too copy from the net. They now know about plagiarism, that it is not permitted to copy the work of others without referring to the author. I also have a desk top. I use it to research and get more recent information.

PC: The learners who are familiar with WhatsApp are using it to communicate with peers for lesson notes and to discuss with friends. By using WhatsApp, we communicate at a distance instead of travelling up and down. But phone data bundles have made the use of WhatsApp very expensive.

The findings showed that there was a limited use of types of software resources by all participants on PTCE, except the dominant use of the WhatsApp platform by participants and learners. PA and PC mentioned the use of mobile phones and the WhatsApp software as having provided solutions to the limited time that is available for face-to-face teaching. This showed the communal enactment use of software resources, in which the learners and the participants participated in sharing knowledge in organised group structures. The software resource was used for communicating content and learning activities that learners engaged in outside the classroom. According to PB, some of the learners searched the Internet for more content, which showed the acknowledged enactment use of the software resources for accessing facts and information.

9.2.7 Enactment ideological-ware resources on PTCE

The participants' responses were presented and discussed, below:

PA: Geography has a number of theories that can be used to explain events in the topics that I teach. For example, I use the Matthus theory. This is a population versus resources theory. It explains the relationship between the size of the population and the amount of resources that they need, thereby raising an awareness to protect the environment. I also use my teaching experience to explain issues. These are learners who are looking forward to passing examinations and experience helps to know what to focus on.

PB: *I use some theories that I learned during training that I have tried over the years [...] such as the interconnections theory. This is about sharing information and deriving meaning. For example, I use it to reinforce the need for business management information which they can share with other departments in the organisation in order to improve the business. It is important that learners understand how to maximize the use of local resources such as land, water and develop businesses from which they can learn a living.*

PC: *Ummm, may be my ability to sequence the data correctly. My data sequencing technique influences the learners to be organised when they conduct mathematical operations. Patience and a sense of humour are related to ideological resources [...] they assist with motivating the learners. Mathematics requires mental activity which can be tiresome.*

Participants PA and PB stated that they used some theories of learning in order to influence the behaviour of learners; while PC professed ignorance of any theory for use in teaching mathematics. The findings showed that PA and PB used their knowledge which they selected according to their understanding and experience of teaching. This showed the committed enactment as the driving force in teaching. PC said, although after a long pause, that her ideology was strongest on the use of personal methodology and qualities of patience and a well-defined sense of humour. According to Schiro (2012), people use an ideology that they prefer, while Khoza (2016) adds that ideological resources are personal enactments that influence educators on how to teach and what to avoid doing. This is the essence of the committed enactment in teaching of PTCE by the educators.

9.2.8 Interpretation of enactment resources on PTCE

The findings showed that all participants referred to the use of books and examination papers as the major types of hardware resources. Participants were aware of the importance of hardware influencing teaching, but were not aware that mobile phones were another type of hardware resource that they would refer to later in the interview during the topic on software. The mobile phone had brought some relief since it housed the software that enabled communication and learning while also providing lighting for the learning environments at critical times. The interviewer noted the badly lit classroom during participant observations, and the environment's effect on restricting teaching and learning. This omission was owing to the teaching on PTCE

being largely face-to-face, as participants prepared learners for written examinations: books dominated the practices. Partarrieu (2015) agrees that books are used for supporting face-to-face teaching. This was the case, since participants needed to assist learners to use books, which are authentic sources of the content. Books were used for exploring concepts, while examination papers were for the application of the content.

This showed that participants used the acknowledged enactment when teaching on PTCE, having to place the discipline at the centre (Khoza, 2017). Hardware resources supported a content-driven curriculum in which the committed enactment determined the type of books and content for the achievement of learning outcomes. PC and PB made reference to the list of books recommended in the syllabus which was confirmed during document analysis. However, the books were in short supply, and teachers had to rely on the notes that the facilitators supplied them. The document analysis exercise revealed limited use of other hardware such as charts, there being inadequate light. The facilitators relied on a Whiteboard for illustrations.

With reference to software, only PB had access to a computer that belonged to the school, since he was a senior teacher. The educator used the SW to research on content for use in enhancing teaching. In a committed enactment use, PB determined the content to choose in order to help the learners understand and interpret concepts. Findings showed that there was limited use of various types of software resources by all participants on PTCE; however, there was dominant use of the WhatsApp platform by participants and learners. PA and PC mentioned the use of mobile phones and the WhatsApp software as having provided solutions to the limited time that is available for face-to-face teaching. This showed the communal enactment use of software resources, in which the learners and the participants participated in sharing knowledge in organised group structures. The software resource was used for communicating content and learning activities that learners engaged in outside the classroom. According to PB, some of the learners searched the Internet for more content which showed the acknowledged enactment use of the software resource for accessing facts and information. The findings also showed that all the participants used mobile phones for sharing content with learners. This was the TIE that they had innovated because the institutions could not afford computer laboratories for NFE learners. Participants took advantage of the digital natives who had mastered the skills to operate mobile phones as resources. Digital natives are people born into the age of technology (Khoza, 2016) and they have the skills to access

content speedily and easily. The mobile phone software was used to compensate for the limited time that the timetable had allocated for PTCE instruction. The findings also indicated that, inadvertently, PTCE participants were using blended learning. Redmond (2011) advocates for the use of blended learning, which, in addition to classroom learning, facilitates learning at a distance and in learning spaces of choice. Hence, the mobile phone e-learning had become popular among PTCE participants, not by choice, but of necessity, while driven by all three forms of enactment. The acknowledged enactment was for delivering a performance-focused curriculum. Learners were assessed at the same time as all others doing the same subjects. In communal enactment, the learning groups received help; and the use of committed enactment enabled access to content. The participants chose the information for dissemination and discussion in the chat groups.

Ideological-ware resources proved to be a new concept to educators during the interviews. Nonetheless, there were some school contexts in which IW was a dominant feature of teaching and learning (Shoba, 2018). The IW is the intangible resources which drive the use of the other resources (Khoza, 2015). Participants were not aware of the type of resources they were already using to drive teaching activities. The findings that pointed to IW were limited. PA and PB revealed the use of theories. Therefore, the participants used the committed enactment, in which personal school knowledge was used to deliver effective teaching. The participants were in this predicament because they were not aware that teaching is driven by ideology (Amory, 2010). PC added that patience was an attribute that helped her in directing learners towards accurate answers that were required in teaching and learning of mathematics.

9.2.9 Enactment hardware resources on FLE

The participant enacting functional literacy education had this to say:

FA: I have six industrial machines for 32 adult learners. I also have irons, measuring and cutting equipment, marking tools and samples of garments. All these kinds of resources are listed in the syllabus. The learners will be assessed on their mastery of the machines and the other types of equipment. [...] the machines are not adequate at all. The learners take turns and this requires a lot of time for everyone to get to use the machines. The machines are also advanced such that some of the learners face challenges using them. On average the learners take three weeks to learn what

a student can learn in one week how to use the machines. I have to Google on my phone to find solutions about how to make adults learn [...]. One of the things that I have learnt is that I have to relate the learning to their personal lives.

The major resources that FA stated were the industrial sewing machines; and that she instructed the learners using face-to-face teaching. Such physical resources are not in common use in school learning contexts. A trained educator must be able to instruct learners on how to use such efficiently. These machines were fixed in the classroom and did not accommodate practise outside the classroom as would be done with other materials such as books. Some learners were taking a long time to grasp how to use the machines. The educator was using a syllabus that required learners to sew garments using the machines and other related pieces of equipment. Acknowledged enactment was most significant since there were instructions that the educator had to follow in an attempt to prepare the learners for assessment.

9.2.10 Enactment software resources on FLE

FA: I sometimes down load some videos from the Internet using the school lap top to a flash disc, which I then project onto a screen. I use the videos when I sometimes encounter problems with explaining concepts to suit the level of the adults and so I use videos [...] I will continue to use the videos since they show visuals [...].The adults face difficulties when I do so because they have little English language communication skills. I remove the voice, hoping that they can benefit from the live pictures. They are able to see the visuals while I provide the narration in mother tongue because we do not have local videos. We are able to stop, discuss and continue with our session. They (videos) relieve me from a lot of face-to-face teaching. I have over three hundred high school students to teach. I am a part time tutor and I sometimes get exhausted because of the long day of teaching, first in the formal and later in non-formal education. My teaching day starts at 0700 and ends at 1600 hours, excluding the time when I am marking assignments at night.

The findings show that the use of software resources is restricted to the educator who has access to a school computer. The software resources influenced FA to download videos to enhance teaching and learning. The software was used as resource that promotes the acknowledged enactment perspective; the educator used the software resources to research content of the

discipline. Khoza, (2012) affirms the use of software resources in that they display information that facilitates learning. FA also showed the adaptable and contextualised use of software resources by suppressing original commentaries and replacing them with her own, in an effort to effectively utilise the resource. What is also evident from the findings that there was active participation and the educator and learners were able to set up their own tempo of work. Software also facilitates the engagement of learners in problem-solving activities in an orderly manner (Stanisavljevic-Pertovic, Stankovic, & Jevtic, 2015). Such software as videos would have been edited for quality before being recommended for teaching and learning purposes. FA used educational videos to promote the acknowledged use of educational resources. The software resource also provided relief to FA from burn-out following extensive face-to-face teaching in the formal education sector in the mornings.

9.2.11 Enactment ideological-ware resources on FLE

The participant's responses were presented and discussed, below:

FA: There are some theories that I have discovered I can use with the adults. I use theories by Pavlov and Bruner. They are helpful in concretizing higher levels of content. These are old people [...] they need help since they have problems with reading material on their own. I have to think of ways to assist them. Soon, they will write an important examination

The findings showed that FA used theories that she had learned while undergoing training. FA would have become aware that IW tools help with the identification of HW; and SW tools promote effective teaching and learning (Makumane, 2018), from the perspective of committed enactment. However, FA was using theories that were usually applied when teaching children for enacting teaching and learning to adults

9.2.12 Interpretation of enactment resources on FLE

Findings revealed the use of a variety of hardware, software, and ideological-ware resources for teaching in FLE. Through a committed enactment, FA must have been aware that resources enhance education change by communicating learning (Amory, 2010). The hardware resources tend to influence educators in the choice of approaches such as group methods when there is a shortage of equipment such as computers and sewing machines (Mabuza, 2018). FA experienced

an acute shortage of industrial sewing machines and instructed learners as a class or in groups, instead of conducting individualised coaching which is learner-centred. This means that the educator has to be aware of the influence of instructional time allocated to teaching and learning. There was a committed enactment use that influenced the nature of instruction and the content that matched the use of the machines. Ngubane-Mokiwa and Khoza (2016) advocate the increased use of technology (machinery) in order for educators to improve the quality of learning outcomes. The other forms of hardware that FA used to support teaching were the record books, personal notes, and the Whiteboard, among others.

Software resources are expensive to buy and to use especially in developing countries (Budden, 2016). FA used a school computer to access content. Using committed enactment that was driven by her personal identity, that of a 'digital native', meaning a technologically savvy person, videos were selected for use in teaching the learners. Findings showed that the acknowledged enactment influenced the choice of e-learning materials that were aligned with the syllabus content. Software resources supplemented the face-to-face methods and brought relief to the educator who had a teaching day that lasted nine hours while serving the formal and non-formal education sectors. Mention must also be made of the innovative videos usage in order to adapt to learners' learning styles.

With regard to IW resources, the findings showed that the participant had a personal identity that was characterised by the use of theories of learning. Theories of teaching help with simplifying concepts, while ideology drives the teaching process as the hub that makes the decisions on the choice of resources to use (Makumane, 2008). The religious values that the participant used to influence and create a tranquil learning environment were some of the ideological-ware resources that educators can use to enhance teaching and learning. Educators, who are aware of the resources that are available, can use them to guide teaching and learning, driven by the three forms of enactment (acknowledged, communal, and committed).

9.2.13 Enactment intended content on ZABEC

The participants had this to say, starting with those on ZABEC:

ZA: The MoPSE helped the school to enroll learners. One of the main issues that led to the ZABEC was to reduce illiteracy in the community. We were to teach the learners separately using the same syllabus which contains the content to use. I use the syllabus to come up with my teaching plan. The Level Three learners sit for the same Grade seven examinations as the rest of the country. However, I am already familiar with the syllabus but it is not so smooth to use [...], in terms of the content since it is broad. I need it to cover two grades in one year.

ZB: I draw up my lesson plans based on the existing curriculum document from our ministry. The topics are familiar to me but they are too many already. I am expected to cover the work that normally takes three years in formal education and do it in one year. Nobody tells me what to include and what to exclude since the ZABEC learners have a much shorter day, week, month and year. In their programme, three grades have been combined to take only one year.

ZC: The content is adequate. The formal education syllabus is the one I use. We were instructed by ministry to use the same syllabus since some of the children would end up in the mainstream section. [...]. I follow their performance using a record book. Then a meeting is held in the section. The family or guardian has to be told. But the work to be covered is more than what can be covered in a year [...] I have a problem of books and these learners cannot purchase their own books. This means that I cannot give them much homework and in the end I write exercises on cards for them to take home. They need help.

The ZABEC participants relied on the MoPSE syllabus that is in use in the mainstream formal education system. They explained the rationale, with ZA saying that she volunteered to teach since she was already familiar and experienced with using the syllabus. This showed that the committed enactment played a part in influencing the participants to teach NFE. The syllabus remained a useful guide for teaching and it was used to draft lesson plans. There was agreement that the topics were far too many to be covered in the time that was allocated by the ministry. Participant ZC therefore, made cards and copied text-book exercises for the learners to use when doing homework.

The remark that the children needed help signaled the impact of the communal enactment, in which there is solidarity among the members. Participant ZB also pointed out that prioritising the topics was a personal decision. Participants made important decisions on enactment based on their acknowledged enactment. The training background was helpful, as was the knowledge of community needs and personal identity. Participants criticised the amount of content to be covered

in what they termed limited time. Khoza (2016) argues that educators must create environments that help them to develop the learners' identities. Likewise, the participants enacted teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes in their own particular ways, influencing teaching and learning. Next, their experiences relating to the enacted/implemented content were given.

9.2.14 Enacted content on ZABEC

This is what the ZABEC participants said:

ZA: May I say that I teach learners who at one time are school learners and at another time they are 'entrepreneurs' who sell on the streets. The community calls them street children/children. While I am covering the syllabus, I have tried to make it a real life-skills syllabus, for example, we set up a mini-market for buying and selling. I have put emphasis on practical skills for using mathematics in everyday living. We demonstrate what we can do at home with mathematics and what we can do when out in the streets selling things. Remember I have said some of them come to thank me. The work in the curriculum cannot be completed in one year. I select topics, for example on numbers where we multiply, divide, add and subtract [...] I just know what they need to learn.

ZB: These are former street children who are still young. They are not used to school and so I select topics that can keep them alert. They are playful too if they are not occupied. The content that I use is from the ministry's curriculum but for Shona lessons, I have selected topics in which they are active. Some of the content that I cover mainly is on culture. This is a wide topic and covers, words, reading, spelling, identifying 'things' that were used in the past. I use songs and dance, storytelling and story writing. So, I even introduce new words that they use at home. What I mean is that I do not always use the activities that are in the syllabus.

ZC: The plans that I use are from the curriculum. I try to do as stated in the curriculum. It is what the ministry wants. I try to follow the ministry's content because this is a good syllabus. For example, in teaching English, I cover the alphabet, pronunciation, grammar, spelling, reading, writing and naming of objects that are commonly found at school and at home. I either use real objects or charts with pictures that I have made. I do not need anything more because it has too much already. I end up choosing some topics and dropping others [...] time is short.

Participants enacting ZABEC were versed in the intended content since they were already using it in the mainstream section. Participants were linked to the official content in adopting the official curriculum as a useful guide. Educators were familiar with the process of designing the lesson plans. This is a skill that comes from committed and acknowledged enactment in terms of knowing the facts to write. ZA included content on practical aspects of applying mathematics in everyday living – mock buying and selling, which involved financial transactions – while ZB adapted the content to contexts of the family. ZC tried to use the intended content like a ‘Bible’. She justified her actions owing to the scope of the syllabus which she said was adequate for the level of learners.

The acknowledged enactment narrative points to a trust in the experts who designed the curriculum. Hobart and Frankel (2001) assert that a person informed by acknowledged enactment, has ample facts or knowledge on which to base his or her enactment practice. However, ZC, like the other participants on ZABEC could not do so owing to challenges of time. She ran out of time for enacting the entire content, ultimately choosing some topics over others. Likewise, ZB introduced more high-energy activities in order to actively engage the learners and to motivate them. Furthermore, ZA and ZB had found opportunities for learning using a variety of activities that put mathematical skills into everyday use. Document analysis revealed that, while one participant stated that they used the same syllabus as the formal school, the copy did not have a cover title. However, the teacher assured the researcher that it was the official copy. The other two used a different syllabus with the following narration: Primary School Accelerated Learning Programme (2013). This means that there is no consistency in the hierarchical development of the cognitive domain which ZABEC was promoting, when two different curricula are enacted in the same programme. Such will not ground their learners on the same cognitive knowledge (Shoba, 2018).

9.2.15 Enactment attained content on ZABEC

The participants’ responses are highlighted, as follows:

ZA: We usually write exercises on a daily basis which helps in checking on the progress of the learners. What they produce indicates what we have managed to do in the lesson. I also give homework here and there but I do not trust homework. Someone can do the homework for the

learner and that will deceive me. But let me use the incident where learners have thanked me for what they could now do, especially the street entrepreneurs who were now realizing a profit. They surely have achieved something from ZABEC.

ZB: It is unlikely that third level learners can be sure of what they want and be able to say it out. But I know that some of them are doing well in some of the fortnightly tests. At their age and the amount of time that is available for teaching ZABEC learners, we would have covered some topics on which to set the tests. Let me not forget about the learners who end being promoted to mainstream grades. That is an achievement for the learners and the educators [...], these are high performers who prove that they need bigger challenges than are being found in our composite classes.

ZC: The class is very playful. They can stand up and walk to the next table and beat up another learner. The achievements are there in the form of improvements in the tests that I sometimes give them. The end of term tests also show some improvements here and there [...] but I expect better results if they paid attention.

The findings on the attained content were quite varied. Participants enacted the content differently with different outcomes. All the participants pointed to some achievements in learners based on the enacted content from the official syllabus. The data showed that ZC's learners, despite having some behaviour issues, were mostly doing well, based on test results. What is also clear for ZA and ZB was the development of the cognitive domain which became visible in the use of acknowledged enactment for innovative practical application of the intended content. Participants had a way of establishing the learning, or assessing the enacted content, in order to account for their teaching. Tests were used by all the participants who showed a belief in written tests. This illustrated a committed enactment use.

9.2.16 Interpretation of enactment content on ZABEC

The findings that are interpreted relate to three categories of the content that participants enacting ZABEC were to use, namely, the intended, enacted, and attained curriculum. The discussion responds to what educators are enacting. Teachers were enacting subject content guided by the curriculum. The interpretations of the findings that highlight the three categories are discussed,

starting with the intended content. The discussion of content is premised on its influence in teaching (Taylor, 2014).

The findings that were generated from participants enacting ZABEC revealed that participants were aware of the syllabus as the source of the intended curriculum that was meant for use in enacting the ZABEC. The participants attested to the syllabus as providing the guidance on what to do, such as writing lesson plans. Educators are expected to present content or subject knowledge in such a way that the learners understand it, while achieving learning outcomes (Harmer, 2008). Educators, therefore, needed to decide on those teaching experiences that helped the learners achieve their learning outcomes. Khoza (2015) highlights that content frames a teaching plan. The content was important to the participants as a basis from which to draw up their teaching plans. Document analysis produced circumstantial evidence on what the teaching plans covered. Goals, content and activities, media, methods and assessment were listed. The use of the curriculum meant that the participants conformed to the requirements of an acknowledged enactment. This was visible in the content that was included in the personal lesson plans that were used during teaching.

The use of the intended content came with some conditions. When using the intended content, educators were expected to engage the learners in learning experiences that result in the learners attaining their learning outcomes, based on the planned activities, content, and other aspects that are contained in the curriculum (Harmer, 2008). The above statement assumes that conditions for enacting the intended curriculum were to be favourable and similar. However, this was not the case for ZABEC participants who faced several challenges such as a shortage of instructional time, inadequate resources for teaching and learning, and low incentives. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) state that there are factors that can lead to adjustments to the intended content. In such cases, ZA and ZB were influenced by the committed enactment to improve the content to suit learner needs. To explain this change to content, Khoza (2015) indicates that educators' reflections are useful for assessing the progress of learners and for the teaching process that the educators use (Khoza, 2015). Since curriculum content is at the core of all teaching and learning, processes for enacting teaching and learning, will be affected (Harley & Wedekind, 2004). Similarly, the enacted content affected the choice of activities and resources when participants enacted teaching and learning.

9.2.17 Enactment intended content on PTCE

The participants responded as follows:

PA: The source of the content is the national syllabus that was developed by the MoPSE. I found it there since it is the same one that is enacted in the secondary schools in this country. As such I am familiar with it since I am an experienced high schoolteacher. I use this syllabus to design my personal copy which is a much shorter version.[...].The summarised version covers what the learners can cover in the time that has been allocated to do PTCE. I teach twice a week for forty-five minutes per session. The MoPSE stipulates that two lessons for any of the A level subjects, lasting for about forty-five minutes each should be conducted weekly. This is inadequate for the syllabus that we received and which is supposed to be the source of national examinations. I end up doing extra lessons in order to prepare the learners for the examinations especially towards examination time.

PB: The content that I use is from the National syllabus. It is the same syllabus that is used in formal education high schools and secondary schools in this country [...] I have quite some experience of teaching in the NFE system, having started teaching part-time learners well before the introduction of the NFEP. I consider the content that we select to be adequate for one to pass examinations. I select some topics since we have less time than formal school learners. Our learners are aware that this is a part-time programme and so they need the syllabus to guide them too.

PC: I am aware that the source of content for the intended curriculum is the syllabus by the ministry. It is a wide syllabus and the topics are specified for me to select and use based on past examination papers. I select the topics which I can cover against the time that is available before the learners write the examinations. But we have problems with our venue. The lighting is not there since load shedding began in this town and yet we teach at night. The examinations are in June and October of every year [...]. I select main areas that form the core of the syllabus.

All participants enacting the PTCE programme attested to the use of a national syllabus. The syllabus provided them with the general guidelines of the entire content that framed teaching PTCE subjects. These were the visions of the MoPSE. All participants agreed that the content was suitable. The intended content provided the participants with the chance to use their acknowledged and committed enactments to analyse what was teachable and how, within the available time. All participants confessed that they did not follow the structure in the syllabus and had developed their

own syllabi, from which each one of them developed personal plans that suited the participants and the learners' needs. The committed and acknowledged enactments influenced participants to select topics from the intended content. In terms of scope, there was a united voice that the content was too extensive to cover in the time that was available. PA pointed to a mismatch between the numbers of topics that could be covered and the teaching time of three hours a week.

9.2.18 Enacted content on PTCE

This is what participants said:

PA: The way I implement the syllabus content is my own way. I use my education, training and experience to select what I know is relevant. The learners want to pass examinations and so I use past examination papers more than books. I sometimes refer them to books as part of the home work but there is a shortage. We can hardly read books in class because of inadequate lighting.

PB: Learners have copies of the syllabus. We have the challenge of limited time but we try and cope. At times I give the learners homework so that they can research and make presentations. Some of them use their mobile phones to connect to the Internet. But we do not lose focus about passing examinations by practising using past examination papers.

PC: Mathematics is about calculations. It is a practical subject and with more practice one can master the principles. The content that I use is mostly from my personal experience and from past examination papers. Ideally there should be more individual work than lecturing. We now use group work in order to manage the time which is far too short. Groups pull the slow learners with them and they can continue the work in their own work groups [...]. I communicate on WhatsApp to check how they are doing.

The findings revealed that all the participants on the PTCE programme were delivering the enacted content in a way that focused on assisting the learners to pass examinations. All the participants were influenced by the acknowledged enactment to develop a curriculum-in-practice. They also used the communal enactment that responded to the needs of the learners. PC revealed that the enacted content was based on selected topics. PB concurred that the intended curriculum was unachievable when using face-to-face instruction, owing to limitations of time. Similarly, PA

admitted that the past examinations provided him the content areas for most of the sessions. This showed that the structure that was recommended in the intended curriculum was not being followed, in order to accommodate an enacted content that would lead to desired learning outcomes, namely, the passing of examinations. Khoza (2015) acknowledges that educators become aware of their teaching profession, understanding the reasons for enacting curriculum while ensuring compliance exists with content that was learned during professional training in the discipline. Likewise, all the participants were enacting the PTCE programme in pursuit of good examination results. The participants were driven primarily by the acknowledged enactment (discipline knowledge) and the committed enactment (experience) to select content and then teach it in particular ways that reflected their identities. Samuel (2008) posits that educators are unique in that they possess different experiences that inform them differently from other educators. The participants on PTCE had different interpretations of the content; and they had used their personal identities to develop their unique, compressed syllabi.

Document analysis is a method of generating data that produce evidence of patterns of development of the phenomenon (Dahberg & McCaig, 2010). Patterns contained important data for the study (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Following data that referred to an enacted content that had been reduced into a compressed syllabus, the researcher sought the primary evidence for use in this study. Several phone calls were made, including face-to-face interactions with the participants, in search of the primary evidence. The participants were very evasive on the matter. After a month, of asking, PA replied via WhatsApp: [...], *I don't have documents for my non-formal education classes that I teach. The reason is that non-formal education is part time work. It's not compulsory [...] I do it out of my own will to help the community. So some of the strenuous work of writing paper work for NFE I don't do that. I teach them using my experience and they pass [...] my conclusion is that an experienced teacher can teach without a scheme [...], scheming is a supervision tool not a teaching tool.*

The researcher decided not to pursue the issue any further but have generalised the findings to the other PTCE participants in the study, since they did not shed light on the matter as individuals.

9.2.19 Enactment attained content on PTCE

The participants said:

PA: *The teaching conditions make it difficult to check progress using written tests. Instead, we use discussion groups during which I go round checking and correcting the learners to ensure that the attained curriculum contains correct facts. When enacting a curriculum that is focused on examinations, you want to see the confidence in the learners that they are well prepared for examinations.*

PB: *The content for teaching is in the syllabus document. We cover the content in class and do group revision and later I give them tests every two weeks. There is insufficient time to do tests more frequently. Tests take time to write and to mark. The results indicate the level achieved by each learner. The attained curriculum is one that the learners consider as having prepared them adequately. During the lessons the attained curriculum is assessed by learners to verify the content on the Internet.*

PC: *We wish that we had more time and electricity for lighting the room in order to do more tests and revision since we learn after sun set. In the meantime we do some revision tests and assignments in order to check on progress. The learners get excited when they start to earn high marks in these past examination papers. Unfortunately some adults abscond when they know there is a written test. Others decide not to write at all. It becomes a challenge of assessing the enacted curriculum.*

Participants enacting the PTCE were aware of strategies to use for assessing the enacted content. This would lead to insights into the attained content. Since teaching and learning was driven by a performance curriculum that culminated in national examinations, all the participants used the acknowledged enactment to test the learners on the existing knowledge of the discipline as a way of establishing the extent to which the attained content had been achieved. The committed form of enactment helped the participants in selecting topics from the past examination papers that were likely to feature again in the next national examinations.

9.2.20 Interpretation of enactment content on PTCE

Pinar (2004) states that curriculum is content and vice versa. Content is meant to remove doubt about what should be taught in schools. The same question can be framed to ask about what content

should be taught in PTCE programmes in the school model. The findings from participants enacting the PTCE programme are presented and interpreted in order to understand how the content informed teaching. The rationale for the use of the intended content is that the intended content is a plan (van den Akker et al., 2009). The findings on the intended curriculum showed that all participants were aware that the plan existed. PA explained that the curriculum was available to guide teaching and learning. The curriculum was considered a reliable source of the content found in the syllabus and personal teaching plans, because a curriculum is an official document that the participants needed for enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP and PTCE programmes. The intended content is framed by officially recognised content; and an acknowledged enactment drives teaching and learning. The recognition of the official document did not mean its adoption was inclusive. Participants declined to adhere to it in full, based on identified challenges. There was dissatisfaction with the available time, which did not allow for the amount of work to be fully addressed. The intended curriculum had to be adjusted paving, the way for an enacted curriculum that was a real.

In translating the intended syllabus to an enacted content, all participants had to engage in some construction work. They had to summon their previous knowledge and experience to determine what to delete from the intended curriculum, and what to adopt in the enacted curriculum. This was important for the participants to do, while maintaining the integrity of the profession and its pedagogical knowledge (Angell, Ryder & Scott, 2005). The participants were expected to be aware of their teaching profession, understanding the reasons for enacting a curriculum that ensured compliance with content that the participants learned during professional training in the discipline (Khoza, 2015). Participants were delivering a performance-focused curriculum which meant that the learners were to be assessed on the intended curriculum. This indicated that the participants had to meet the outcomes of the learners in terms of achievement. Findings showed that the participants required the use of the committed enactment to make decisions on an enacted curriculum that would deliver success to the learners. PA revealed that, based on experience and careful analysis of examination trends, he was influenced to teach the key topics only. Similarly, all the participants had adopted the use of past examinations in the enacted syllabus.

The attained curriculum is also called the experiential or learned curriculum. The attained curriculum represents the teaching that was drawn from the intended curriculum and enacted such

that the focus is on the extent to which the goals of teaching had been accomplished (Steele, 1970). Khoza (2015) describes this as the phase in which the learning experiences perceived by learners are measured through their achievement of learning outcomes. In terms of the measures that were meant to influence the achievement of learning outcomes, the findings were that all the participants had adopted similar strategies. These were the use of the committed and acknowledged enactments to drive the selection of key topics and to prepare learners for assessment, based on past examination papers. Documentary analyses did not clearly yield the evidence of enacted content which the educators claimed had influenced them on how to enact teaching and learning, suggesting that the educators used the ‘hidden’ curriculum. This was an unwritten curriculum/syllabus which educators used intuitively as the lesson progressed (Hoadley & Jansen, 2014). The findings also revealed that the choice of the strategies for teaching was influenced by the limited time in which to prepare the learners for national assessment. Evidence also pointed to the overuse of tests, hindering the teaching of new content (Shoba, 2018). This situation arises when teaching is influenced by the desire to teach so that the learners achieved good passes in examinations, instead of applying teaching that promoted knowledge construction.

9.2.21 Enactment intended content on FLE

The participant enacting teaching and learning on the FLE programme had this to say:

FA: This is now a structured education programme which has national examinations. The main source of the content comes from HEXCO. The content is well laid out that it becomes easy to follow, if there is time, since the topics are clearly stated. The main challenge is getting the books and other relevant material that contains the information that I need. I have access to the Internet but nowadays the connection is difficult since the country has a shortage of electricity. This content is adequate for the national foundation certificate level

The data showed that FA relies on the curriculum in use as the source for content which she then uses to develop lesson plans. FA engaged learners in a structured education programme that was based on set topics from policymakers of the HEXCO syllabus. Drawing on her committed enactment, FA became aware of the consequences of not adhering to a designed content from which examinations will be set. The intended content was a guide to the enacted content.. Educators were expected to read and compile teaching notes based on intended content with which

to assist the learners in the acquisition of the content needed to advance in life (Makumane, 2018). The participant was driven by the committed form of enactment in using the Internet in order to overcome the shortage of relevant textbooks at the school, since FA was enacting a performance-related intended curriculum.

9.2.22 Enacted content on FLE

This is what the participant said:

FA: When following a curriculum that leads to examinations, it is advisable to keep to it. Furthermore I use my textbooks and personal notes that I accumulated when I was on attachment while at college. I was attached to big institutions with experienced tutors who exposed me to a lot of content. The learners need simplified information, mostly in the mother tongue (Shona). This is the language that I speak, too. They need a lot of face to-face instruction since they cannot easily read on their own. As a trained teacher who is teaching a similar course at secondary school level, I have charts and models already that I sometimes use with the adult learners who want to engage in projects in the village and also to pass examinations. But I see that time is short and I have developed my lesson plans, based on a compressed syllabus. We have ended up having a three day week instead of four. The community is composed of farmers and every Wednesday is spent on dipping the cattle. This has then reduced the hours per week to six instead of eight. To enact this curriculum needs more time which we have created by starting an hour early every day. The learners want to obtain the garment construction skills and to pass, so they have seen it fit to come even as early as 7 00 am when they can afford to do so.

The excerpts show FA enacting the intended curriculum. Both the committed and the acknowledged forms of enactment have resulted in the use of a compressed syllabus that was derived from the intended content. The participant is preparing the learners for national examinations, in which achievement of the aims and objectives of the intended content are a priority. Wraga (2017) posits that, when a participant is aware of the goals of a curriculum, he or she may develop meaningful experiences for the learners. FA used her acknowledged enactment to develop strategies and learning material for use in enacting the curriculum. FA: *I try to provide notes and handouts; however, the literacy level is low.* In addition, FA has been able to negotiate

the problems relating to time using the communal form of enactment which received the cooperation of the group.

The complexity of enacting a performance curriculum (acknowledged enactment) and a competence curriculum (communal enactment) concurrently has contributed to some of the challenges that the participant now faces. Khoza (2015) points out that the ideologies that drive such curricula may differ significantly. For example, assessment in a competence-focused curriculum (communal enactment) is mostly about what is present or what the learners have achieved, while a performance-focused curriculum, that is based on the HEXCO curriculum, focuses on what the students should have achieved, based on international standards (Khoza, 2018). The competence curriculum on sewing projects is enacted using common knowledge and flexible time, while the latter is enacted using facts about the discipline. Books are therefore, needed, including high levels of literacy, as well as computer skills for research purposes.

9.2.23 Enactment attained content on FLE

Participant responded as follows:

FA: Since I am using the HEXCO National Foundation Certificate in Garment Construction, the learners expect to obtain good results when they write the national examinations. They want to use the certificates as proof that they obtained the skills in garment construction. Some of them want to seek employment; others want to start their own projects, not only in the village but also in towns. This is not so easy when you are teaching semi-literate adults new knowledge and skills. I tend to use the lecture method and demonstrations and practical work. I think if most of them could read they would perform faster than relying on me very much for content. The enacted curriculum is seen mostly in the practical work that the learners do and they have sewn a number of items already. These include clothing items for home use and some uniforms. Balancing the teaching of projects with theory for passing examinations is a challenge.

The data revealed that FA was enacting an FLE programme with two goals. On one hand, is the FLE goal that seeks to equip learners with practical skills that are required for a day-to-day living that promotes self-sustenance (MoPSE Secretary's Circular Minute Number 13 of 2016). On the other hand, the HEXCO syllabus goal is to equip the learners with knowledge skills and attitudes that are needed for operatives in the garment-construction industry (HEXCO, 2015). Practically,

the adults' FLE learning outcomes were functional education skills for use in raising school fees for children by engaging in projects. This aspect of the programme was driven by communal enactment. Van den Akker (2009) posits that communal enactment is based on issues and problems that affect the community. Regarding the HEXCO syllabus, the outcomes were knowledge, skills, and attitudes about garment construction. The FLE programme became registered with HEXCO so that the learners would receive certificates as recognition for the completion of formal studies. Therefore, the learners have both vertical- and horizontal-use knowledge from a dual study programme on garment construction. The attained curriculum will have facilitated what is sometimes referred to as a 'double degree' in university education. Some literature speaks to a functional literacy education programme curriculum having attained such outcomes.

9.2.24 Interpretation of enactment content on FLE

The findings from the data that were generated from FA on the intended curriculum showed that there was a curriculum for use in guiding the FLE programme teaching and learning. FA indicated that the official syllabus that had been drawn from the national curriculum on the national foundation certificate in garment construction was a useful guide for developing her lesson plan and lesson notes. However, she observed that the main document had too many topics to be covered, and yet this was not a full-time programme. This indicated a conflict, considering that, according to Sodje (2018), educators are obliged by the ministry to enact the programme in accordance with what is set out in the intended curriculum. In this case, FA had ensured that the intended curriculum remained a plan for action (Khoza, 2015), while she used a shorter, customised version. The committed enactment had influenced the decision to provide a practical solution to the matter. Findings showed that the context in which FA was expected to enact the intended curriculum was framed by challenges relating to shortage of books. Time was limited, the programme allocating only six hours a week; and power supplies crippled the use of the industrial machines. The machines were crucial resources; without them, progress was slow. These findings pointed to an enacted curriculum that was likely to be different from the intended curriculum.

With regard to the enacted syllabus, the findings showed that a new plan of action had been put in place. This was because the intended curriculum was not entirely suited to the context of an FLE

education programme for rural adults. The reasons for the amendments ranged from the wide scope that needed to be covered in the intended curriculum, the limited instructional time, and the unfavourable operating conditions that were induced by the shortage of electricity in the country and at the school. FA was aware of the requirements of the curriculum, and of the factors that existed. She had to use the committed, communal, and acknowledged enactments in order to devise a suitable plan. Wraga (2017) comments that educators, who are aware of their forms of enactment, are able to develop meaningful experiences for the learners. The enacted curriculum was in the form of lesson plans that selected priority areas. FA was also aware that a vertical curriculum would result in examinations. Due attention was given to enriching the learners' learning experiences by sourcing content from the Internet. Findings also showed that time had been increased by an hour every day. The enacted curriculum had been compressed into a working document to accommodate the contextual factors, while eliminating the obstructions that would have derailed the programme.

Khoza (2016) pronounces that the attained curriculum represents the sum total of the learning experiences perceived by learners. Experiences are judged by measures of the achievement of learning outcomes. Findings were that the crucial results were due at the completion of the learning programme. Learning outcomes were to be the certificates of achievement for successful learners, issued by the examining board HEXCO. Learners were expected to be assessed on what they were supposed to have achieved, and not on what they would have learned (Khoza, 2016). In following a vertical curriculum, FA used the acknowledged enactment to ensure that the content of the discipline was covered as demanded by the intended curriculum. The assessment would have measured the extent to which the educational objectives have been attained, including the learning outcomes for the learners.

9.2.25 Physical access to enactment on ZABEC

The participants made the following comments.

ZA: I don't think physical access to ZABEC is a problem. This is a programme for the community. Anyone can join the programme if they prove that they qualify as non-formal education learners. Currently we have former street children. They have access to everything that is provided for

mainstream children, furniture, classrooms, toilets, water. The classroom can accommodate 32 learners. At the present moment there are 18 learners [...]. Most learners walk to the school while a few are driven by their parents. However, attendance can fluctuate if there are functions in the stadium near by. One day I heard about one of my learners who had been hired to play football while others were attending lessons. The story is that he was passing by the stadium and he was hired to join one of the football teams whose regular players had failed to turn up for the match. He had been diverted from attending school by the love of money.

ZB: Let me go back to the time that ZABEC was launched at our school. At that time some older women came, with some as old as forty (40) years but now they no longer came. I was keen to understand why they had stopped coming to learn.

ZA: They have since stopped and are back on the streets, back to vending in order to earn a living. Most of the learners walk to school since it is within reach except for a girl who comes from about five kilometres away. We have to make sure that she departs at 3 00 pm as soon as we finish school. The classroom is big. We ensure that it is clean.

ZC: The school has good facilities such as clean piped water. The classroom is big. It can accommodate thirty and at the moment I have eighteen learners. I think the impact of a good learning environment

In terms of physical access, the school is within the community, and everyone is welcome to enrol in ZABEC. This is in line with a communal enactment in which all members can participate in learning activities that aim to solve community problems. ZB indicated that women as old as forty years had, at some time, enrolled in ZABEC. In addition, ZB indicated the school's safety concerns for a learner who walked the longest distance from the school, ensuring that she went home while there was adequate daylight. ZA claimed that the physical access to the school resources, such as furniture, had a positive effect on attendance, pointing out an acknowledged form of enactment in which school administrators are concerned about the provision of furniture for NFEP programmes.

9.2.26 Financial access to enactment on ZABEC

The participants commented as follows:

ZA: The learners do not pay fees, they pay a levy of Z\$15 (R25). A few are failing to raise the amount. The system does not chase away learners who cannot pay and waits for them to pay one day. This impacts the allowances of the educators that are coming from the levies. Our allowances range between Z\$ 70 to Z\$100 per term (R116- R166). We are having air pies for lunch.

ZB: There is the cost of the uniform and that of levies. The levy per term looks affordable at ZW per term. The learners attend even when they have not paid levies. I sought the reasons and ZA said: This is a directive of the ministry which seeks to reduce levels of illiteracy while that the poor may not be excluded due to a lack of money. Some years back, some humanitarian organisations supported the programme financially. Learners' levies were paid on time and educators were paid on time too, handsomely too. We were happy to do the work. The school also received reading books and exercise books. Learners were able to do much written work than at present.

ZC: The rooms have the standard furniture benches which were purchased a while ago and might need replacing soon. At the moment about 50% of the learners cannot afford to pay the levy. This is our source of allowances which are supposed to motivate us to work.

The data showed a ZABEC that is not well supported financially, funding having to facilitate teaching and learning. The communal enactment of ZABEC needs more financing by the community. ZB remembered a time when the project received donor funding, and had an adequate supply of books, while learners' levies were paid timeously. This reveals the need for more financial resources from the community and government. There is a link between financial access and teaching and learning. The educators' committed enactment productivity is negatively affected when they do not receive their incentives. The educator cannot meet educational outcomes without adequate teaching and learning materials. ZB and ZC noted that fifty per cent of the learners did not have access to funding. However, the communal enactment which is characterised by sympathy and affection has allowed the learners to be accommodated. Lerotoli (2001) suggests a pragmatic approach to the issue of supporting the communal enactment of ZABEC, which is a project for the needy, by appealing to the donor community to assist. The assistance could be in cash and in kind.

9.2.27 Cultural access to enactment on ZABEC

The following excerpts are from the participants on ZABEC.

ZA: I cannot think of any effect of culture [...] but maybe let me mention the practice among the educators of helping one another. We share the use of materials for teaching, such as models and charts. This serves us money during these times of hardships.

ZB: After several attempts to induce a response from ZB: Our learners are part of school sports teams and cultural activities. We want them to mix and to integrate with mainstream learners.

ZC: I cannot think of anything about this topic.

Although Vhiriri (2017) posits that schools should be steeped in the culture of the communities in which schools exist, in order that community needs are effectively addressed (Khoza, (2016), the findings revealed very little on the culture of the community in the school. However, one is inclined to suspect the effect of the colonisation process in which the indigenous culture was linked to uncivilised practices, such as the worship of idols. ZA struggled to talk about cultural access and ZC professed ignorance on the matter.

9.2.28 Interpretation of access to enactment on ZABEC

Theme Four on access to NFEP programmes is framed by three categories, namely, physical, financial and cultural access. Physical access focuses on how learners can possibly gain access to education where they are allowed to attend classes, for example, if the school is within their reach. Financial access addresses the paying of fees; while cultural access attends to social accessibility issues (Berkvens et al., 2014). Education providers must engage these issues in view of their influence on teaching and learning. The structure of the discussion will commence with interpreting the findings relating to physical access to ZABEC.

Physical access to ZABEC refers to arriving at the school premises located in the community in which the majority of the learners reside. The findings indicated a communal enactment in which the community and the school had formed a relationship in order to solve a problem. This union promoted a common place for learning, and simultaneously, a safe environment for participants and learners. According to ZB, everyone was welcome to enrol in the school. Findings also indicated a clean environment in which there were large classrooms from which the learners gain access to learning from the participants. The state of the school was important, because educators

produce the best of their teaching when they operate in effective learning environments (Shoba, 2018). The committed enactment favours good physical environments. Mabuza (2018) adds that such environments can be associated with warmth and the delivery of interesting content by innovative educators. In addition, an inspection of the facilities showed that the physically challenged were also catered for by way of ramps. The country's constitution promotes the rights of all to education, inclusive of physical access.

As stated in the opening remarks, financial access focuses on the cost of accessing education. The findings pointed to a lack of both common and crucial resources. ZA reminisced about ZABEC having been founded on a sound financial support base that was provided by the government and the donor community. Owing to economic meltdown, the financial burden had since been placed in the hands of the community, through the payment of levies, implying that communities could afford such. The findings showed that a community could not afford such, having to pay levies at ZS15 (R 25) per term per learner at the time when the data were generated. Quality education could not be accessed because of lack of finance. The findings also showed that learners were expected to wear school uniform. This is a prohibitive cost factor to some learners. Many cannot meet such costs, but may not mention this factor, simply dropping out owing to pride. School administrators may never be aware of the effects of such additional costs.

While the debate on financial access is usually one-sided in favour of looking at costs to the learner, Sakuraman (2014) suggests that the cost to educators must also be considered. Participants raised a concern about their level of incentives. Some participants passed comments that denigrated the level of incentives by referring to the monetary allowances as worthless –ZA: *it cannot be used to buy an imaginary pie (an air pie)*. This means that such participants may not use the best of their committed form of enactment to drive learning that effectively attains learners' learning outcomes. Mhishi et al. (2015) and Mukeredzi (2009) have also raised concerns about the welfare of educators in most rural schools; with the message that schools risk losing their good educators to other paymasters, including to the diaspora.

The discussion on cultural access did not go down well with ZABEC participants: they were not comfortable to be involved in such a discourse, based on their body language and the terse responses given. There was a silent denial that the school should be involved with promoting cultural values. Their attitude fell just short of telling the researcher that the discourse was out of

place. The findings from the data were to reveal that culture (although it refers to social accessibility such as engagement in games and other interactive activities such as inter-class debates and drama performances), excluded the NFE learners, maybe because they belonged to the ‘other school’ of former delinquents.

9.2.29 Physical access to enactment on PTCE

The participants had pertinent comments to offer.

PA: The venue that we use is centrally located in a densely populated high density suburb. It is convenient and is within walking distance for the majority of the learners. We use a classroom at one of the primary schools. The school is next to a busy road thereby providing convenient access for commuting learners. The room is big and we cannot fill it up since we reach a maximum of 22 learners at peak periods when we approach examinations. We use the facility at night and we are inconvenienced by the frequent electricity shortage that has resulted in the suburb having to go without lights every day, from 0500 hours to 2300 hours. We have resorted to the use of the lights on our mobile phones for teaching and learning. We run short of time and illustrations need more time in which to explain them since visibility is poor.

PB: The school which is used for day time teaching of O Level PTCE learners is open to community members who are repeating failed subjects. It is the same high school where I teach mainstream O level learners. We have been allocated a gazebo (a building with thatched roof). It is a modern structure with adequate ventilation. Here the school head has allowed the learners to have access to Wi-Fi facilities in addition to the school’s other facilities such as toilets and clean water.

PC: My classroom is at a primary school that is centrally located in a suburb. It is the same venue that is used by other educator from my school who conduct PTCE at night [...] with ordinary furniture for primary school learners. Lights are the biggest challenge since the shortage affects our performance in that we do less written work. The use of other teaching materials has also been restricted owing to poor visibility. This has added problems to our working week of four hours only since we fail to achieve our targets [.....] we increased homework and exercises via WhatsApp.

The participants were generally dissatisfied with the effect of the classroom that they used, which hampered their ability to teach. The use of acknowledged enactment in driving programmes requires that learners access facilities early and at the same time so that information/facts are accessed at the same time, the central location and road networks promoting physical access. PA adjudged that the school premises were conveniently located, with which PC concurred. When enacting a performance-curriculum, time is of the essence. Educators need to allocate realistic amounts of time in order to produce effective teaching and learning for learners (Dessem, 1999). The conditions in the school must facilitate the achievement of outcomes of the acknowledged enactment of PTCE programmes; however, there is a shortage of lighting and time is short. Hence, all the participants have resorted to giving learners a great deal of homework.

9.2.30 Financial access to enactment on PTCE

The participants commented as follows:

PA: The fees are charged at a maximum of Z\$40 (66 Rands) for a maximum of three A level subjects and Z\$35 (61 Rands) for a maximum of six O level subjects per term. This has seen us having reasonably sized classes that average twenty (20) learners). The major cost of PTCE is the cost of school textbooks since the learners cannot access the school library.

PB: In fact I have a larger group as compared to the previous intake. The programme is almost free to anyone who can raise the amount.

PC: Participants and learners now incur large phone bills since we use phones for lighting owing to lack of electricity. The limited face-to-face time has led to increased use of WhatsApp too. The payment of the educator is a big problem now [...] Term allowances of an average of Z\$ 113 (160 Rands) are not enough even for fuel costs alone. As a result I sometimes compress my two lessons per week into a double session.

It is evident that the level at which the fees are pegged is facilitating more access, financially, especially among working learners who can easily afford the fees. This is contrary to situations where the lack of fees has been the main obstacle to accessing education in developing countries. Financial access, driven by the community in a communal enactment, is facilitating increased

access to PTCE, which can be accessed by a majority of people. However, success in examinations will also depend on the use of textbooks. Such books in acknowledged enactment, are an absolute necessity, so that one can access the discipline's factual information. Incentives for the participants also dominate the discourse because participants need more money, for instance, to offset fuel costs.

9.2.31 Cultural access to enactment on PTCE

The participants remarked:

PA: What only comes to my mind is the culture in the group that I teach. The group usually reports early and departs only after we have finished the lessons. They generally participate actively in class activities such as group work and presentations.

PB: The community is supportive of efforts to educate the learners so that they use this second chance to pass examinations. They pay the levies on time. In addition the community appreciated the feedback that the school gave them on the behaviour and performance of the learners. Most parents supported the school in matters relating to concerns on children lateness to attend school. When I asked for an explanation, PA said: This group is mainly composed of learners who were recently in school. The parents want the learners to draw on existing knowledge as a solid foundation for the second chance education. This was likely to increase their pass rates.

PC: There are signs of hard work and commitment from the group. They want to pass the national examination and most of them submit assignments on time as well to attend feedback sessions.

Participants appeared to be uncomfortable with discussing culture; consequently, the influence of culture in education was not forthcoming. The perceptions of the participants were limited on what happens in the classroom. Similarly, PA and PC identified hard work and commitment as cultural values when one's teaching is driven by an acknowledged enactment so the learners do well in their examinations. PB made reference to members who helped one another to solve common problems, which demonstrates a communal enactment. Khoza (2015) breaks down culture into a number of commonly known aspects such as sport, religion, and politics. The concept and its influence was not well understood by the participants.

9.2.32 Interpretation of cultural access to enactment on PTCE

The findings on physical access to PTCE learning facilities points to learning environments that were community based. Administrators were driven by a communal form of enactment that ensured that the community and NFE providers worked together, since they lived together. The communal enactment ensured that the evening school was located beside a major road that linked the town with the community, while the school was centrally located. This was an important decision because the exact location of a school can be an advantage to a section of the community while a disadvantage to another. The road served the learners who were coming home from working in the town. It was important for learners to arrive early because the PTCE programme is performance-oriented. Gaining the facts from the participant removes any distortions associated with copying other learners' notes. Furthermore, participants needed to ensure that there was ample time for each subject in order to achieve learning outcomes (van den Akker et al., 2010). (One way of ensuring that one has ample time is to manage disruptions during teaching and learning (Scheerens, 2013, Ed), such as from late-comers who may draw attention away from the lesson when they knock on the door.

The findings also revealed a concern of the participants on the lack of interior lighting in the classrooms. PC referred to it as the biggest challenge to enacting the PTCE programme. This was because there was no lighting in the classroom after dusk. For teaching and learning to happen, the participants and the learners who had mobile phones had to provide the limited light to work with. The researcher contributed to illuminating the room while conducting participants' observation visits by offering his two mobile phones. The lack of adequate facilities has a negative impact on goal attainment (Ndlovu, 2016), especially when participants are on a performance-driven curriculum. Effective learning may not take place, and yet the learners and participants are assessed with everyone else who is using the same curriculum. In a performance-based curriculum, participants are expected to operate like machines, ensuring that the content is covered during the specified time (Khoza, 2015). The pressure is on the participants and the learners to innovate solutions. Using a committed enactment, all the participants invented their own version of blended learning via WhatsApp. The participants and learners developed chat groups driven by a communal enactment. The same groups offered a solution to dark classrooms by generating lighting using mobile phones.

The PTCE programme was positively influenced by financial access because the fees were quite affordable to most adult learners who were located in towns. The PTCE drew most of its learners from the working class and informal sectors. The fees were at Z\$ 35 (ZAR58) at the time of data generation. The classes were averaging twenty-five learners, rather than the fifteen which the MoPSE considered the minimum number for a PTCE class. However, because an acknowledged enactment of the vertical curriculum requires the use of books, these were in short supply, with learners failing to purchase them, owing to escalating prices. Similarly, educators faced the difficulty of accessing the venue by car, owing to high costs of fuel which they could not pay using their meager allowances. Cultural accessibility was not well understood by the participants. The findings were that all the participants had challenges with responding to issues on the influence of culture in the PTCE community.

9.2.33 Physical access to enactment on FLE

The participant had pertinent comments to offer.

FA: The Functional Literacy Education in Garment Construction is open to members of the rural community that is served by the secondary school. This is case since the facility and the machinery were bought for use by the learners who are attending the secondary school. For the FLE group of 32, the room is rather small in size and plans are underway for another block of classrooms to be opened soon. There is a white board, which creates a modern classroom in the rural village since chalkboards are the general equipment for use in rural walk long distances with the furthest walking about ten kilometers to school and another ten kilometres to go home. We use a section of the room. The school is located in a quiet place, away from other activities such as shops. The grounds are well kept, toilets are clean and there is clean piped water, not forgetting the electricity for the industrial machines. Like most areas even in rural areas, we experience power cuts, too.

Access to the learning environment is restricted. This approach is aligned with communal enactment which recognised the segmented approach to learning. This is premised on sections of the larger community having to encounter unique problems and interests that require particular strategies. The particular community faced challenges with raising school fees for its children; and saw an opportunity in embarking on garment construction training. Although some learners have

to walk long distances, these are exceptional cases, since the school is centrally located to suit the majority of learners.

The participant and learners had access to a spacious room that had a Whiteboard in a rural setting, to provide motivation to the participant to express her committed enactment in accomplishing the learning targets. In addition, industrial machines, electricity, and piped water were available to the learners to use. The availability of the facility had a profound effect on participants, in that the school retained the services of FA while poorly resourced schools were losing their educators to better equipped schools (Mishi et al., 2015). Access to learning is important even at the basic level, where educators who use face-to face teaching should do so in adequate spaces (Mpungose, 2017).

9.2.34 Financial access to enactment on FLE

The participant said:

FA: The learners pay a fee of Z\$ 25 which is equivalent to 40 Rands per term. This is a reasonable amount when comparing with private institutions in the city who charged Z\$ 400 (600 Rands) a term. All the learners were up to date with their fees [...]. These are resettled farmers who grow and sell a variety of crops and livestock. They are self-sufficient in terms of food security. Let me also add that as many as 70 adults had expressed the will to join the education programme because it is affordable.

Financial access refers to the affordability of the education (Berkvens et al., 2014). When many community members can afford the fees, this promotes the communal enactment of an education programme that addresses a community's problems. The FLE programme was providing education to many people. The impact was that, when financial access is considered fair and equitable, many learners want to participate (Makumane, 2018). The current FLE programme fee structure supported the communal form of enactment in the NFEP mission statement for equitable access to NFE.

9.2.35 Cultural access to enactment on FLE

The participant commented:

FA: *We live in a Christian community. Christian values have shaped our education programme in a number of ways. We start and end with a prayer. The learners have respect for me, although I am younger than most of them. Their ages range between 19 and 56 years old. They respect the equipment too and look after it. I have also used Bible teachings to motivate them when I realise that they are struggling or that they are tired.*

The community in which FA worked was predominantly a Christian community. FA stated that Christian values of respect for people and property have pervaded the learning environment. Therefore, FA is driven by the communal form of enactment in using Christian values in teaching and learning in which the culture facilitates the social acceptability of education programmes (Berkvens et al., 2014). The Christian values were incorporated into the education programme when the participant used them to improve morale and to foster values that enhanced teaching and learning. The values led to hard work and respect for others, including respect for the participant and for the school's property.

9.2.36 Interpretation of access to enactment on FLE

The location of the FLE was a rural school. The findings showed that access to the FLE programme was restricted to community members whose children attend school there. In using a communal form of enactment, the school belonged to the community because they made contributions in cash, kind, and labour towards its construction. The environment is clean and well kept. There were green lawns, leafy vegetables, and flowers were blooming, owing to the availability of piped water. An attractive school environment is appreciated by learners and teachers, for the aesthetic value and influence on teaching and learning (Suk-Kweon, Ellis, Lee and Jacobs, 2017). Aesthetically pleasing environments promote high levels of concentration among the learners who appreciate beauty. When participants and learners are in a beautiful environment, they develop good work habits, leading to improved performance in achievement of learning outcomes. The classroom in use was large, well ventilated, and had quality curtains, because the learners had designed and tailored the curtains themselves. FA uses modern technology in the form of a Whiteboard. In addition, the classroom had state-of-the-art industrial sewing machines. Well-resourced classrooms create good learning environments that facilitate the active engagement of learners by participants, in a committed enactment of teaching and learning. There were learners

who walked ten kilometres to the school. This was not unusual, because facilities in rural environments, such as schools, clinics, and dip tanks are not close to every member in the community.

Financial accessibility is associated with access to finance. A fee of Z\$25 (ZAR40), was affordable because learners were resettled farmers whose fertile land produced food in excess of consumption needs. This explains the large number of members who had wanted to enrol on the programme. In addition, the affordable cost of education promotes a communal form of enactment that increases access to education. This is in line with the goals of the country's constitution and the Jomtien (1990) Education for All world conference pledge to increase access to education.

With regard to cultural access, the findings revealed that the Christian religion pervaded the community, and therefore, had an influence on the FLE programme. Driven by a communal form of enactment, the findings showed that Christian values and practices created a tranquil learning environment. The environment was characterised by prayers and Bible teachings, since FA was aware of the culture that defined the personal identities of the learners (Khoza, 2019). Culture, from a communal form of enactment, helped FA in creating group cohesion and an environment that was framed by respect for fellow learners. Learners cared for the teaching and learning resources, particularly the expensive industrial machines. Cultural accessibility became an enabler of learning in the FLE programme.

9.2.37 Enactment educator-driven activities – instructor role on ZABEC

ZA: In this job I am called a teacher. My duties are planning my work so that I know what I want to cover. I also mark books, scheme and teach. My learners want to be cared for, to be shown some love but I do not let them do whatever they want. When I teach them I focus on what I have planned and they have to listen to me. I explain, sometimes more than once and I expect them to do as I have instructed. I want those in their final year to pass the examination.

ZB: My role is to impart knowledge. I teach at a low level, level two, which is equivalent to Grade 3 to 5. Most of the time the learners have to sit around me. I want to see that everyone is listening as I talk. They also want to enjoy my Shona stories and cultural practices. They do not have

exercise books it is better to give them the information first hand. I will then ask questions and expect them to give the answers.

ZC: I am a teacher [...]. I see myself as learner-centred one but with these street children at such a low level of learning, which is Level 1 (Grades 1-2), I just have to be strict with them. I explain the content while they sit and listen, followed by the time for me to ask them question on the content.

All participants on the ZABEC pointed to educator-centred activities as a key feature of their enactments. In performing the teaching activities, their role was that of an instructor. Participants admitted that they used such a style and role in order to respond to the learning styles of young learners who needed to be guided by the educator. In addition, the choice of the activities and teaching style were informed by the lack of books, which the research participants would have used in facilitating a learner-centred approach to enacting teaching and learning. Without books, the participants said that they found it difficult to organise individual learning activities. ZB explained that, owing to lack of writing exercises, the learners relied on her to give them information. The learners' participation was limited to answering questions, orally.

9.2.38 Enactment discipline-driven activities-subject specialist role on ZABEC

The participants said the following:

ZA: Among the learners that I teach, there are some who I need to prepare to write the national examinations. There is quite some information that needs to be covered. This course is not about one subject only that I teach. [...]The learners do not have enough books from which to get the content on their own. They need me to teach them all of the material.

ZB: Street children have some disadvantages that go back to their family background. Most of them either stay with foster parents or on their own. They do not receive much help and they do not have any other sources of content. They are also too young to do much reading on their own [...]. I am good with all the subjects.

ZC: These are street children who are not quite used to being in school. I teach them what I know from my many years of teaching. I know what they need to learn and that is what I do. The ZABEC

was launched so that the marginalized could have basic literacy skills. For example, they need to name some objects, to speak the language write and to read.

All the participants were subject-specialists in their teaching and did not see themselves as being influenced by the desire to impart the content from the discipline. They were aware that the learners needed basic education to enable them to be integrated into their communities. The educators interpreted the goals of ZABEC, providing basic skills and not for cognitive development using a vertical curriculum. Participant ZC strongly revealed that she was au fait with the syllabus that the learners needed, as per her perception of the goals of ZABEC. Mabuza (2018) noted that, when educators are driven by providing content, the activities focus on and satisfy the requirements of a particular discipline's professionals. These activities and roles showed a syllabus-dedicated approach, which is driven by the acknowledged form of enactment.

9.2.39. Enactment problem-driven activities – facilitator role on ZABEC

The ZABEC participants' responses to interviews were as follows:

ZA: The problem that led to ZABEC is the level of illiteracy. We sometimes discuss the benefits of literacy, especially in mathematics. We look at how illiteracy affects them in their lives and for those who are into selling on the streets. I have to use techniques that allow for learners to learn from each other. We often discuss issues as a class or in groups. These learners are fairly mature and I have also learned from them.

ZB: These young learners lack the skills to discuss anything that affects the community. The activities that I use are related to my role as a teacher. I have to be there every teaching, watching and ensuring that they learn.

ZC: These children are the one causing problems in the community and even during lessons. They are restless and they can leave their seat to go and beat up another learner. They lack the discipline that is found in formal school learners and the community.

The concept of basic education speaks to the needs of the community for essential life skills. Hence, the NFEP addresses this issue through its mission: 'To provide adult learners, youths and out-of-schoolchildren with functional skills'. In their opening remarks, all the participants pointed

to the central role of community needs in influencing the launch of ZABEC. In the findings, ZA was the only participant who was playing the role of a facilitator in education delivery. The participant was influenced by the maturity of the learners who think critically on issues and then contribute knowledge towards addressing levels of illiteracy. Garrett (2008) advocates for the use of facilitation methods in which learners are actively engaged in experiential learning. The findings showed that ZB and ZC who taught level 1 and level 2 dismiss the use of a facilitator role when teaching young learners. ZA used the communal form of enactment in engaging the learners in group discussions on basic literacy issues in the community. In doing so, the learners created knowledge, some of which they were to use in the examinations and within the community. The findings showed that the problem-driven activity and facilitator role aligns with Rodrigo's (2017) views that problem-driven activities emerge from the constructivist theory of knowledge construction.

9.2.40 Interpretation of enactment educator-activities and roles on ZABEC

In Theme 5, the study seeks to address the question regarding how the participants taught the NFEP programmes. This section interprets the findings on the activities that the participants chose to engage with the learners and roles. Findings on the ZABEC participants' activities and roles pointed to the dominant use of the educator/teacher-centred activities that were instructor-led, for use in delivering their teaching. In particular, the findings revealed the instructor's role. This was aligned with the activities because the participants were responding to the learners' needs for basic literacies under the guidance of the participant. Therefore, the educator-led activities were seen as the ideal formal classroom teaching approach for learners who were enrolling for learning late in their lives. Dlamini (2017) contends that classroom activities are informed by aims and objectives under the control of the educator. The committed form of enactment guided the participants in the selection of content and the activities that ensured that educators remained in control of the teaching and learning processes. Participants ZB and ZC stated that the low level of maturity of the learners, and a lack of experience in individualised learning had influenced the use of the educator-centred activities and instructor role. Books, as teaching resources, would have been used to facilitate individual learning. Ironically, without books for independent study, participants were

themselves transformed into the ‘books’ and instructors, while focusing on the attainment of teaching aims and objectives (Hoadley & Jansen, 2014).

Daniels (2004) postulates that the process of reflection guides the educator in the choice of appropriate role and activities. The committed form of enactment therefore, influences the decisions regarding teaching activities and roles. Decisions are based on personal identities of the educator (Khoza, 2016) and are framed by personal beliefs and professional values. Findings showed that the participants were also influenced by the communal form of enactment in which they understood the needs of the community, and used the committed form of enactment to determine the effective activities to use, and the roles to adopt. Furthermore, Harley (2000) contends that contextual factors have much influence on what happens in the classrooms. The participants responded to the contextual factors in the CHAT, in which the community and learners, as the activity’s subjects, had education needs that were to be addressed through the provision of teaching and learning in the ZABEC.

9.2.41 Enactment educator-driven activities – instructor role on PTCE

The participants on the PTCE said:

PA: I am a subject teacher first and foremost. I mix this role with other roles such as learner centred when I think we have the time to do group work, for example. But my objective with this group is to make them pass the O and A level examinations. To do so, they want facts. I cover this using revision questions. I know where most learners go wrong in examinations and I take time to drill these issues home.

PB: We do not have much time for other things at this time of the year as we focus on examinations. My job is to guide them through the syllabus and the examination questions. Some of them told me their weaknesses when I interviewed them on the first day they came to join the group. I cannot afford to let them make the same mistakes again and so when I give them anything to do, I monitor them, closely.

PC: It is my job to impart knowledge through direct teaching [...] in mathematics there is only one correct answer and I want people who work hard. After I explain, then I expect to see good work.

Our time is also too short for lengthy presentations by learners and I end up more of getting them to focus on the activities that I would have chosen [...]. I use my experience to select the activities that strengthen their capacity to interpret the issues and work out solutions.

The data pointed to educators who taught examination subjects in the PTCE programme. The findings were that the focus was on enabling the learners to pass the examinations. The educators were driven by the acknowledged and committed forms of enactment in implement teaching strategies that they believed suited aims and objectives of their teaching and instructor role (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). The findings revealed that the participants were driven by the aims and objectives of the PTCE programme that sought to enable the learners to pass examinations. The data showed that the participants created an environment in which they instructed learners at every opportunity on how best to pass examinations. PB pointed out that he could not watch the learners fail their examinations again. PA and PC admitted that their role was to impart knowledge. The educators' roles as instructors align with Taole's (2013) view of educators who direct learning instead of guiding the learning. Their learners are engaged in repetitive tasks (Stephan, 2014), in which learners are being coached for examinations.

9.2.42 Enactment discipline-driven activities –subject specialist role on PTCE

The participants on the PTCE programme shared the following experiences:

PA: I have specialised to teach Geography at O and A levels. My learners are looking forward to passing when they write the examinations in November. I have so far recorded 100% pass rate, that is a C grade and above. Some learners have left their study groups to come to me. I encourage the learners to be well read. When we started I gave them a list of books to find but the books have become expensive to buy. I know that there is a lot of content in the discipline at every level, for example from Form 1 to Form 4, which I draw from the syllabus. My role as the participant is to link the topics [...] we do lots of tests followed by thorough revision of the past examination papers.

PB: The syllabus has always been a useful guide to teaching. The examinations are set based on the syllabus. This makes the syllabus a relevant source of content that teachers should respect and follow [...] especially when the community has entrusted you with learners to teach [...] it is not

possible to complete the syllabus in a year's time. I try to select what I have established as core examinable areas, first before covering other areas that learners might ask of me.

PC: I know that the learners need me to help them pass but at this level they need to study on their own too. Unfortunately, the financial position of most people is that very few can afford to buy books. They need the content in order to pass but there is not much that we can do without books. They end up relying on me as a source. In most cases I teach the content during the revision of tests [...] I cannot do a complete job and so I give them work to do at home. They also have also copied down the syllabus so that they keep focus (Form1-4). There are some who can find books among friends while others get the content on the net.

All participants used the syllabus as the source of content for enacting PTCE. The reference to the syllabus by all the participants pointed to teaching and learning that was driven using the acknowledged form of enactment. Furthermore, all the participants said that the volume of work that had to be covered in a year was excessive for accomplishing during face-to-face teaching. Therefore, they used their experience to develop an enacted curriculum that contained what the examinations were likely to cover, based on examination trends. The findings showed that the participants taught independent subjects, namely, geography, mathematics and business studies.

9.2.43 Enactment problem-driven activities and facilitator roles on PTCE

Participants' responses to interviews were as follows:

PA: Our approach to preparing for national examinations is to focus on identified problem areas. The group provides a list of issue to deal with as a class or in groups. Facilitating the revision sessions brings the group closer to real issues in Geography. The case studies, I mean the questions are quite helpful since many learners can take part. My part is to add to the facts and to clarify matters. I have also realised that when the learners lead the presentations, this generates a lot of interest from the others [...], the method requires more time than what we have been allocated.

PB: Before we start lessons for each term, I interview each learner in order to know the reasons why they decided to enroll with our centre. I want to establish the problems that they might want addressed, say in Business Studies. I make a note so that I can follow up throughout the term. Most

learners talk about where to get relevant examples for their assignments and examinations. We have resolved that business management concepts can be applied in all activities that people engage in where there is some transacting being done and now their assignments are informed by community problems as what they see in the community. They now relate their studies to every day issues and this is shown in their discussions, presentations and assignments.

PC: There are times when I give the group opportunities to share experiences about learning problems that they have met. My role is to adjudicate and ensure that the learners comply with the intentions of the activity. They have formed mobile chat groups in which they share and discuss common problems, such as where to conduct weekend revision classes. I have learned a lot too from listening to my group.

The enactment of the teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes is characterised by programmes that openly targeted community members who are or have education needs that formal education is unable to meet. All participants indicated that they were educating the community for socio-economic development. PA, for example, focused on identified learning problems relating to examinations. PB was aware of the community's education needs, while PC provided learners with a platform on which to deliberate mathematics education problems while she guided the process of learning. What was also common was that all the participants attempted to make room for the learners to run the problem-solving education activity. To be a facilitator is to be learner-centred. The approach involves engaging learners in a process in which they learn to make decisions through reflecting on their own experiences (Hmelo-Silver, 2004).

9.2.44 Interpretation of enactment educator activities and roles on PTCE

The interpretation of the findings revealed the use of all three categories of the educator-activities of the study and related roles. Jones and Galle (2016) state that teaching activities are many and varied, and therefore, it was contingent on the educators to carefully select particular activities and roles that support their effective use on teaching and learning. Mohamadrezai and Mohamadrezai (2018) contend that the participant roles must project the teaching behaviour that effectively engages the learners to achieve the intended learning outcomes. Likewise, the data revealed the three sets of activities and roles of the study that were in use in the enactment of teaching and learning on PTCE programmes.

Educator-driven activities which influenced the adoption of the instructor role were more conspicuous in a situation in which educators prioritised how to address the use of a vertical curriculum. Educators had to consider the assessments that characterise the use of the vertical curriculum, in the pursuit of national assessment goals. Ngubane-Mokiwa & Khoza (2016) recognise the significance of the learners' performance in content knowledge as a major factor that influences teaching and learning. Findings attested to the use of the committed enactment, as educators resorted to educator-centred activities that ensured that learners were directed to the content that they required for examinations preparations. Learners received instructions on how to prepare and write examinations. In order to increase learner's chances of passing examinations, PA regularly conducted examination writing sessions; while PC also pointed to periodic practical sessions. Participant observations confirmed the dominant use of the instructor role, as participants prepared the learners for examinations that were due later in the year.

The personal profile data on the PTCE programme participants revealed personal identities of participants who possessed the requisite school knowledge on the areas that they taught. Findings based on content analysis of their beliefs apropos of teaching revealed that the participants regarded themselves quite highly as subject specialists. PA said that he considered himself an expert teacher; PB suggested that the community had shown its faith in him to help their children pass the examinations; while PC said that learners enrolled with her based on her good reputation. This means that the participants trusted their personal identities to guide them towards effective teaching. Khoza (2016) confirms that, in a vertical curriculum, independent subjects or disciplines have their own special knowledge and theories, for use by educators who perform the subject specialist roles. In this role, activities by which learners receive facts dominate the teaching and learning activities (Hoadley & Jansen, 2013). Through the use of the committed and acknowledged forms of enactment, mock tests and in-class revision sessions were a common feature in PTCE programmes.

Problem-driven activities and the facilitator role act in a synergistic fashion, in which the learners construct knowledge (Rodrigo, 2017). The facilitator role is sensitive to the learners' needs, and provides support services to learners. In practise, the problem-driven approach shifts the power dynamics to the learner to construct knowledge, while the facilitator uses the communal form of enactment and becomes sensitive to the learners' needs for an effective environment (Brown,

2003). Educators enacting teaching on PTCE were expected to create a conducive environment for knowledge construction (Almed, 2013) says that the learners are engaged in a complex process of sense-making of individual or group views. The findings revealed that PB and PB aligned the problem approach with solving subject content challenges from a committed enactment form, while PC's view was that a problem-driven activity was driven by a communal form of enactment.

9.2.45. Enactment educator-driven activities and instructor role on FLE

The research study's participant had this to say about the FLE programme:

FA: I am a Dressmaking Tutor. Initially I used to rely on the methods I learned at college. I thought the same methods would suit the adults. For example, when I was at college we could do assignments on topics that we would not have been taught. We could research but these people cannot research I have to teach them everything and every aspect about garnet construction. I like spoon feed them. For example whenever I need to give them an assignment, I have to photocopy, topics and notes. I have to provide the materials [...]. They rely on me for all the information and skills. I just end up telling them what to do.

The data revealed that FA adopted educator-centred activities which influenced the adoption of the instructor role in addressing the problems of low levels of literacy within the learner-groups. The participant became the focus of the activity in the educator-centred approach, owing to circumstances. The FLE programme had initially been established based on a communal form of enactment that sought to follow a horizontal curriculum. However, circumstances changed leading to FA having to enact a vertical curriculum, too, in which aims and objectives of the HEXCO curriculum influenced teaching activities and roles. The educator-centred activities that influenced the instructor role led to a committed form of enactment use that ensured that learners received the content from the participant.

Mascolo (2009) points out that there are circumstances in which educators assume primary responsibility for teaching. In one typical situation, power relations between educators and learners influenced the use of educator-driven instructor activities. FA was enacting a vertical curriculum, using both the acknowledged and committed forms of enactment that were driven by the participant's knowledge as a source of power. The role of an instructor was dominant in ensuring

that learners complied with instructions on the use of the sophisticated and expensive equipment (technology for teaching), especially the industrial sewing machines. The committed form of enactment was used in order to provide content to the learners for achieving the learning goals. The environment was one in which FA was the trusted source of content since there was a shortage of books, and the learners did not have computers to use in their searches for additional content.

9.2.46 Enactment discipline-driven activities and subject specialist role on FLE

The participant said the following:

FA: The HEXCO syllabus contains the content topics on garment construction. It is important to cover the content if the learners are to go to the examinations well prepare. I also teach the same course in the secondary school section where I teach full time. I have compiled my teaching notes from what I learned at college and what I collected during my time on attachment. The school has a computer and when there is electricity, I download some content [...] some of the content is in videos. Unfortunately most of the group can hardly read. This makes me the provider of the content for which they are registered to write examinations this year [...]. I choose activities such as oral questions and practical sewing of materials.

The garment construction programme was informed by both a vertical curriculum (performance) and horizontal curriculum (competence). The vertical curriculum was the main source of the content, while the horizontal curriculum was an unwritten syllabus. The data showed that FA was enacting the programme from an acknowledged form of enactment. In using a vertical curriculum, all the agreed content must be covered in order to facilitate assessment of all learners at the same time (Khoza, 2016). The use of goals influences the choice of content from both the acknowledged and committed forms of enactment. FA's personal identity, both as an educator and a technician influenced the choice and delivery of the content. As the subject specialist, FA engaged learners, with the responsibility to provide them with content on garment construction. This was especially so in an environment characterised by low competencies for communicating in English, and a shortage of reading material. The data showed that, in such an environment, FA turned to the use of face-to-face instruction as was witnessed during the participant observation visit.

9.2.47 Enactment problem-driven activities – facilitator role on FLE

Participant's responses to interviews were as follows:

FA: I have adult learners who like to discuss issues [...]. The problem solving approach is about thinking deeply about an issue. At first the group was slow to make suggestions. I think that they lacked the confidence [...]. Even when we faced challenges like power cuts, there were very few ideas on how to deal with a problem that affected learning. With time, things have improved. We discuss and come up with alternative plans about what to do [...]. For instance, the learners agreed to start an hour earlier than before and have kept to it. This approach works well with the adult learners since they show respect to each other in the discussions and motivate one another.

Participant FA witnessed a positive change when learners became more confident with the problem-solving approach in which learners were engaged in a communal form of enactment to solve some problems that affected teaching and learning. The FLE programme was partially a community project; and FA could not solve problems that impacted on the community, as an individual. Participant FA was aware that adult learners were in favour of the discussion method, as a participatory method; and using the communal form of enactment, achieved outcomes that produced sustainable solutions to common problems of the community. Bernstein (1999) presents the communal form of enactment as promoting horizontal knowledge that is segmented and acceptable.

9.2.48 Interpretation of enactment educator activities and teaching roles on FLE

The findings on educator-driven activities influenced FA's use of the instructor role. FA had initially adopted activities and roles that were incompatible with the teaching and learning of adults. This recontextualising of the educator-driven activities and role is supported by Mascolo (2017) who avers that participants should be sensitive to prevailing circumstances, such as those that relate to the learner. Khoza (2015) observes that, when educators reflect on their teaching, they can resolve problems. FA examined herself in the light of teaching activities, subsequently changing them to suit the prevailing circumstances (Leitch and Day, 2000). Knowles (1980) and Jarvis (2012) posit that the pedagogy of teaching children is different from that of helping adults learn, hence the use of the term 'andragogy'. Andragogy is the art and science of helping adults learn (Brookfields, 1986). The educator-driven activities that are characterised by the use of

instructor role were adopted. Based on a committed enactment, FA played a central role in provided content towards meeting the goals of the vertical curriculum that had been adopted for the FLE programme.

Regarding the discipline-driven activities by subjects specialists, the findings were that FA was informed by a personal identity that was framed by education and training in clothing technology. In addition, FA had had the experience of teaching high schoolchildren the same course. FA, therefore, needed to have reflected on features that distinguished teaching and learning of children from the teaching of adults, before embarking on the teaching of the adults. A subject specialist must provide the discipline content. As subject specialist in garment construction education, FA provided the much needed content, based on the acknowledged form of enactment. FA used the educator-centred approach because it facilitates content sharing (Mabuza, 2018), which must comprise facts, theories, and methods of the discipline (Worden, 2015).

The problem-driven activities and the facilitator role that an educator adopts are performed from a covert position (Dlamini, 2017). This illustrates the changes in the dynamics of the classroom with the learners having taken control of their own learning. The findings revealed that FA used a problem-centred approach in a communal form of enactment, having at first underrated the adults on their capacity to engage in knowledge-construction activities. This justifies the use of a multi-approach to the problem in the facilitator role for this study. The facilitator used the communal (learner needs) and committed (learner-centred) forms of enactment to create a conducive environment.

9.3 Conclusion

Chapter Nine answered Question Two of the study by utilising Themes Two (enactment resources) and Three (enactment content), Theme Four (accessibility to enactment) and Theme Five (enactment educator activities and roles). Interrogating these four themes brought to the fore the interrelatedness of the CHAT elements in mediating how educators engage the activity. The discourse showed how those educators enact content using resources, activities and roles to those who had access to enactment. The educators' were driven by all the forms of enactment, based on their TPACK. The several themes that were used reflected the importance of the unpacking of the

activity (teaching and learning) and primarily the manifestations had implications for all the CHAT elements. According to Hancock and Miller (2018), CHAT is about the interplay of its elements as impacting the activity. The study contends that all the four themes provide deep insight into how educators enact teaching and learning in NFEP's school-model's programmes.

Chapter Ten followed with presentation, analysis and interpretation of data that were used to address Question Three: Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe? Three themes were used reflecting the importance of including many themes to explore the phenomenon, comprehensively.

CHAPTER TEN: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION ON EDUCATORS' ENACTMENT RATIONALE

10.1 Introduction

This chapter was the final chapter on data presentation, analysis, and interpretation. The previous chapter, namely Chapter Nine, presented, analysed and interpreted the data that sought to address Research Question Two that addressed the exploration of the way participants enacted teaching and learning on the school-model. The findings revealed that participants had ritualized the enactments, based on FE teaching in which educators play an overarching role of control and supply. Those findings became the sequel for an exploration of the phenomenon for insights into the rationale for particularised actions of the educators. Likewise, Research Question Three read: Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe? To explicate the data, three themes and their categories were employed. A condensation of the concepts that framed the themes was provided, below.

10.2 Condensation of themes on educators' enactment rationale

A brief presentation on the relevant concepts that framed the three themes was done. A detailed discourse on the same concepts was conducted in Chapter Four, thereby rendering a similar exercise a repetitive one. The purpose of this condensation was to provide a focus on the data that were presented, analysed and interpreted in Chapter Ten. It covered the following themes: enactment time rule, enactment goals and enactment assessment.

Enactment time rule: In general, the concept of time denotes a structuring element in today's society (Burny, Valcke & Desoete, 2009). In the context of this study, the time by which learners need to attain vertical knowledge outcomes in the schools-model programmes, has been set by acknowledged enactment professionals. Scheerens (2013), contends that time may be referred using such terms as allocated and instructional time. When educators become familiar with various types of educational time, and the effects on teaching and learning (Cotton, 1985; Mabuza, 2018), they know how to use time in order to enact teaching and learning, effectively. This indicates the engagement of particular ways of enacting teaching and learning, which the educators need to

account for. The research was informed by CHAT, in an attempt to weave together the reasons that drive educators to act in particular ways (Edward, 2011).

Enactment goals: By definition, policy intentions, also called goals for enactment of teaching, are a general description of educational purposes of a school (Tyler, 1949). In the context of this study, intentions represent purposes, namely, aims, objectives, and outcomes.

Enactment assessment: assessment represents a tool that assesses progress made and for supporting teaching and learning in future ((Houston & Thompson, 2017). Furthermore, Bennett (2005) views assessment as a way of collecting data about learners' achievements and abilities. Assessment aligns itself with the general notion of a process of determining the extent to which objectives have been attained, based on two assessment approaches: formative (assessment for learning) and summative (assessment of learning). This study to understand the particular ways that the educators in order to attain learning outcomes, commencing with responses from ZABEC participants.

10.2.1 Enactment allocated-time rule on ZABEC.

Participants on ZABEC provided the following comments:

ZA: I have two hours a day and eight hours a week that have been set aside for the teaching of ZABEC subjects. I think the government could have given two hours to ZABEC so that the adults could engage in their daily activities [...]. This is adequate in view of the fact that this course is for fairly mature learners who had missed out on schooling. They learn at a faster pace than the less mature learners in the formal school system. They can even learn on their own.

ZB: The ministry decided on the time [...]. I do not know how they calculated the time. The school agreed with the recommendations and put the ZABEC in the afternoons as from 1 00pm to 3.00 pm Monday to Wednesday. The total time is sufficient for me to then use it for teaching the three subjects. I think the plan was not to make ZABEC a programme full time so that the learners, especially the adults could do other activities to earn a living.

ZC: The allocated time is enough. I meet them for two hours from Monday to Wednesday. The learners we are getting nowadays are very restless and playful. They are not accustomed to learning but to playing. I manage to cover my lesson plans in that time[...] How the MoPSE realise that we need to teach have them for two hours a day was never explained.

All participants were aware that allocated time of two hours per day for four days a week was for the entire programme. Participants expressed contentment with the arrangement of two hours in the afternoons. The allocated time influenced the distribution of time for various activities in the three lessons that each of them taught. Using a committed form of enactment, the participants were able to distribute the time and use it to effect teaching and learning. Burny et al. (2009) observe that time is a structuring element in every human activity. Educators had to enact teaching and learning based on the available time that was allocated to ZABEC.

10.2.2 Enactment instructional-time rule on ZABEC

The term ‘instructional time’ is contextualised to refer to the entire period during which teaching and learning occurs within the allocated time at designated learning environments. The concept of instructional time embraces both engaged time and time-on-task activities which are subordinate to instruction activities. Van den Akker et al. (2010) expect participants to allow ample instruction time for the various subject domains that are specified in the policy/curriculum. The rationale is that time is but one link in the chain of education curriculum/policy components. The time factor affects the other components, such as the use of resources and the activities with which to engage learners. Hence, time has an effect on structure of teaching and learning enactment (Burny et al. 2009) and the quality of learning outcomes. According to the NFEP operating guidelines, the school head is responsible for the design of the timetable. The principal must specify the amount of time for the various subjects. The participants on ZABEC responded as follows:

ZA: I have two hours on each day from Monday to Wednesday to teach on ZABEC. I teach six subjects after I have completed my formal education teaching. Time is adequate based on the existing number of subjects. I try and use the time to teach the learners on key areas that are in the syllabus, especially for the group that will be writing Grade Seven national examinations. I use my experience to select concepts that promote basic literacy skills. I encourage practice at

home although the shortage of books makes it difficult for me and the learners. The shortage of materials such as books affects the way we teach and I end up talking and talking to the learners instead of having them to write and read

ZB: The time for instruction is enough although the learners are not as fast as most learners on formal education who have been in the system for a longer time. I take time explaining and demonstrating some language skills. It helps them, for example to grasp the vernacular language [...], they listen to me so that we do not waste time. I also focus on ensuring that the work for the term and the year is covered. We have a challenge of books since the donor went away.

ZC: I am able to use the time to teach learners the basics of becoming literate. I use the available time on instructing them, and demonstrating English language skills of reading, speaking and writing. The class is not too big [...] fifteen learners, so everyone at least gets a chance to practise during the lesson time. The aim is to motivate the learners so that they like to learn and then they stay in the system [...] instruction time per subject is thirty minutes. If they had books to read, teaching could be more effective.

All participants reported that the instructional time was sufficient. They were satisfied that they had been able to share the time among the subjects, equitably. The participants commented that the instructional time was adequate for promoting basic literacy skills. The committed form of enactment influenced the selection of key concepts from the syllabus and the time that was available for instruction influenced the choice of activities and educator roles to use. Educator-centred activities dominated teaching activities as a strategy for managing the available instructional time during which participants instructed the learners as a means of engaging with them in teaching and learning. ZA and ZC stated that their teaching could be more effective if they had adequate books to use.

10.2.3 Interpretation of enactment time rule on ZABEC

The findings on allocated time were that the participants had maintained the time that was allocated to ZABEC by the school authorities because it was sufficient for teaching and learning requirements. Educators supported the position on the ability to work within the available instructional time, since the time rule influenced them to choose particular ways of teaching and learning. The allocated time was two hours a day and eight hours per week. The findings did not

offer an explanation on the rationale for the allocation of the amount of time. ZA speculated that management had been influenced by the communal form of enactment to afford the adult learners time to pursue their other life chores, such as income-generating projects. ZB and ZC showed a committed enactment that sympathised with the street children who were not accustomed to spending long hours behind a desk, thereby indicating that the allocated time was adequate.

Instructional time is regarded as the actual time for teaching the subject. Ndlovu (2016) points out that, once time passes, it cannot be retrieved because it is finite. The instructional time is the time during which the participant engages with the learners. The findings showed that the educators were influenced by time to adopt educator-centred approaches which focused on the educator, who would then manage the time. Dole et al. (2016) postulate that educator-centredness gives the educator control over the curriculum. This means that the educator is in control of the proceedings and the social interactions. This is a strategy that the ZABEC educators used for managing time while remaining in control of the teaching and learning processes. In doing so, the participants kept to the enactment time rule.

10.2.4 Enactment allocated-time rule on PTCE

Participants provided the following comments:

PA: All I know is that I have been allocated two sessions a week during which I enact Geography on the PTCE programme. The total time is three hours a week. It is far from adequate since most learners expect to be ready for the examinations in October.

PB: The time is adequate on paper but far less when we are teaching non-repeaters. These are learners who cannot attend formal education for reasons such as work and finance. Even the repeaters are people who need time after failing to pass in previous attempts.

PC: The school NFE committee made the decisions pertaining time and venue that we are following. Some of the issues were to ensure that the educators were not overloaded with work outside their normal formal education workload while the venue was to be centrally located. The rentals for hiring the venue were to be reasonable. Therefore, these costs had to be recovered from the school fees that are charged per month. The committee had thought that at the ZS35 (60 Rands) per learner per month, the programme costs were going to be met in this year, namely the

administration fee to the high school, venue hiring charges and services (water and electricity) and the allowances for the educators. However, the teaching of a subject like mathematics needs to be done daily so I may monitor progress often, especially as we approach examinations. The time is spent on core areas and revision. The electricity shortages have made the situation worse. We can do very little of individual written work in the classroom owing to poor light. In the end, I give the learners plenty homework. This also adds to my heavy load in terms of marking.

The participants revealed that the allocated time for the PTCE programme was decided by the school. According to PC, a number of factors influenced the decision to allocate the three hours per week to each subject. Each participant was to teach one subject in order that the participants were not overloaded with non-formal education teaching; they already had full-time teaching jobs in the formal education system and part-time jobs on the PTEC programme. A communal form of enactment influenced the allocation of time by placing the learners at the centre so that many modules would be taught as well as the acknowledged form of enactment, so that each subject was taught by an expert. Allocated time is referred to as ‘time on the clock’ (Cotton, 1985). Allocated time is an explicit rule on the enactment of PTCE programmes which directly influences the amount of instructional time, as follows:

10.2.5 Enactment instructional-time rule on PTCE

The PTCE participants responded as follows:

PA: When I teach I aim to take the learners to a higher level in terms of preparing them to write examinations. I have two sessions of forty-five minutes a week, each. This is the time to make my presentations and for learners to participate in oral question and answer sessions and discussions. The more time I take to present, the less the time for other activities, such as written work. There is so much to teach. In the end, I teach through revision and tests and we have the entire O level and A level syllabi to try and cover during the time that has been set aside for this. Additional time has been created where, for example, I chat with them on WhatsApp.

PB: I have both average and slow learners in the group. I use teaching time to present new topics and to revise past examination papers [...] and the time is insufficient. It is inadequate and so I give them lots of work to do at home. I sometimes meet them during my spare time. I am doing this

extra work because I need to see them through their studies proceeding to university and to other colleges.

PC: Most of the time is spent explaining to them how to tackle examination questions. I give them the main facts, formulae and they have to practise at home. [...] I have had to skip some topics in order to concentrate on examination preparations. Learners have even requested for more time in which to go through past examination papers since the work cannot be finished within the time that we were given. I need to cover the whole syllabus from Form One to Form Four using a compressed syllabus.

All participants reported that the time available for instruction was mainly used for examination preparation. PC said that some topics were considered more important than others in preparing the learners for examinations. PA and PB concurred that the focus on examination preparations restricted teaching and learning activities to educator-led activities, using the communal, acknowledged, and committed forms of enactment. Facts that are found in books characterised the instructional activities in the PTCE programme. The participants used their acquired knowledge of teaching the various disciplines, which Hoadley and Jansen (2013) refer to as the ‘schooled’ knowledge. Khoza (2016) says that in acknowledged enactment, the content is arranged vertically, and it is assessed nationally, thereby influencing the educators to control teaching activities in order to maximise time usage (Dole et al. 2016). PA and PC referred to the enacted curriculum that covered Forms 1-4 in one year, as a compressed syllabus.

10.2.6 Interpreting enactment time rules on PTCE

The findings revealed that all the participants enacting the PTCE programmes agreed that there was inadequate time for enacting teaching and learning. While NFE is generally looked down (Ndlovu, 2016), since it is a second-chance education for learners who did not fit into the mainstream education system (Yasunaga, 2014), there were financial implications that were taken into consideration in making the decisions on the time rule. According to PC, allocating more time would increase costs to the community in terms of fees. This would undermine the communal enactment objectives of the horizontal curriculum in which horizontal knowledge should be accessed by any member of the community (Bernstein, 1999). The goal in communal enactment

of horizontal knowledge is to expand both the repertoire (competence base) and the reservoir (the competent members of the community) through the development of social interactions that strengthen and sustain the community. Therefore, increasing the fees would preclude deserving members from obtaining the basic literacy skills through the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes.

All participants agreed that instructional time was inadequate. Participant PA singled out the scope of the syllabus as carrying more topics than the amount that participants could deliver within the allocated time. The available instructional time influenced the participants to cut their coats according to their cloth. Three forms of enactment were used for driving a compressed curriculum. The acknowledged enactment influenced the choice of topics; the communal influenced the use of group approaches; and the committed influenced the use of other two forms of enactment, including teaching that was based on personal experience and a hidden curriculum (Hoadley & Jansen, 2014). The vertical curriculum impacted on the choice of approaches within the available instructional time. The implicit nature of the instruction time meant that the facilitators engaged learners during informal instructional time. The implication to the participants was that, since these teaching and learning activities occurred outside the explicit allocated time, and away from the hired venue, there was no extra allowance paid to the participants, normally called 'overtime' pay. Time, as an element of CHAT, is a mediation tool which impacts all of CHAT elements in different ways. In these findings, the subjects (educators) required more time to act the activity (teaching); while the outcome (learner performance) would be assessed against the allocated and instructional time that were both explicit and implied.

10.2.7. Enactment allocated-time rule on FLE

Participant FA gave the following comments:

FA: I am following the time that has been allocated to garment construction programme by the school where I teach. The allocated time was eight hours a week. We lost two hours so that the adults can take their cattle to the dip tank on Wednesdays. Luckily, the learners are quite interested in this programme such that most of them now report early every day. So the official time is now six hours. It is not enough to fully prepare the learners for HEXCO examinations so I use some of time to teach them

Scheeren (2013) states that allocated time is time that is made available for a programme's full set of activities. In turn, the time will inform the activities while time remains finite (Ndlovu, 2016) and does not wait for the educator. FA indicated that time was insufficient and therefore, it was bound to have a negative influence on the quality of learning outcomes. With an awareness of the allocated time, educators engage in various instructional activities that suit the allocated time. Since the activity is mediated by various CHAT elements (Engestrom, 2002), FA had experienced a shortage of the allocated time.

10.2.8. Enactment instructional-time rule on FLE

The participant responded as follows:

FA: I teach adults who come from the surrounding villages. They need a lot of help since this is a new programme to most of them since we use industrial machines. The group has quite a number of semi-literates too. I need time to get them to use the machines properly, more time than is stated in HEXCO syllabus. Initially we were allocated 8 hours a week by the school head. I realised that adult learners have family roles that they have to meet. On Wednesdays, for example, the villagers have to attend to cattle dipping since the children will be at school. This left us with a six-hour week while at the same time we were already short of time for teaching. I devised two plans. The first one is that the adult learners could come as early as 0730 hours on Mondays to Wednesdays, and get instructions on what to do before they start while I teach the secondary school learners without much disruption. This plan is helping the slow learners and those who might have missed some lessons, to catch up [...]. The second plan affects everyone. All the learners have to report for lessons at least an hour early every day for revision. This means that we have a new starting time of 1300 hours instead of 1400 hours. The adult learners are quite disciplined and they all come by 1300 hours. The actual teaching time is now three hours a day for three days. We spend it mostly on preparing for the HEXCO examinations where I instruct them on garment construction techniques and the theory as well. The group is not quite literate in English so they face challenges with working on their own. We need more teaching time. This is my first time to enact teaching and learning in the NFEP programme and to teach adults. There is a lot to learn, especially about how adults learn [...]. I once attended a workshop. They told us to be patient with adults since they are slow.

The FLE programme is driven by a communal enactment that seeks to equip community members with sewing skills. This is an activity that is influenced by goals that focus on developing learners' competencies for common use in the community, through the provision of horizontal knowledge. FA was aware that the adults needed garment-sewing skills. Bernstein (1999) contends that, when educators enact a horizontal curriculum, time is flexible and completion time is not universal, as compared to the deadlines of using a vertical curriculum. However, the FLE programme incorporated a formal syllabus with set deadlines for completion and standardised national assessments in the theory and skills of garment construction. The findings were that FA faced challenges with coping with allocated time and instruction time. The use of the HEXCO syllabus influenced FA to find the time, which resulted in two strategies that were then enacted. FA used a communal form of enactment to get agreement from the learners to increase instructional time by an hour a day. Furthermore, FA added to the available instructional time to drive an acknowledged enactment based on selected topics in the personal compressed curriculum. In this way, FA provided teaching that could enable the learners to achieve their learning outcomes.

10.2.9 Interpreting enactment time rules on FLE

The findings pointed out that the host school had allocated eight hours per week to the FLE; however, FA could not elaborate on how the decisions were reached. It appeared that the acknowledged, communal and committed forms of enactment that were used to drive a vertical curriculum with national examinations and a horizontal curriculum that equipped learners with skills influenced the use of instructional time. FA stated that the allocated time rule had delivered insufficient time for the enactment of the dual curricula.

The instructional time influenced FA to use the acknowledged, committed, and communal forms of enactment. The number of factors that impacted the use of instructional time were the programme goals, learning styles, and shortages of materials. The findings revealed that using a communal enactment that involved the learners in problem-solving activities solved disruptions to teaching and learning, thereby gaining a measure of instructional time. Although two hours had been lost to the demands of the community members to attend to cattle dipping every Wednesday, the consensus to start lessons an hour early on the other three days resulted in more instructional

time than the two hours that were lost every Wednesday. The instructional time that was lost was recovered, with additional time being added.

10.2.10 Enactment goals on ZABEC

The participants on ZABEC shared the following information:

ZA: When the government launched ZABEC, we understood that the goal of the programme was to reduce the level of illiteracy. The low levels of literacy were seen in as contributing to the increase of street children in the community. I suppose the aim is to modify the behaviour of the out-of-schoolchildren, youths and adults to fit that of the community, where we find values such as respect and discipline. Subjects, have their own aims, for example, mathematics aims at producing learners with skills for self-reliance. When I teach it, I will have this aim in mind so that I can equip learners with life skills.

ZB: The goal of ZABEC is to prepare learners to live in the community by providing life skills. Regarding teaching of Shona, one of the aims is to facilitate teaching and learning of the Shona culture. Through teaching Shona, they learn the Shona culture, that is the language and values such as respect and relationships that are found in our totems. I also teach them about communication skills, including speaking and writing skills when using mobile phones.

ZC: I find that some of the aims for ZABEC are very broad such as the one about increasing literacy levels and the other one on preparing out-of-school learners for entry into secondary education for Level One level learners. In teaching English, my aims are similar with the ones that are used in mainstream education [...] An aim in teaching English is to produce learners with basic skills of speaking, reading and writing.

The findings showed that all participants were able to respond on the goal of ZABEC. The participants knew that an aim expresses a long-term intention of an activity. In their own view, the goal of ZABEC was seen as that of providing the community with the type of education that would equip the learners with basic life skills such as entrepreneurships. The NFEP (2015) documented the aim of ZABEC as that of preparing learners to sit the Grade Seven examinations within a period of three years. On the structure of the programmes, Level One covers early childhood development

to Grade Two; Level Two enrolls Grades Three–Five learners; and Level Three is for learners taking Grades 6-7. Each level should take one year. With regard to fulfilling the ZABEC programme aim by separating it into subject aims, all participants revealed that they use aims for the subjects that they teach. They gave some examples which resonated with views by Van den Akker (2009) and Berkvens et al. (2014). Educators should be familiar with goals of teaching, reflecting on them in order to improve teaching. In addition, Khoza (2016) observes that, when educators know the goals for teaching, they are bound to provide a meaningful learning experience.

10.2.11 Enactment objectives on ZABEC

The participants enacting ZABEC programmes said:

ZA: ZABEC cannot produce anything worthwhile without the educator maintaining some focus in their teaching. For example, when I teach mathematics, my objective is to produce learners who are able to conduct operations related to addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. This objective is linked to the ZABEC goal of promoting basic literacy in the community.

ZB: While at college we were told that there is no teaching that can be done without an objective. I have learned to state his lesson objectives in my scheme-cum plan so I can involve the learners in something that I believe serves a purpose [...] such as the following objective for my Shona topic on culture. We sate our objectives in Shona: ‘Kutaura tsika dzakanaka dzinotarisirwa kubva kuvadiki’ (to enable learners to speak about behaviour and practices expected of children). Street children are known to be wayward and that is unacceptable in our culture.

ZC: My understanding of an objective is about what the learners will be able to do in the lesson. When I teach English, I can expect Level One learners to list down all the objects that I would have been teaching them about such as the names. It sounds simple but it may not be done properly because of challenges such as shortage of exercise where they should have written them so they may revise on their own because I want them to remember names of objects.

The data revealed that all the participants on ZABEC had a fairly accurate conception of objectives of teaching. ZA stated that objectives were different from the goals of ZABEC which articulated a broad picture on intentions. Similarly, all the participants were aware that objectives were about

classroom teaching. This was attributed to the committed enactment that was founded on sound teaching qualifications and experience. ZB said that the training background was instrumental in having inculcated in her the understanding and use of lesson objectives in her teaching. ZC provided a bookish meaning of the concept. In addition, primary schools in Zimbabwe are characterised by a close-supervision regime that is driven first by the school heads and their management teams, comprising the deputy school head and senior teachers. The team is accountable to the district and provincial managers for quality assurance in teaching. Objectives make the teaching relevant to the learners (Khoza), however, on condition that objectives are for the public domain, using a communal form of enactment that explains the objectives to the learners.

10.1.12 Enactment outcomes on ZABEC

The data that were generated by participants on the ZABEC is presented and discussed below:

ZA: If an outcome is for learners, then it is for the street children to have a better life [...] they need to have self-help skills [...] such as for vending and for farming. A follow-up question on the use of the conjunction ‘if’ revealed that ZA was unfamiliar with the concept of outcomes. This elicited the inquiry on whether ZA used outcomes in her teaching and learning. *ZA: We do not talk about outcomes in the syllabus.*

ZB: I think an outcome for Shona language is to communicate using the Shona language [...], to write stories, poems and books. On further probing, ZB revealed: *We do not use outcomes but aims and objectives [...]; it is not in the system.*

ZC: The outcome that I can talk about may be about speaking in English with those who may understand the language. English is one of the three major languages including Shona and Ndebele [...]. I do not know why we do not have outcomes. May be they will be in the new curriculum.

Participants were interviewed separately as per the set procedure of the study that was explained to them at the beginning of the data-generation stage. The data revealed that participants were unsure of their responses. They had used the committed enactment, as trained educators, to define

the concept. However, the interviewer was alert for hesitations and terms that might indicate some dissonance, as shown below:

ZA: If an outcome is for learners..... ZB had stated: I think an outcome is..... while ZC responded: An outcome [...], may be about..... . ‘

A follow-up question on whether the participants used learning outcomes revealed that the participants did not understand the concept of outcomes. They did not use the concept of outcomes in teaching and learning. The explanations were varied; and none of them was official.

10.2.13 Interpreting enactment goals on ZABEC

The data revealed that teaching aims and objectives were the two categories of goals that framed teaching in ZABEC instead of three categories. Literature revealed a close link between aims, goals and outcomes (Harden, 2002; Kennedy et al., 2007; Khoza, 2013). The two categories from the findings informed the teaching, and also provided the basis for the assessment of the activity. Aims are broad statements of teaching intentions, while objectives are specific intentions of educators (Khoza, 2013). The use of aims demonstrates the educator's intentions and commitment to successful teaching, at a personal level (Day & Tosey, 2011). This is because aims represent what the participant sets out to achieve in an educator-centred approach. All the participants concurred that teaching objectives influenced teaching in the short duration of the lessons they taught. Participants viewed lesson objectives as a means to effective teaching, based on an approach that was educator-centred. Using the committed form of enactment, participants selected activities that they perceived would facilitate the achievement of learning objectives (Berkvens et al., 2014). The crucial role of objectives is that they ensure the viability of the teaching activity as it is mediated by CHAT elements, namely, the resources and all the other policy/curriculum concepts. How the educators understood the teaching and learning objectives would ensure that there is alignment of teaching elements (Khoza, 2016), leading to the effective accomplishment of learning outcomes. The findings showed that the educators were less confident about what objectives stood for, owing to distorted explanations, thereby raising doubts about the quality of teaching and learning on ZABEC. The participant observations went on to show that participants did not teach with objectives at all.

Literature on outcomes advocates for the adoption of learning outcomes (Harden, 2002; Kennedy et al. 2007; Khoza, 2016; Moon, 2002). The above authors argue that outcomes specify statements that define what learners will be able to do after the attainment of the learning outcomes. Learning outcomes are critical for teaching because they inform the learner of what is to be achieved as a result of the educational intervention (Khoza, 2009). Furthermore, behavioural changes to learners can be observed or measured after the completion of the lesson, Khoza (2015).

The research findings revealed that outcomes were not being used by the participants. They were unknown to the participants. In addition, findings from document analysis confirmed the non-use of learning outcomes, participants only focusing on the use of aims and objectives. The trend was identical in all the primary evidence (scheme books and lesson plans), and in the secondary evidence (syllabus). The findings revealed only speculative data that were generated from a committed form of enactment of general knowledge of English vocabulary. The participants attested to the non-use of learning outcomes in ZABEC. This was important for the interviewer to know. The interview procedure was re-strategised for the other participants on the PTCE and the FLE programmes. The interviews that were to follow were to commence by seeking the positions of each participant on use or non-use of learning outcomes.

10.2.14 Enactment goals on PTCE

The participants responded as follows:

PA: On PTCE, I specialise in teaching Geography. The goal is derived from the NFEP, which says that the programme is for learners who need to have a second chance in their studies. These learners are mainly those who will be repeating a failed subject. These learners now want a better grade from the one they received in the last attempt. Every effort must work towards the goal. In Geography, according to the formal school teaching the aim is to provide an education that enables communities to use resources in a sustainable way. This means that through learning Geography, there will be wise use of resources by the present generations so as to meet its own needs without endangering the needs of future generations.

PB: The aim is a general intention for teaching PTCE [...] it is about giving support to learners who are pursuing secondary education in non-formal ways in such areas as business management. In particular, the aim of teaching business studies is that of developing business skills in order to

promote entrepreneurship for socio-economic development. This aim is in the syllabus and I draw my lesson plans from the syllabus. I prepare learners to become owners of the means of production instead of being employees.

PC: The aim is broader than the objective. The syllabus has got the aims. For example, one of the aims for teaching mathematics is to produce a person who can carry out various calculations. This means that one can conduct the mathematical operations for that level of education. [...] Teaching of mathematics in NFE is about assisting the learners to meet the requirements of the examination by becoming literate in working with figures. Therefore, I hope to produce learners who can suit various capacities and disciplines [...] based on high level thinking skills.

From the findings, the researcher deduces that all participants knew the concept of aims by their accurate descriptions. The participants were all qualified educators who taught mainstream classes where aims are in general use, and are a requirement (Kennedy et al. 2007). Aims indicate the general content (Kennedy et al. 2007) for the use in teaching. PC expressed an aim that focused on mathematics operations. The aim indicated the wide scope of the subject, until it is broken down, owing to the influences of objectives and outcomes. The data also revealed what the participants set out to achieve in the context of their subject specialist role, in the long to medium term (Porter & Smithson, 2001). Aims facilitate the process of setting short-term objectives.

10.2.15 Enactment objectives on PTCE

The PTCE participants responded as follows:

PA: Objective? [...]. I am not sure if there is a difference between an aim and an objective [...]. My objective is to make learners pass so that they can advance with their studies and join tertiary institutions. In this case the objective will be linked to what the learners are paying for. I also use the objective to select the actions that will lead to the achievement of the objective.

PB: I understand an objective to be a statement of intent which is short term. It is advisable to set clear objectives so that I can keep my teaching on track. For example, the objective of a lesson in business studies is: At the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to define marketing. In this

case I shall be able to check their understanding of the concept based on their examples. It is the mark of good teacher to set good objectives [...] because tests are based on the objectives.

PC: In the long-term, the goal for teaching mathematics is to produce someone who is mathematics literate [...], someone who appreciates the usefulness of mathematics in everyday life. In teaching mathematics, the objective has to address what was raised in the syllabus, a mathematics literate person

The findings revealed that not all the participants understood the concept of objectives. PA and PC seemed to have had some doubts on the meaning of objectives, and had taken a considerable amount of time pondering what to say. An objective is expected to be more precise than an aim (Churches, 2008). PB correctly defined an objective, stating that it was a short-term intention of what the learners were to cover. However, it turned out that the response that PB gave was only theoretical as it was revealed during the document analysis phase that the educators did not commit themselves to writing about objectives.

10.2.16 Enactment outcomes on PTCE

The data indicated that PA and PB did not use outcomes at all. PC responded that she used outcomes. On further probing it turned out that her understanding of how to use outcomes was in the scheme book. The last column on the list of contents on what was covered in the scheme book had a heading on outcomes for the participant to summarise the lesson. The data confirmed that the participants enacting the PTCE programme did not use outcomes. Similar reasons to those received from educators on ZABEC were advanced, that the current system of education did not use learning outcomes for teaching and learning purposes.

10.2.17 Interpreting enactment goals on PTCE

From the findings, the researcher deduces that all participants knew the concept of aims, with varying levels of understanding, based on the descriptions that they provided. The participants were all qualified educators who taught mainstream classes in which the use of goals is a requirement (Kennedy et al. 2007). Aims indicate the general content (Kennedy et al. 2007) for the acknowledged use in teaching. Enacting teaching and learning on the PTCE programmes required subject specialists. PC expressed an aim that focused on mathematics operations. On

reflection, the aim indicated the wide scope of the subject content. The findings were expected to reveal what the participants hoped to achieve in the context of their specialist content use, in the long to medium term, aims facilitating the process of setting short-term objectives (Kennedy et al. 2007). The findings revealed that not all the participants understood the concept of objectives.

Regarding learning outcomes, PA and PB stated that they did not use outcomes when they enacted teaching on the PTCE programme. The reason was that their use had not been incorporated into the current system of the enactment of teaching and learning on NFEP programmes. The findings also provided evidence of misconceptions about learning outcomes that already existed in PC. The participant observations confirmed the non-use of learning aims, objectives, and outcomes, although the participants had attempted to define aims and objectives.

10.2.18 Enactment goals on FLE

The participant enacting teaching and learning on the Functional Literacy Education programme on garment construction responded as follows:

FA: This non-formal education programme in garment construction was as a request that were adult made in order to learn how to sew so that they would engage in community At first I thought I would just teach the adults the sewing skills for small items and for repairing clothes [...]. The goal was to assist the adults from the community to raise money for paying children's fees and family income. The school head then made inquiries with other relevant government departments and the programme became registered with HEXCO [...] so that the learners would receive certificates of competence as proof of their learning. It is now a formalized functional literacy education programme. The goal is in the HEXCO syllabus as well as the aim. In short, the aim is to teach learners to construct garments.

According to the data, FA stated that the purpose of the syllabus was to enable the learners to construct garments. A close look at this aim showed that it represented a broad statement of an intention (Kennedy et al. 2007), which would influence a process of learning that results in the production of garments. Furthermore, Noddings (2007) avers that aims inform methods for the teaching activity. This action would be facilitated by the participant's committed enactment, arising from a personal identity. The findings also revealed that FA was aware that the aim for the HEXCO part of the FLE programme was in the document, and it was to teach the learners to

construct garments. This showed that FA was not fully conversant with the concept of aims in NFEP programmes since the aim lacked important information about teaching aims which are the focus on knowledge, skills and attitudes.

10.2.19 Enactment objectives on FLE

The participant enacting the FLE programme said:

FA: Yes, there are objectives for the programme. The main objective is: To teach the learners sewing skills so that they can take care of themselves and to fundraise for other projects that the learners are doing to meet community needs.

The objective that FA stated is more of an aim than an objective. An objective is expected to represent what a participant hopes to achieve in the short term (Khoza, 2016). Instead, FA provides a general intention of what is to be done in the long term. The participant failed to distinguish between an aim and an objective. This problem is linked to the previous discussion on aims, during which FA could not provide an aim for the programme. Khoza (2013) observes that, generally, there is a lack of clarity in educators on the difference between aims and objectives. The terms are being used interchangeably. Nonetheless, the use of objectives is linked to a teacher-centred approach which is a committed enactment use. Furthermore, FA was unable to realise that the FLE programme was a dual programme, which should have had two objectives, one for a vertical curriculum, and another for a horizontal curriculum.

10.2.20 Enactment teaching outcomes on FLE

[Having discovered the non-use of outcomes in the participants who were enacting the ZABEC and PTCE programmes, FA was asked in confidence on her use or non-use of outcomes. FA revealed that it was not the practice yet but without any elaboration].

10.2.21 Interpreting enactment goals on FLE

An analysis of the data for the sub-themes on teaching goals uncovered two categories, namely, aims and objectives. This showed that the educational intentions in the FLE operated with two

categories of goals. The aim represents the broader outlook of intentions, in that the participant plans to achieve over an extended period of time, while objectives are the short-term plans (Kennedy et al. (2007). FA was not quite aware of both the aims and objectives of the FLE. Aims and objectives support one another in influencing the teaching activity in all its spheres of operation, including the assessment (Khoza, 2016). In rationalising understanding of the relationship that exists between the aim and the objective, Dlamini (2017) observes that objectives are derived from aims. Likewise, when an educator uses a committed form of enactment to develop and to use aims and objectives, they use the educator-centred approach. Both aims and objectives represent plans of educators (Ndlovu, 2016). The findings revealed that FA did not fully comprehend the concept of objectives as depicted in the HEXCO syllabus. In addition, FA was not clear on whether the goals of the vertical HEXCO syllabus had merged with those of the horizontal curriculum. This aspect of attempting to deliver a dual programme could have created confusion in both the participant and the learners.

The plans of learners are represented by learning outcomes. Participant FA stated the non-use of outcomes. The syllabus that was in use did not influence the use of learning outcomes. The syllabus relies on aims and objectives to influence the FLE programme teaching and learning as an agreed position of HEXCO policymakers.

10.2.22 Enactment formative assessment (assessment for learning) on ZABEC

The participants had this to say:

ZA: I know that assessment is about knowing the strengths and weaknesses of methods and media [...] I am not quite sure which one is formative [...]. I do a self-reflection and I also reflect on the children's performance. I give the learners written exercises at the end of some lessons in order to measure if they have understood. Sometimes I also give them a test, I think every two weeks. I do it every two weeks so that I do not overwork myself [...]. This is voluntary work. The tests sometimes lead to a repeat of the lesson if I realise that most of the children did not do well. It could be that the children faced some challenges with grasping the lesson.

ZB: It is good to know how the learning is taking place, so I use in-class tests to check on the progress of the learners. Beside that I also use the question and answer technique to check how the children are progressing. The little children are also quick to give oral answers and I use the

opportunity to assist the learners by correcting them, even with the participation of the class. After marking their work, I do some revision with them.

ZC: Formative assessment is something that I do during the teaching and learning. I give the learners group work to see whether or not they have mastered the concepts that I would have taught. I do also give them a test every week but few tests in all because we were told by the supervisor that if the children realise that they are always failing, they will drop out of school. We need to keep them at school instead of letting them go back to the streets. I use the test results to give them remedial work [...] but I am not sure if formative assessment is provided for in the syllabus.

There was a general understanding of the concept of formative assessment and of its importance. All participants commented that formative assessment is conducted during the teaching, in order to check mastery of the contents, as the lessons unfolded. In addition, feedback and revision lessons were conducted. ZA was not sure of the types of assessment and the frequency of the conducting of assessments, while ZC ensured that there were some tests, but concentrated on individual and group work. Although not all participants referred to the formative assessment as assessment for learning, there was ample evidence to attest to the use of the findings on improving learning.

10.2.23 Enactment summative assessment (assessment for learning) on ZABEC

The participants said:

ZA: I think summative assessment is done at the end of Grade Seven course. The ZABEC learners sit with the mainstream learners to write the same examination. The learners will either pass or fail the examinations. In between I am not motivated to do anything much because when you are not paid, you do less work, knowing that what is expected of you in the job. But educators need to be committed to their profession [...]. I hope to do one-to-one assessments in future.

ZB: I do not have the time to keep a record of the tests because of work pressure. I teach a large class in the morning. When I conduct summative assessment, I use tests. I am able to check on progress so that I can recommend some learners to join mainstream classes.

ZC: Summative assessment comes at the end of the term. I conduct end of term test [...], in order to determine progression to next level. ZABEC learners can move to mainstream formal education based on results of the end of term tests.

At first, ZA did not talk confidently about summative assessment, while ZB and ZC showed that they fairly understood the concept. Furthermore, all the participants considered the end-of-term tests as the only type of summative assessment. These data correctly summed up their conception of summative assessment. Khoza, 2015 confirms that summative assessment is conducted at the end of a period of instruction using an examinations format. The participants stated that they gave learners formal examinations to ascertain the mastery and/or achievement of learning outcomes. Teachers use this kind of assessment for grading the learners at the end of the teaching process. After term tests, some learners would be upgraded to the formal education classes. This conforms to the view that summative assessment is used when learners have to be graded after assessment of learning (Ngubane-Mokiwa & Khoza, 2016). ZABEC participants used term examinations to make decisions on upgrading learners to the in-school system.

10.2.24 Interpretation of enactment assessment on ZABEC

The findings showed that ZABEC participants were more familiar with the use of the term continuous assessment, which this study considers synonymous with formative assessment. The use of the terms summative and formative assessment presented problems to one of the participants. Both continuous and formative assessments are approaches that are learner-centred, in which learners are valued as individuals (Berkvens et al., 2014). The study used the term ‘formative’ assessment which is assessment for learning. The findings indicated that formative assessment is assessment that continues throughout the teaching and learning. It is informed by committed enactment, and an acknowledged enactment that seeks to improve learners based on professional content, driven by the participants’ committed enactment. Dlamini (2017) posits that learner-centred teaching drives formative assessments during the learning. This ensures that meaningful interactions are created close to the event. In practice, educators take every

opportunity, driven by the communal enactment, to be alert for incidents among the community of learners. Unwanted incidents can erupt within moments outside the set structures of the teaching and learning activity (Mabuto & Ndlovu, 2014). The educators reported giving feedback and coaching that enhances achievement of learning outcomes.

Summative assessment, also called assessment of learning, remains the traditionally recognised and dominant formal assessment approach in schools; similarly, in the enactment of ZABEC. The use of examinations means that summative assessment is driven by the acknowledged enactment, in which learners are assessed on what they should have learned (Khoza, 2016). In ZABEC, two goals of assessment influence teaching. First, is the use of end-of-year examinations to elevate learners to formal education; and second, is the creating of pathways for entry into high school education. Educators must therefore, keep primary evidence of the learners' performance in order to intervene where necessary. Document analysis produced evidence of books that regularly record performance. Participants maintained three sets of records. These were the remedial, extension work, and test records. These findings demonstrated the participants' committed enactment, during which they used their experience and knowledge to professionally inform both formative and summative assessment.

10.2.25 Enactment formative in PTCE

The participants had this to say:

PA: Oh, formative assessment? I do it to see or assess the learners' progress of the lesson. In the new education curriculum in formal education, it is also called it continuous assessment. Formative assessment is done throughout the learning process. When the learners respond to questions and when they make presentations, I assess their contribution against the facts that I have and provide them some feedback; sometimes as individuals. The feedback can motivate them while I correct their mistakes. It is important for the learners to leave the room with correct information [...]. I use tests and exercises which will help me to measure progress on learners about the topic taught

PB: I regard assessment as the act of judging how well the lesson objectives have been achieved. I need to know how well the content has been understood and I also need to reflect on my own teaching so I may improve it. I conduct continuous assessment at an average of once a fortnight [...] owing to constraints to do with marking. I give short written exercises in the classroom on the work that we will have covered during the week. In addition I give them weekly assignment that they write as homework.

I also conduct spot checks while students are writing the exercises. I will fix what needs to be fixed there and there. I have seen learners improve their performance and concentration levels. Personally I face challenges with the marking. I have three large classes, averaging twenty-five learners that I teach in the school's mainstream. I am forced to mark at night but we have power shortages. I end up using the light from my phone and this is damaging my eyesight (Zvinouraya maziso).

PC: Formative assessment is done during the lesson. After finishing marking I call for the attention of the class and the individuals to areas that require further attention. For example, mathematics is a challenging subject to most people and some of the solutions are better understood when solved during class activities than to wait until learners submit their assignments in the following week. At the moment we do not have enough lighting in the room to do the exercises. However, we have encouraged the use of the WhatsApp platform for learners to consult me and the peers. Even then, lesson time is insufficient. I have 2x45 minutes lessons a week. Learners require more time since most of them are repeating the subjects following unsuccessful attempts, elsewhere.

There is evidence that the participant knew what the concept of formative assessment entails, how to effect it, and when. PB showed the link between assessment and objectives. According to Kettle (2014), such awareness brings about changes in classroom practise. The aspect of formative assessment as assessment for learning is amplified. Several activities were also highlighted, including spot checks, tests, and exercises, as participants were driven by all the three forms of enactment to engage in formative assessment, pose the correct questions and provide individual and group feedback. The feedback sessions were mainly framed by learner-centred teaching that was facilitated by social interactions.

10.2.26 Enactment summative assessment (assessment of learning) on PTCE

The participants responded as follows:

PA: *I assess the learners to see their progress with the work that we will be covering. Although I expect that all the learners should participate in writing the tests, some of them do not attend such sessions when the announcement has been made [...], they are afraid [...] they do not find enough time to prepare since they go to work during the day and they might fail or perform badly [...] so we make them irregular [...] but they turn up for revision.*

PB: *From experience I have learned to trust written tests when I need check on their progress. Since summative assessment comes at the end of the term, I set papers that cover the syllabus. End of term results help me to predict performance in examinations [...] can then revise/redo and prepare learners for national examinations by the Zimbabwe Examinations Council.*

PC: *In my case I conduct fortnightly tests. I then analyse the marks for areas that could have presented challenges to the learners. At times I have had to redo a lesson or the entire past examination paper [...]. We have set up revision groups during weekends owing to time constraints, lack of light in the room that we use owing to power cuts and most learners do not have text books. The WhatsApp platform is helping a lot for transmitting questions and answers.*

Data revealed that the participants enacting the PTCE programme were driven by all three forms of enactment. The acknowledged form of enactment helped with identifying correct responses, the committed form of enactment was informed by educators' experience with enacting assessments, and the communal enactment influenced individual and collective approaches that learners needed for conducting the term examinations. Furthermore, the acknowledged enactment influenced the structure and types of questions that provided mock examination conditions that were based on previous examination papers. The end-of-term and end-of-year examinations dominated summative assessment in PTCE. Dlamini (2017) reports that there was a high rate of the use of examinations as a summative assessment approach, globally. Similarly, all the participants were influenced by the summative assessment in the selection of teaching and learning methods. The main techniques were the frequent review of examination papers, assignments, WhatsApp chat groups, and mock examinations. However, PA and PC indicated that there was a low turnout whenever learners were expected to write a mock test under the supervision of the participants.

10.2.27 Interpreting enactment assessment on PTCE

The data that were collected revealed two approaches to assessment, namely, formative assessment also called assessment for learning and summative assessment, also known as assessment of learning. Both approaches inform teaching in their own way, enhancing both quality and achievement of learning outcomes. It is on this premise that assessment is seen as a way of collecting data about learners' achievements and abilities (Bennett, 2005). Khoza (2016), in a more succinct fashion, states that assessment seeks to address that which is cognitively missing from the learners, rather than focusing on what the learners know already. Khoza is informing teaching that is pursuing a vertical curriculum. The PTCE programme is enacting a vertical curriculum that is driven by performance goals for learners to obtain good passes in national examinations.

With regard to formative assessment (assessment for learning), the findings revealed that the participants were aware of the concept of formative assessment. This awareness influences the committed enactment to drive formative assessments that enhance teaching and learning. Such participants are bound to use assessment goals to inform the process. They are also influenced to select appropriate techniques. Through a committed enactment use, formative assessment is an individualised interactivity between the educator and the learner. This is in order that the feedback session remains focused and that it is guided by the goal of the assessment (Tyler, 1949). The committed enactment informs the participant to be sensitive to the individual needs of the learners. PB raised the need for participants to be aware of the interrelationship that exists between assessment and goals. In PTCE, formative assessment is a part of the life of the teaching activity. This situation arises owing to the social interactions in teaching and learning from various CHAT elements, such as content, tools, and activities that mediate the teaching activity. The assessment goals for providing feedback information to learners inform participants to utilise every opportunity that surfaces during the teaching activity (Back & William, 2009; Mabuto & Ndlovu, 2014).

10.2.28 Enactment formative assessment (assessment for learning) on FLE

The focus of formative assessment is on enhancing the development of the learner (Calidoni-Lundberg, 2006) and on improving the acquisition of knowledge and skill. It is about supporting the learners with understating the knowledge of the vertical curriculum and the competencies of the horizontal curriculum. The features of the process of formative assessment that educators can depend on are to diagnose, interpret, and provide learners with feedback that projects the expected improvements (Buchholtz et al., 2018). It is important for the educator to be aware of the learning outcomes in teaching and learning enactment on which to base the formative assessment (Khoza, 2016), In turn, assessment facilitates the achievement of the learning outcomes by responding to the established criteria for achieving the outcomes (Kennedy et al. 2007). The emphasis on outcomes is premised on the perceived effect of formative assessment on learning, since learners are motivated to achieve known learning outcomes on which assessment will be undertaken (Khoza, 2013). The other characteristic of formative assessment is that it operates as tool for teaching that is based on a feedback system (Houston & Thompson, 2017).

The participant had this to say.

FA: What I do is I ask oral questions from time to time. The learners know that I can ask anyone if nobody volunteers to answer so that we do not waste time. The learners are slow learners and so they hesitate to give answers. So when I get a wrong answer, I correct wrong answers. Same applies with project work [...] I check and correct them so that there is improvement in future.

Formative assessment is framed on providing feedback (Houston & Thompson, 2017). Findings indicted that FA used the acknowledged and the committed forms of enactment for handling the incidents that arose and needed intervention. The committed use of question-and-answer sessions and spot checks were informed by the characteristics of the learners who were hesitant to respond. The participant adopted an education-centred approach.

10.2.29 Enactment of summative assessment (assessment of learning) on FLE

The participant responded as follows:

FA: The learners are going to sit for the national examination this year. At the end of the programme, the assessment will cover sewn objects, tests on theory and assignments. At times I

give them tests so that they can prepare to write their biggest examination so far. I pick some questions from the syllabus. They are dedicated to the programme and so they attend most of the time.

According to the data that sought types of assessment that FA used in the FLE programme, summative assessment was also conducted, in addition to formative assessment. The end-of-year examinations dominated summative assessment in FLE. Using an acknowledged enactment that sought to provide the learners with facts that framed the HEXCO, and committed enactment based on the experience of guiding learners to prepare for examinations, FA sessions were conducted from time to time.

10.2.30 Interpreting enactment assessment on FLE

The findings indicated the use of two approaches for assessing teaching and learning on FLE. These two approaches were being used from a committed enactment use, driven by the participant's profile. FA was a qualified participant for high school teaching and a clothing manufacturing technician. In conducting the particular FLE, the qualifications complemented each other because subject content, pedagogical knowledge and technical skill (competence) were needed in driving the garment-construction course. Ngubane-Mokiwa & Khoza (2016) argue for the use of skilled educators in order that such educators take advantage of developments in the use of technology in education. FA also used the competence, content knowledge, and experience in the pedagogy of teaching high school children, to drive the assessment of learners. Summative assessment takes place after the learning (Ndlovu, 2016). A well-balanced end-of-term test paper required FA to drive learning from the acknowledged and committed enactment.

The findings also showed that FA used close supervision in order to obtain information on challenges to learning. This showed that the instructor role had an influence on the choice of the teaching style. However, close supervision can make adult learners lose confidence, leading to making more errors than necessary. Formative assessment benefiting the learners in developing their personal goals (Khoza, 2015) could be derailed, leading to closer supervision and frustrations for both the participant and the learners. It becomes imperative for educators to become more grounded in the characteristics of their learners, so as to be informed by their learning styles, in setting goals for teaching and assessment.

10.3 Conclusion

Chapter Ten was the closing chapter of three chapters which contributed the voluminous amount of data that were presented, analysed, and interpreted about the phenomenon of the school-model's teaching and learning, in individual programmes. The chapter was an endeavour to respond to Question Three on the reasons for the particular enactment ways that the educators employed. The central role of the forms of enactment, and the concepts that were framed in CHAT, supported the themes, namely, the enactment time rule, enactment goals and enactment assessment. The concepts influenced the type and form of various enactment strategies, and more so, provided the justification for the use of particular ways by the educators. Dynamic relationships among the educators and the teaching and learning phenomenon that were founded on the educators' TPACK influenced the particular rationale for the enactments.

The next chapter, Chapter Eleven, shifted the research focus from that of using the data to obtain a perspective of an exploration of individual programmes, as single units of analysis, to that of transforming the data into a collaboration of effort (Engestrom, 2001). Therefore, the researcher's task was that of putting together the existing findings into a holistic frame that represented educators' enactment of teaching and learning of Zimbabwe's NFEP' programmes, in the school-model. The findings were presented in Chapter Eleven, below.

CHAPTER ELEVEN: IMAGING THE ZIMBABWE NON-FORMAL EDUCATION POLICY' SCHOOL-MODEL ENACTMENT.

11.1 Introduction

Chapter Ten captured data that addressed the search for a rationale for educators. The chapter was an integral part of set of three chapters that singled out each of the three research question for an in depth exploration of the phenomenon. The aim of this part of the research process was that of collecting enough data, presenting, analysing and interpreting the findings on the school-model, based on each programme. Extrapolating the findings from each programme separately facilitated an-depth study of each of them. In general, the findings revealed the strengths and weaknesses that were inherent in the educators and the model of enactment. Importantly, the findings had the potential to produce a true reflection of the school-model as a collaborative undertaking. This was adjudged to the case, owing to the use of a purposively convenience sample of experienced participants. The participants had expressed a willingness to participate in the study, to which they brought authentic information (Makumane, 2018)

The process of capturing the findings paved the way for a process of encapsulating the findings. Therefore, Chapter Eleven, set out to capture the landmarks of the enactments, in order to produce theory that reflected and represented the school-model of enactments. First to emerge from the data was a modified activity theory for enacting teaching on NFEP programmes

11.2 Enactment Activity Theory (EAT) - paraded

The Enactment Activity Theory (EAT) is an adaptation of theory by Engestrom (2001), and Koszalka and Wu (2007), who contend that the dynamic nature of the CHAT remains open for the development and application of other activity theories. Although Yamagata-Lynch (2009) postulates that the application of the CHAT has been globalised, and Hancock and Miller (2018) add that the use of the CHAT has cascaded to the education discipline, a gap exists on its use in non-formal education, based on the paucity of research into NFE. The CHAT explains the relationship between actors (educators), the activity (teaching and learning) and the specific context of artefacts (such as rules, division of labour, and community) that mediate the relationship (Foot, 2014).

The EAT, as an emerging theory, contributes an awareness of the economic factor, which is a contemporary dilemmatic proposition in developing countries. The researcher observes that the mediating effect of the economy has led to either improvements or lack of improvements in many education programmes in developing countries. Public NFE programmes are seriously underfunded and have become marginalised in developing countries (Ndlovu, 2016). The CHAT offers many elements that guide Shoba (2018) observes that the CHAT is often discussed alongside curriculum concepts. This indicates that the financial aspects of accessing quality education are discussed like any other concepts and yet the current study revealed an overwhelming effect of the economic factor in the enactment of teaching and learning in the school-model. The list financially related challenges ranges from the effect on learners' lack of resources, the bad state of some knowledge spaces and lack of adequate remuneration for participants. The researcher argues that the EAT provides an opportunity for increased dialogue on economic issues, based on targeted research and credible findings. Figure 11.1 provides a representation of the EAT, which shows more focus on economic factors, than in the CHAT. It attempts to attract increased attraction and motivation by separating the economic issues, away from the mainstream CHAT elements and places them in the left-hand side of the diagram..

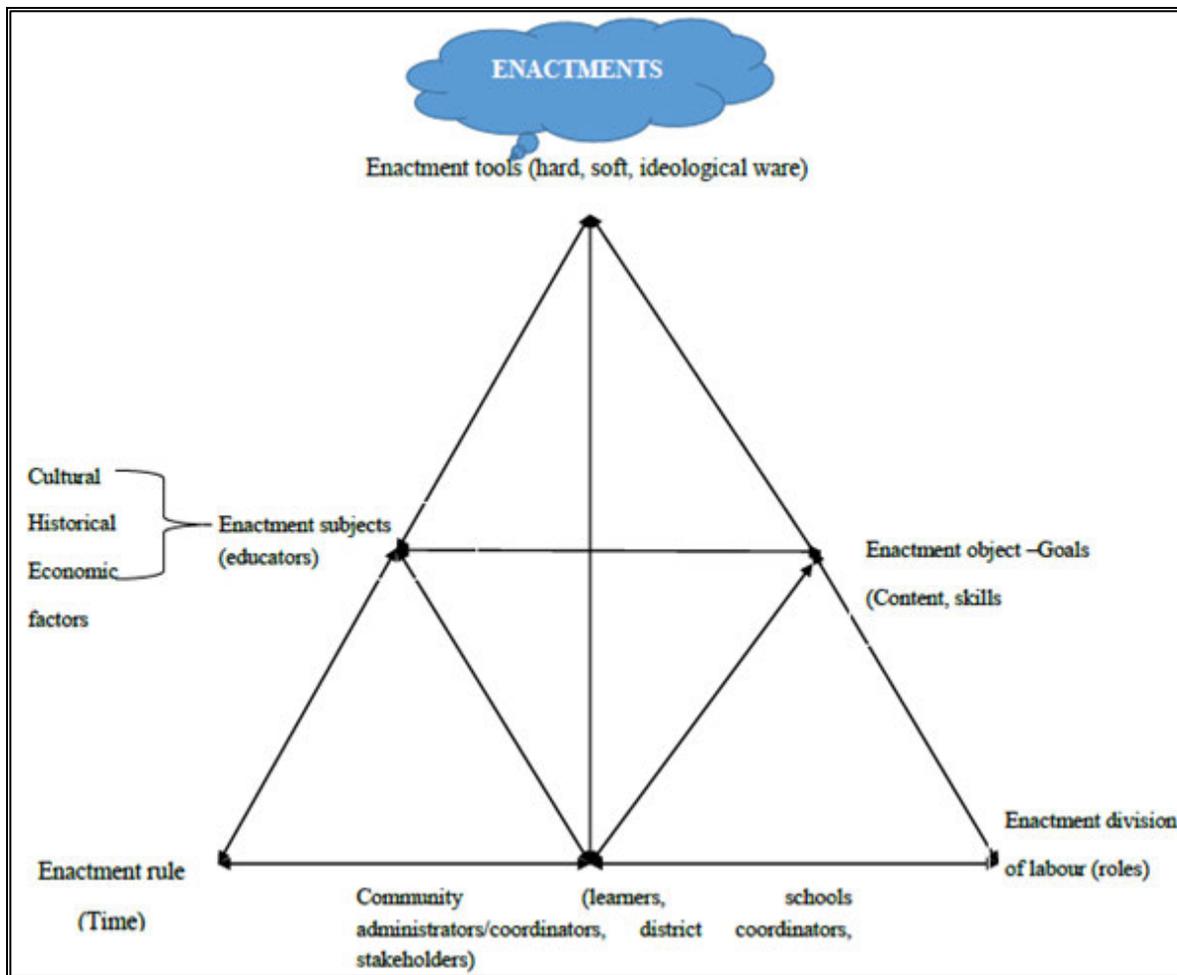


Figure 11.1: Enactment Activity Theory (Adapted from Engestrom, 2001 and Koszalka & Wu, 2007).

The EAT explores the influence of forms of enactments in driving NFEP programmes' teaching and learning. In the EAT diagram, the cloud represents the 'biblical' cloud that inspired and directed the Israelites on the goal of reaching Canaan, hangs above Figure 11.1. In the cloud (the mind) are the forms of enactment that educators use to drive teaching and learning in NFEP's programmes in the school model.

The EAT recognises that an activity ensues from an educator's motivations, which are grounded in culture and history, resulting in specific actions (Nassbaumer, 2012). Educators depend on their forms of enactment, which enable them to engage specific actions towards the goals of NFEP programmes teaching and learning. Using the forms of enactment, educators can create and control

the teaching and learning activity (Khoza, 2015). These are the acknowledged, communal, and committed forms of enactment that educators use to connect to and with all other NFEP curriculum and CHAT elements (See Figure 11.1). On this note, Khoza (2016) comments that enactments are the foundation for why educators enact teaching in the ways they do. The EAT is not another extension of Vygotsky's representation of the CHAT activity system. It is a further development of CHAT, which argues for the economic factor to be a stand-alone factor. The EAT argues that the economic factor is not well articulated in CHAT, and yet it has great influence in determining the quality of education. Studies by Kasowe (2018) and Midzi (2013) attest to the stunted growth of the NFE, owing to the lack of financial resources.

Therefore, in keeping with the focus of the study on context-specific enactments by educators, the EAT recognises the influence of economic factors on the enactment of all the curriculum concepts. The economic factor joins Koszalka and Wu's (2007) group of factors that mediate the CHAT activity, owing to cultural, social, and historic factors. The EAT is a flexible theory that can be modified to suit the context of the activity. Its thrust is to observe the phenomenon in greater detail than with CHAT alone. As such, the EAT is aware that NFE operates in a dynamic socio-economic environment and therefore, its goals cannot be fully realised without due consideration of the economic factors. The CHAT concentrates on cultural and historical mediated effects, while EAT advances the economic factor which also informs the forms of enactments that can be used to drive teaching and learning.

The study's modified enactment theory (EAT) prioritises the understanding of one's enactment as being 'subject to the holder' The successful use of forms of enactments are contingent upon the educators' ability to constantly update, recontextualise, and align their forms of enactment in order to remain aligned with the community's goals, which are mediated by financial forces. Educators must therefore, be flexible and adjust their enactments accordingly. Furthermore, there must be a connectedness between and among the enactments and all the other curriculum and CHAT elements, so that interruptions to the activity that are influenced by the economic factor are kept at a minimum.

For stability, the EAT is grounded in culture and history, as factors which support the activity's enactment (Edward, 2011), which include the economic factor. This rationale is grounded on the perception that NFE is not a second-rate education, but that it is complementary to formal education (Yasunaga, 2014). Therefore, NFE should have financial access to government funding

like formal education. Currently, it is sustained by the committed enactment of the generosity of the donor community and of the immediate communities that seek to be assisted, in order to obtain basic skills, by paying school levies. (Nziramasanga, 1999; Midzi, 2013; MoPSE Circular C/539/200). Financial resources are used for the purchase of materials and to pay incentives for educators.

The EAT was chosen in order to explore the possibilities and probabilities of transforming the teaching and learning activity, by attending to the economic factor. Books, as hardware resources, have a socio-cultural mediation effect of knowledge transmission, and their unavailability destabilises goal attainment. School administrators must make decisions that support NFEP enactment of teaching and learning. Other stakeholders, in their differing capacities, need to contribute to the success of the teaching and learning by contributing finance, knowledge, experience, passion, including the political will to do so. Therefore, the committed enactment use by various players who demonstrate passion will reduce conflicts and tensions (Shoba, 2018) that are linked to the economic factors in the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP school model. The EAT becomes a reliable tool for the analysis of the data from the individual programmes.

The EAT may be used for obtaining an understanding of the forms of enactment that educators used when enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes of the school model. The various components of the activity were analysed, and their mediational influence interpreted. In turn, the three forms of enactment influenced the use of the enactment resources, enactment content, and access to enactment, based on designated responsibilities (division of labour). Furthermore, the enacted rules, enactment goal, and enacted assessment determined the rationale for the particular ways of enacting teaching and learning, in an effort to transform the activity towards the outcome (Koszalka & Wu, 2007). The educators in the study were not alone in transforming the activity. There were other community members, including the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, as custodians of the policy that mandated the schools to enrol NFE learners. By virtue of the national constitution, out-of-school children, youths, and adults were no longer precluded from education. Similarly, management in schools was responsible for ensuring access to quality education by providing resources; however, they were constrained by the prevailing socio-economic environment. All the components of the EAT were mobilised to attain the NFEP goals for teaching. The goals were:

- To promote high-quality, relevant, and inclusive non-formal education
- To increase access to education through the informal route
- To provide adult learners, youths, and out-of-school children with functional skills

The intention of proposing the EAT in this study is that of raising awareness on the presence of CHAT factors that mediate the activity of teaching and learning. The gap that needs to be addressed is about understanding and mitigating the economic factor, in such a way that ensures that learning outcomes are achieved. Theoretically, any education system may want to improve access to quality education, but for Zimbabwe, it is realistically beyond the reach of the government, owing to high inflation. The EAT proposes the development of structures that promote the incubation of innovative, sustainable solutions, that align with the theory's thrust on contextualisation, such as the production of localised content in the form of books, booklets, and charts. This study proposes the use of EAT in order to isolate the key socio-cultural, historical, and economic factors, before presenting them as recommendations. Ideally, EAT must be operationalised in the field during data generation. Educators can then reflect and suggest solutions that may improve the enactment of teaching and learning. The recommendation is to use EAT at source, that is, during the fieldwork, in order to engage the participants in communal, committed, and acknowledged enactments. Participants, as groups, and as individuals, interpret the enactment phenomenon (Sheikh and Bagley, 2018). Thus they provide creative, contextualised solutions that improve and sustain the teaching and learning in NFEP school-model programmes, such as the use of WhatsApp by some participants in this study.

11.3 Educators' forms of enactment driving the school model

Research Question One: What forms of enactment do educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes at selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?

It can be concluded from the findings that all three forms of enactment in the literature influenced the educators in enacting teaching and learning on the non-formal education programme (NFEP) in schools. These forms of enactment were the acknowledged, committed, and the communal enactments that Khoza (2016) affirms are the foundation of all teaching and learning; all teaching decisions are derived from forms of enactment. The use of these forms of enactment was

influenced by the educators' personal identities. Table 10.2 contained the data on the educators' profiles. Shoba (2018) comments that personal identities play a central role in that they help with making decisions on teaching and learning. Educators need to possess knowledge, skill, attitudes, foresight, and experience with which to interpret and translate their understanding of teaching and learning into meaningful experiences. Therefore, the educators' personal identities, also called personal technologies by Khoza (2016), provided the ideological-ware (IW) resources on which the enactments were founded. IW resources are personal technologies (Khoza, 2016) that compose one's personal identity. The IW resources exist in the mind of the educator, thereby influencing each educator to interpret goals, content, theories, and principles that uniquely surround the scholarship of teaching and learning (Makumane, 2018), largely the curriculum concepts. Consciously or subconsciously, one's personal technologies trigger conceptualisation and contextualisation about social interactions, resulting in one of the forms of enactment becoming more prominent than others at driving the enactment of the phenomenon.

Subsequently, each form of enactment becomes the central position from which the educator directs the educational activity. The positioning of the directing cloud in Figure 11.1 is a visual representation of the concept and significance of forms of enactment. The educators derive their forms of enactment not only from personal experiences but, more so, from the teaching goals (Khoza, 2016). The enactment activity theory (EAT) articulates the interrelatedness among various elements of the activity, namely subjects, resources, rules, division of labour, the community, and the object. Figure 11.1 uses arrows to rein in every component towards the object. Similarly, the educators use their ideological-ware (IW) resources that frame each educator's personal identity, to create and sustain meaningful learning experiences. Responsible authorities, as community members in EAT, must ensure that they hire educators based on the tested, testified and observed educator technologies. The educators in this case study were qualified to teach formal education. The data revealed that all the educators in this study, after some attempts, identified their forms of enactment as they responded to the question on the rationale for teaching on the NFEP programmes. This was an important step because educators commence from a position of identifying their form of enactment of teaching and learning (Khoza, 2015).

The findings pointed to the use of all the forms of enactment differently in the various programmes by the different educators. Khoza (2015) attests to the fact that there is always one form of

enactment that will be dominant over the other forms. The dominant forms of enactment that the data revealed were the communal enactment and the acknowledged forms of enactment, while the committed enactment supported the acknowledged and the communal enactments. The evidence that supported the researcher's findings is summarised below, commencing with the communal enactment use.

The communal enactment was quite conspicuous in the enactment of the ZABEC and the FLE where it influenced a number of decisions that affected the enactment of the programmes. The educators enacting teaching and learning in these programmes promoted the competence learning needs of the community as much as the official performance needs that are in the NFEP (2015). The horizontal knowledge became ideal for providing solutions, since this form of knowledge has a shared history and originates from efforts to solve common problems, thereby making it context-specific (Bernstein, 1999). The particular influence on the educators was the plight of the community members who could not enrol in the mainstream system of education, owing to various circumstances, such as age restrictions and a lack school fees that were charged by the formal schools. The educators believed that, when 'street children' were unoccupied owing to a lack of skills, this led to anti-social behaviour (ZABEC) and that unemployed adults, youths would struggle to support the welfare needs of their families (FLE). The ZABEC educators were enact a part of the programme that sought to provide former street children with basic life skills such for use at vending. The FLE educator enacted a programme that had a component that sought to impart basic garment construction skills to village adults and youths.

ZA: I wanted to help the community which had become infested with people who were being looked down upon and who were neglected. When we started, there were many unemployed adults, youths and children who were either idle or doing some naughty things, such as taking drugs and stealing. There were others who were in informal trading activities where they sold various goods for a living. But they did not earn much because they did not have good skills for doing business. The idea behind ZABEC is to empower such people with skills. Similarly, ZB said: I am aware that these children and youths lack school fees and that their parents might be deceased, resulting in child headed families. The community regards 'street kids' as community rejects and so these children need to be accepted by the community and even by their families and guardians [...].I grew up as an orphan, too and I know how they feel. The cultural values such as respect for elders,

for other people and for people's property promote peace and unity in the community [...] I teach them basic education skills.

ZB: I am enacting the ZABEC in an effort to rid the surrounding streets of children who are not attending school

FA: Following the delivery of industrial sewing machines for use by the secondary school learners, some community members (adults) requested that they learn garment construction [...]. I volunteered to train the adults. The adults were to get skills that enable them to generate funds towards fees for their children and money for their families [...].

In both instances, the educators enacted non-formal education as the form of education for social preparation (Ngubane-Mokiwa & Khoza, 2016). Beneficiaries were to obtain skills that would enable them to live meaningful lives in the community. What was also discernible was that the educators showed a committed enactment by expressing sympathy towards the learners. Sympathy is a personality trait that frames problem-solving education in which learners' needs gain individual attention (Dole et al. 2016; Monstrom & Blumberg, 2012; Zohrabi et al. 2012; Dole et al. 2016; Monstrom & Blumberg, 2012; Zohrabi et al., 2012). Therefore, sympathy was accompanied by action that was driven by the committed enactment in the communal enactment of ZABEC.

Furthermore, the CHAT implies that the community produces the activities for the individuals who have been designated responsible for the enactment (Edwards, 2011). Educators used the communal enactment to respond to the needs of the community. The educators spoke of their passion for communal enactment. An analysis of the NFEP (2015) and the Secretary's Circular Minute Number 13 of 2016 required that educators follow the vertical curriculum that is used in the formal education system. This is the key message on curriculum adoption by the Secretary of Education: "There is one curriculum and same syllabi in Zimbabwe for all learners-on formal or NFE. Therefore, NFE will use the same Curriculum and syllabi the in-school learners use" (Secretary's Circular Minute Number 13 of 2016, p.5). Instead, the educators' form of enactment was aligned with the horizontal curriculum. When educators use a vertical curriculum, learners are assessed so that they move in a hierarchy from one level to the other.

Learners are assessed on the development of the cognitive domain (factual knowledge), while the communal enactment use is aligned with a horizontal curriculum in which time is unlimited and is flexible; and the knowledge/content is common to all members (Bernstein, 1999). Yet, observation visits revealed that the educators were enacting ZABEC with textbook knowledge, while the FLE programme was being driven by HEXCO curriculum goals. Accordingly, the findings revealed that the educators did not understand the programme goals of the ZABEC-that it was an accelerated programme for the vertical progression of primary school learners. Educators were not aware of the government directive to use the formal education syllabus only, including its goals.

Khoza (2015) comments that: “Successful teachers in teaching start by identifying and understanding their curriculum vision followed by identifying relevant goals from their subject content” (p. 105). There was a lack of consistency in the educators’ minds about the goals for enacting the ZABEC. The ZABEC educators did not know the goals for enacting ZABEC in the school-model enactment of the NFEP teaching and learning. In turn, the learners were bound to be confused by the strong use of the acknowledged form of enactment and the communal enactment. The learners would miss the strong foundation that was needed to be laid at Level One for use at Level Three when they were to be assessed through a national examination. The FLE learners and the educator were subjected to pressure in the pursuit of both a vertical and a horizontal curriculum. The FLE educator was unsure as to which goals were the official ones for driving the programme, leading to the use of inappropriate pedagogy for enacting FLE to adults and youths.

The findings revealed the ZABEC educators based their decisions on their perceived goals of ZABEC, and not on the formal education goals. This means that the goals that educators use for driving the communal enactment were neither ZABEC goals nor the formal education goals. The school model in the study therefore, has sections of its programmes that conflict with the MoPSE’s goals for the programme. According to the Secretary’s Circular Minute Number 13 of 2016, the goal of the programme was to prepare the learners to write Grade Seven examinations. The educators were enacting teaching and learning without understanding the goals of the programme. Khoza (2016) observes that, when educators teach without understanding forms of enactments and goals, they cannot produce quality teaching. .

On a positive note, the analysis of the communal enactment of the ZABEC and the FLE demonstrated that, in accordance with CHAT, the educators found an opportunity of addressing

tensions in the community involving marginalised members, such as street children and villagers, based on the cultural and historical factors (Hancock & Miller, 2018). The communities had expectations that members were to be equipped with skills for making meaningful contributions in life; and the educators had a desire to engage the members in basic education. The introduction of ZABEC and the FLE influenced the educators to reconstruct the enactment of formal-school education and the learning activity (Foot, 2014), by embracing the observed concerns and interests of the community. In enacting the activities, the educators found an opportunity of expressing their sympathy with the communities. With such an attitude, the educators were able to manage the tensions and conflicts that also affected them while they enacted teaching and learning, such as the shortages of materials, working long hours, and the low levels of allowances and complex learning styles that were aggravated by age.

The enactment phenomenon that the educators experienced resembles the CHAT principle of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which represents the encounters that educators experience and have to understand (Engestrom, 2001). In response, the educators used the committed enactment to reconstruct teaching and learning, enacting it from personalised syllabi, personal resources while showing tolerance for the low incentives that they received, in order to manage tensions arising from the ZPD. The ZPD is known for facilitating decision-making that promotes critical thinking in educators (Khoza, 2015).

On a similar note, the reconstruction of the FLE programme in order to accommodate a vertical curriculum saw the learners being prepared for assessment for both factual knowledge and skills. Tensions relating to the allocation of time and other tangible resources between the horizontal and the vertical curriculum, surfaced FA and the learners had to manage the tensions, based on a communal enactment that involved all the learners, thereby resulting in the equitable distribution of time and resources. Ngubane-Mokiwa and Khoza (2016) point out that enacting two sets of curricula is not easy. The two curricula, presented conflicts and problems to the educator, owing to the differences in the enactment goals.

In a final part of the discussion on the forms of enactment that educators use in the school model, educators enacting teaching and learning in the PTCE programme used all three enactments in different settings. The findings showed that the educators used the acknowledged form of enactment and the committed enactment almost side by side. Both of these forms of enactment supported the enactment of a vertical curriculum that was pronounced by the MoPSE in the NFEP

(2015) and the formal education curriculum. The committed form of enactment decision influenced the decisions on the acknowledged form of enactment in driving the goals of the vertical curriculum. These forms of enactment complemented each other. In the enactment of teaching, the educators' personal identities were those of professional subject specialists who had respect for facts that framed the acknowledged enactment. The following excerpts confirmed the findings.

PA: *I am employed to teach geography because I am a good teacher.*

PB: *Professional teaching is my job,*

PC: *I have been 'schooled' in Mathematics and to teach Mathematics is my profession*

This showed that all the educators were recruited to enact what they were professionally trained to do. Padraig and McLaughlin (2009) and Angell, Ryder and Scott (2014) concur that subject specialists are concerned about the transmission of professional content. The educators were most comfortable with the acknowledged enactment use in which they disseminated the content of their discipline. Khoza (2016) confirms the appropriate use of the acknowledged form of enactment, citing the use of content with which to develop the learners' cognitive domain. In addition, the vertical curriculum that the educators used demanded teaching that prioritised equipping learners with facts in addressing national assessments in the respective subjects that they had enrolled for. The acknowledged was an enactment that aligned with the PTCE goal that promoted the vertical and hierarchical progression of the learners, based on performance on the content that they should have covered (Hoadley & Jansen, 2014).

However, the enactment of NFEP teaching and learning was framed by various factors that mediated the forms of enactment. These factors were located in the CHAT and were subsequently contextualised in the EAT. The educators interacted with many mediating tools during teaching and learning (Kisaka-Jwan, 2018), such as poorly lit facilities, time constraints, and shortages of books. The EAT theory was concerned that, otherwise, the mediating tools could 'take down' the teaching and learning activity by influencing the educators to abandon the enactment altogether. Instead, the committed form of enactment that was characteristic of the educators, owing to attitudes that supported addressing the education needs of the community. PB: *I also have an urge to go an extra mile in my line of duty as a professional educator in the community [...]*

PA: *I want to impart knowledge for the next generation's survival. .*

These findings suggested that the educators used the committed form of enactment and were resilient in order to sustain the enactment of teaching and learning. Both the acknowledged and committed forms of enactments influenced the use of a 'compressed' syllabus, past examination papers, mobile phones for lighting, and the WhatsApp chat groups, as coping mechanisms. Khoza (2015) observes that, when educators reflect on their enactment of teaching and learning, they are bound to solve the problems themselves. The learners might not have received good quality teaching, owing to the mediated effects of the environment factors.

In conclusion on the type of enactments that educators enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP school-model programmes used, the findings are that the educators used all three forms of enactment for driving teaching and learning, based on the educators' interpretation of the goals of the programme and the curriculum concepts.

11.4 Educators' enactment practices driving school model

Research Question Two: How do educators enact teaching and learning in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?

Theme Two provided part of the response on how the educators used enactment resources, namely, the hardware (HW), software (SW) and ideological-ware (IW) resources to enact teaching and learning. The findings were that all the educators used the resources that were available to them in order to facilitate teaching and learning. According to the CHAT, educators are the agents that the community has engaged to enact the activity with the help of tools (Koszalka & Wu, 2007). The object of the activity system has to be mediated by tools that are oriented towards an object (Hancock & Miller, 2018). The CHAT was employed in order to analyse how educators unpacked the teaching and learning, based on resources. Edwards (2011) observes that, by focusing on resources, CHAT enhances understanding of how educators used tools; and what aspects of teaching and learning they prioritised. This assertion is aligned with the educator's forms of enactment that determine the resources.

All the educators used resources to shape their teaching and learning. The findings showed that the commonly used resources within the NFEP programmes were HW resources. These were the resources that most of the educators knew and had had experience with their use from the days

when they were also learners. Books, charts, objects, reading cards, industrial sewing machines, mobile phones and official documents such as syllabi were the examples of HW resources the educators knew and used. The educators were not aware that mobile phones were categorised as hardware resources which housed the software that they used for enacting teaching and learning. The list of resources that were omitted included the chalkboard and examination papers which the researcher discovered were in constant use, during participant observations revealing that the concept of hardware resources was new to the participants. One of the ways for enacting teaching and learning that the educators had devised, was an innovation in which in the use of mobile phones in a communal enactment. Past examination papers were also another unusual enactment resource that was in common use. The educators who enacted the vertical curriculum on the PTCE and the FLE programmes stated that the past examinations papers were a reliable source of the topics of the past that the educators used for enacting the vertical curriculum.

The HW resources were largely used by educators for communicating learning to the learners. Educators were driven by the communal form of enactment to teach learners using classroom boards, models, examination papers, industrial machines and charts. There was an acknowledged enactment that drove the educators to use of books which learners used in groups or as individuals to source content. The shortage of books, as the traditional resources for learning, resulted in limited use of learner-centred approaches, while educator-centred teaching promoted rote learning in which learners used existing content from educators instead of constructing knowledge (Rodrigo, 2017).

Hancock and Miller (2018) point out that, in the practise of CHAT, challenges are opportunities for praxis. Similarly, some of the educators who enact teaching and learning in NFEP programmes created opportunities for the use of SW resources as means of communicating information by using the WhatsApp software in mobile phones This was a solution to the shortage of books and other teaching and learning materials. Educators had responded to the influence of the CHAT activity's dynamic environment, in which they needed to adapt (Foot, 2014), through innovative ways, such as e-learning. The use of mobile phones brought relief to educators and learners. E-learning promotes learner-centred learning, in which learners create and control their learning environments (Sodje, 2019), through the communal form of enactment. Khoza (2009) says the use of electronic technology enables access to information, globally, in faster ways than ever imagined. Educators

created vibrant WhatsApp chat groups in the communal form of enactment in which many learners linked to the educator and to peers.

There was some evidence on the use of ideological (IW) resources by all the educators, although the concept was new to them. The CHAT refers to the same concept as conceptual tools (Foot, 2014; Hancock & Miller, 2018). Khoza (2017) defines IW resources as teaching experiences, strategies, methods and theories that determine which HW and SW e-resources to use. Educators in the NFEP school-model programmes used IW resources in order to facilitate making decisions on what to teach, how, when, why, and with what. There were instances in which educators enacted teaching using theories, narrations of Bible verses, and the software in the charts that were on display.

Taole (2013) confirms that the selection of resources is based on the ideology of the individual educator. It was evident from the findings that one of the ways for enacting teaching and learning was in the use of IW resources. There were incidences that revealed that educators were driven by the committed enactment of empathy, sympathy and passion. According to literature, educators are expected to enact teaching and learning based on some theory (Budden, 2017), something that some of the educators claimed that they did. However, none of the educators was observed using theories of teaching.

According to Theme Three, educators used enactment content to enact teaching and learning. Further analysis of the findings revealed discrepancies between curriculum concepts that are in the literature and the concepts in the intended curricula for enacting teaching and learning by educators. The curriculum in use from the MoPSE and HEXCO were silent on the use of personal curricula and syllabi which the educators derived from the official curriculum document for designing their own contextualised teaching and learning. Teaching and learning were enacted using both documented content and undocumented content.

Accessibility to facilities, finance, and culture are factors that were used to address ways in which educators enacted teaching in NFEP programmes. Driven by a communal form of enactment, all schools were centrally located within reach of most of the learners. The educators enacting ZABEC and FLE programmes accessed the learners in safe environments that were also spacious. The PTCE programme was largely a night school that ironically was conducted in a room that did not have lighting at all, owing to the national electricity load-shedding programme that has resulted in

availability only in the early hours of the morning. These learners and educators improvised by using lights from students' mobile phones. This lack of adequate light influenced the use of face-to-face activities in the form of lectures and question-and-answer sessions. Learners and educators who preferred learner-centred teaching were disadvantaged. The quality of teaching and learning is compromised in such unsafe environments (Schneider, 2002) as educators rely more on educator-centred pedagogy than learner-centred approaches (Ahmed, 2017).

Financially, attending NFEP programmes was affordable to most learners. The learners were levied Z\$ 15 (USD 2) per term to enrol in ZABEC; Z\$25, USD 3 for FLE learners, and Z\$40 (USD 5) for PTCE learners, at the time the data were generated for the study. Meanwhile, only the learners on ZABEC paid for their school uniforms. The decision was to use the school uniform as a behaviour-modification tool to integrate the former 'street children' within the in-school system.

On a similar note which influences the way educators enact teaching and learning, Sukuraman (2015) comments that educators need reasonable incentives. The lack of satisfactory incentives influenced educators to adopt particular ways, such as working to meet only minimum standards for the activity. One educator admitted to reducing the number of tests, citing the amount of work from marking the test scripts while he was not paid adequately.. According to CHAT, all activity systems are mediated by socio-cultural and historical factors (Koszalka & Wu, 2007). Financial access for educators has an influence on the quality of teaching, in that the committed form of enactment, from which all teaching decisions emanate, must positively mediate the activity system so that learning outcomes may be achieved efficiently, and effectively.

ZA: We are having air pies for lunch

This was a signal that participants would adopt particular ways of teaching and learning in order to compensate for the employer's treatment that had resulted in the low morale among the educators.

Educators did not quite understand the concept of cultural access and the CHAT provides a framework around which the teaching and learning activity revolves. Culture mediates the way people think and act, which includes how the educators enact teaching and learning. Edward (2011) confirms that the influence of culture is observed in analyses of the way people think and behave. The findings revealed that one educator enacted teaching based on personal beliefs of cooperation

and hard work and shared teaching resources with peers. Another educator was driven by Christian values. The values were used for creating a peaceful learning environment of respect for the educator, for the learners, and for the resources.

The use of various teaching approaches by educators also sheds light on how the educators enacted teaching and learning based on different roles. The committed form of enactment was instrumental in assisting educators with making decisions on roles that were aligned with particular activities. The CHAT uses the concept of division of labour so that educators account for their roles (Engestrom, 2001). Educators enacting teaching and learning grounded their decisions on the three forms of enactment from the literature (acknowledged, communal, and committed). The acknowledged form of enactment influenced the use of educator-centred teaching in the school-model programmes. The educator-centred approach aligns with the instructor role (Taole, 2013). The committed form of enactment is content/discipline driven and assumes a subject specialist role that suits the educator who is content-centred (Padraig & McLaughlin, 2009). Another way that educators used was the problem-solving approach in which the educator facilitates teaching and learning using learner-centred approaches (O'Neill, & McMahan, 2005; Sparrow, Sparrow & Swan, 2000). The educators were not quite familiar with the problem-solving learner-centred approach, and most of them did not use the approach significantly, citing the pressure to control activities, owing to external factors such as time and work overload. The findings showed that all the educators often used educator-centred activities that influenced the adoption of either the instructor role or the subject specialist role. In other words, the educators in the NFEP programmes' enactment case study adopted particular forms of activities and roles that were unique to the context of the phenomenon. This was in order to maximise the attainment of curriculum goals (O'Neill & McMahan, 2005). The CHAT reaffirms that the key roles of actors are shaped by preconditions and precipitating causes that may crystallize the development of the activity (Foot, 2014). The enactment of the NFEP teaching and learning was mediated by the contextualised factors that were characterised in EAT, especially the economic factors that resulted in poor lighting in some facilities and low level incentives for educators and an acute shortage of teaching and learning resources.

11.5 Educators' enactment rationale driving school-model

Question Three is the study's final question in the set of questions that guided this analysis of findings from Chapter Eight to Chapter Ten. It reads: Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe? These findings were obtained by using three themes and their respective categories, in order to understand the rationale for the particular ways that educators enact teaching and learning in NFEP school-model programmes used. Theme 6 (enactment time rule); Theme 7 (enactment goals); and Theme 8 (enactment assessment) were interrogated and the findings revealed the following insights.

This search for a response on why educators enact NFEP teaching and learning in the particular ways they do, is guided by Sannino and Engestrom's (2018) explanation of the CHAT on mediation, and how subjects act in particular ways. The above authors stipulate that the human mind constantly engages activities by means of cultural artefacts, such as tools and rules. The authors the authors were not judgmental on the influence of the artefacts, which can be detrimental to the achievement of education outcomes, such the educators' dependence on educator-centred activities that do not expose learners to creative thinking. Therefore, educators teach in certain ways owing to the mediational effects of various factors. When educators interact with rules on time, aims, objectives, outcomes, and forms of assessments, they conjure up activities for use in enacting teaching and learning.

Regarding the enactment time as a factor that explains why educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do, Ndlovu's (2016) advice is that time is a finite resource, it is limited. Educators who enacted teaching and learning in the way they did were aware that they needed time in which to do so. Time had to be used effectively for teaching and learning purposes. Educators needed to be aware that allocated time was explicit, in that the rule had to be adhered to, fully. Only one participant knew the rationale behind the allocated time that framed the school-model programmes.

PC: The school NFE committee made the decisions pertaining to time and venue that we are following. Some of the issues were to ensure that the educators were not overloaded with work outside their normal formal education workload [...].

Educators enacting teaching and learning within the NFEP programmes were divided on the amount of both allocated and instructional time, as to whether it was sufficient or not. The

educators who did not know the rationale behind the allocation of the enactment time rule enacted teaching and learning in particular ways that were influenced by this lack of essential information. They could not adjust their ways to align with a reality that they did not know. These educators were persistently dissatisfied about the time rule since they ran out of time, selected more content than they could cover and were forced by circumstances to use the educator-centred activities and instructor roles (Taole, 2013). The findings were that time influenced the educators in the selection of curriculum concepts to use in enacting teaching and learning. Hence, the forms of enactment influenced the use of particular approaches, resources, activities, content, learning spaces, in conformity with the enactment time rule's requirements.

There were educators who managed the allocated time and implied instructional time, effectively by using educator-centred approaches. On one hand, Dole et al. (2016) support the educator-centred approaches in which the educators are in control of teaching according to the time rule. On the other hand, Sukumaran (2016) criticises educator-centred activities for prioritising efficiency over effectiveness. In the enactment of the teaching and learning activity, the CHAT recognises the importance of contextualising and recontextualising the activities (Engestrom, 2001; Sheikh & Bagley, 2018), in order to produce an alignment of the elements of the activity system.

The other factor that influenced the effective management of time, leading to particular ways of teaching, was the educators' use of the committed form of enactment, by which the educators believed that teaching must be free from disruptions (Catalano and Catalano, 1999). Educators who taught lower-level primary school classes are known to be disciplinarians, who maintained order and control in their teaching, by minimising disruptions. The educators were driven by the communal, acknowledged and committed forms of enactment, to select activities and content that addressed the learners' needs for basic education skills, within the available time, while using particular ways.

The educators who enacted the vertical curriculum were dissatisfied with the enactment time rule, which did not afford them ample. Khoza (2013) confirms that educators enacting a vertical curriculum need to present learners for assessment, when the time is due. .Owing to the influence of assessments, the educators had to enact teaching and learning in particular ways, either within the allocated time or in the extra time of the implied instructional time. The educators needed more

time as a result of the intended curriculum which the educators claimed had overloaded them with topics to be covered. The educators experienced considerable pressure in trying to meet teaching targets and they had to relieve the pressure through the use of particular ways. As such, the educators had increased the frequency of mock examinations, during which selected topics were covered. The educators hoped that the learners would do well, if the same type of questions that they had drilled the learners were set by the examiners.

In fact, the educators compared the time rule that applied in the mainstream education, with the rule that prevailed in the NFEP school-model and declared that the allocation was anomalous. The same curriculum was used in both systems of education, and they were confused by the different treatment by management, since the educators taught similar subjects within the formal education system, in more time. In the context of CHAT, which is contextualised in EAT; the activity system comprises many elements that vary according to time (Hancock & Miller, 2018), like the maturity of the actors. Educators needed to be informed about such factors like, the enactment of teaching mature learners, which influences the use of methods that nurture self-directed learning (Knowles, 1980). The use of independent learning reduces face-to-face teaching (Rodrigo, 2017), which needs more time from the educator. The mature learners can be equated to those learners who were repeating some modules and were already acquainted with the content.

Basing on their perceptions of the enacted time rule, the educators used the committed enactment to devise particular ways of teaching, according to the available allocated and instructional time. The findings revealed educators who used an improvised e-learning platform that brought a measure of contentment to both educators and learners. This was a communal enactment of teaching in which learners and educators interacted during weekends in discussion groups as they constructed knowledge. The knowledge was needed for fulfilling the vertical curricula that were being enacted with limited resources and in poorly lit classrooms. Educators enacted teaching using particular ways in response to the conditions of the classrooms. Dimly-lit learning spaces suited particular approaches: these were the educator-centred approaches that influenced the use of instructor roles. The educators occupied centre stage to allow them to direct all the learning from a central place with learners facing an artificial light placed at the educator's table. Since the educator's movement was restricted due to darkness, there were safety risks associated with movements for both the educator and the learners. The educators and learners were united in efforts

that maximised the use of available allocated and instructional time. Both parties engaged in particular ways towards the attainment of the teaching and learning goals of the NFEP school model, such as the use of the lecture method, mock examinations, class discussions, and oral question-and-answer sessions.

The findings also revealed that educators enacted teaching and learning in particular ways, owing to the influence of the enactment goals for teaching. Ndlovu (2017) avers that both aims and objectives represent plans of educators, to which Khoza (2016) adds that outcomes are for the learners to grasp measurable observable behaviour that will result from the teaching and learning. All these curriculum concepts facilitate the structure of the teaching and learning activities (Kisaka-jwan, 2018), thereby providing teaching and learning that is driven by goals and their related category of aims, objectives and outcomes. The structure of teaching is the source of teaching actions for teaching, whose purpose is to act as a guide that is framed by decisions about teaching that are goal-oriented (Kennedy et al. 2007).

The findings showed educators who relied on their interpretations of programme and curriculum goals, which influenced the forms of enactments for use in driving teaching and learning in particular ways. In turn, all the forms of enactment were used, according to the educators' interpretations and translations of the phenomena (Ball, Maguire, Braun and Hoskins, 2011). The committed enactment influenced the development of personal syllabi, which the educators referred to as the 'compressed' syllabi, from which they devised particular ways for enacting teaching and learning. The official position on the compressed syllabi was unknown, against the probability that these syllabi were a myth, owing to the failure by the researcher, to access them despite several requests. Hancock and Miller (2018) state that enactment that is guided by CHAT, has a requirement for praxis, namely an accustomed way of enacting the object. The risk of the enactment of teaching on the school-model based on content that is not logically organised exists (Hoadley and Jansen, 2013), against a background of misconceptions about goals and their related categories of aims, objectives and outcomes, as was demonstrated in the excerpts below:

FA: Yes, there are objectives for the programme. The main objective is: to teach the learners sewing skills so that they can take care of themselves and fundraise for other projects that the learners are doing to meet community needs.

The aim and the objective were mixed into one statement, while representing two programmes with different goals. Hence, the confusion that comes with enacting dual programmes, simultaneously (Ngubane-Mokiwa & Khoza, 2016).

PC: In the long-term, the goal for teaching mathematics is to produce someone who is mathematics literate [...], someone who appreciates the usefulness of mathematics in everyday life. In teaching mathematics, the objective has to address what was raised in the syllabus, a mathematics literate person

The enactment of a vertical curriculum was linked to a communal enactment when the goal of the PTCE is to influence an acknowledged enactment that addresses learners' specific needs for a segmented level in the hierarchy of high school education. Most of the educators needed to understand the goals for enacting the school-model programmes, based on the information that is contained in official documents that the educators needed to have read and understood. The findings also revealed that the outcomes were missing from the educators' vocabulary and practice. Learning outcomes are statements of what learners expect from the teaching and learning activity and they act as guide for out-of class learning (Kennedy et al. 2007).

The findings on Theme 8, which was on enactment assessment revealed that all educators used two categories of the assessment concept to enact assessment, namely, the formative and the summative. The theme on enactment assessment produced fairly accurate conceptualisations from the educators although its categories were not well understood. The committed form of enactment that was supported by the educators' experience influenced the level of understanding of the enactment assessment concept, since the theme resonated with their routine work where learners are assessed often and termly. The responses to teaching in particular ways manifested in the manner in which the educators conducted the assessment; as well as in the ways they used the assessment information in responding to the assessment results. The educators used the committed form of enactment during formative assessment, which is also called assessment for learning. Particular ways were engaged in order to derive the maximum benefit from conducting assessments. Mabuto and Ndlovu's (2014) advice for educators to heed to potential areas for learner development, was attended to as educators went on spot checks to establish who needed help and in what areas. Educators enacted teaching in particular ways in order to enhance the development of the learner (Calidoni-Lundberg, 2006). They engaged particular ways of teaching

and learning, such as, conducting revision sessions, conducting spot checks, question and answer sessions and giving learners individual written assignments.

ZB: After marking their work, I do some revision with them.

PB: I also conduct spot checks while students are writing the exercises. I will fix what needs to be fixed there and there.

These excerpts indicated the engagement of both the committed form of enactment at individual level, and the communal level of enacting feedback, in which feedback sessions were, conducted in particular ways that addressed the learners' needs.

Summative assessment (assessment of learning) was driven by the acknowledged form of enactment in which the learners were assessed on the subject content. The educators were driven by the goals of summative assessment in order to ensure that, by teaching in particular ways, the assessment goals were attained. For ZABEC, both termly and end-of-year assessments produced learners who qualified to be elevated to the grade above. The rationale for the educators enacting teaching and learning in particular ways within the NFEP school-model programmes can be placed on the influences of the enactment time-rule, the enactment goals, and the enactment assessment.

11.6 Conclusion

The research aim and its questions and objectives guided the framing of the data into a coherent structure that supported the logical presentation, analysis, and interpretation of the data. The committed enactment use of the CHAT and the enacted activity theory (EAT) assisted with sense-making of the findings. This culminated in the clarification of the framework that represented the enacted NFEP programmes' teaching and learning on the current school-model of the NFEP programmes. How the enacted framework matches the intended framework that was proposed in the NFEP (2015) is still a subject of debate; since this was not the mandate of this study. The NFEP was launched in 2015, in order to drive an alternative pathway for meeting the learning needs of non-formal education learners in various circumstances. A gap exists as to what informed the

decision for the use of the formal education curriculum for enacting teaching and learning within the NFEP programmes in the school-model of this study.

In this study, the themes were generated from the literature that also produced a guided analysis that was defined and used for framing the data generation process, presentation and analysis of the data that flanked the themes. Forms of enactment emerged became the lighthouse that illuminated the pathways for the enactment of teaching and learning that was driven by three forms of enactments. The study revealed the use of the three forms of enactment, namely, the acknowledged, the communal and the committed enactments that influenced the educators' decisions in teaching and learning. In all of the programmes, educators were influenced by their perceptions of the goal of the particular programmes, and not the official reasons for the launch of the education programmes, based on the personal, namely the committed enactment. Accordingly, Khoza (2018) attributes such detours to the influence of ideological-ware (IW) resources that are used for driving an enactment in the direction of the educator. The educators' forms of enactment were derived from their ideological-ware resources that include beliefs and experience. The findings revealed misconceptions, confusion and contradictions about the educators' forms of enactment and goals for enacting the teaching and learning activity in the school-model, which influenced the way the educators enacted teaching and learning and the rationale for the ways they did.

These findings revealed the numerous factors that militated against the smooth and effective enactment of teaching and learning. Teaching in semi-darkness may be alarming to imagine, but it became a reality. When educators are driven by a committed enactment, which comprises passionate resilience to succeed by creating solutions, they enact teaching and learning that achieve the intended goals. The educators engaged particular ways in order to mitigate the challenges. With regard to Questions Two and Three of the study, the educators taught in unique particular ways, although they were not well aware of the mediating influence of various factors, which comprised. Various artefacts, such as, enactment resources and curriculum concepts that were incorporated in the CHAT, which underpinned the study, influenced some educators to respond with unique ways, such as the use of the mobile phones for e-learning.

The data also revealed that educators' forms of enactment can be used to fulfill the needs of the learners as was shown in Figure 5.1. Leont'ev's' in Engestrom (2001) contends that, in the CHAT,

the community produces the activity when they have woven together their goals, motives, and social conditions (Edwards, 2011). Enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programmes must be guided by ‘weaving ‘ together the concepts of the curriculum spider web, in which all the concepts of the curriculum work towards the attainment of learning outcomes (van den Akker et al, 2010) as depicted in Figure 2.2. The school model had withstood the negative mediation effects of the various challenges and was providing access to learning for its NFE learners, with room for improvements to be made. Chapter Twelve concludes the research study’s report by providing a summary of the findings, their implications, recommendations, and a conclusion.

CHAPTER TWELVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

12.1 Introduction

Chapter Eleven presented the findings of the educators' enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP school-model programmes. Chapter Twelve of the study was the concluding chapter to an arduous journey that was characteristic of a researcher who was driven by the acknowledged form of enactment to conduct a qualitative research study. Large amounts of data were generated for presentation, discussion, and interpretation. Chapter Twelve presented a summary of the findings and the implications of the study and recommendations. The recommendations should influence various stakeholders to use acknowledged, communal, and committed forms of enactment to drive, maintain, sustain, or rejuvenate current educators' enactments of teaching and learning in the NFEP's school-model programmes. Finally, concluding remarks are to frame the epilogue to this epic academic journey.

12.2 Summary of key responses to key Research Questions and educational implications

The purpose of this exploratory case study was to explore educators' enacting of the non-formal education policy's (NFEP) teaching and learning in schools. Three questions were used as a guide in addressing the intentions of the study. Research Question One sought to understand the educators' forms of enactment when enacting teaching and learning in the school-model programmes. The first question read as follows: What forms of enactment do educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes at selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe? This was a critical question for the study, owing to the defining role of forms of enactment, that of the acting as the source of all decisions on teaching (Khoza, 2015). The three forms of enactment that emerged from the literature were the acknowledged, communal, and the committed.

The data revealed that all three forms were used, depending on the educators' understanding of goals of the programme and the form of enactment that aligned with the needs of the particular group of learners. In this consolidated report on the educators' forms of enactment in the school model, there was no single form of enactment that emerged to dominate the enactment of all of the

teaching and learning on NFEP school-model programmes. This was owing to the NFE's approach of serving segmented sections of the community with their own learning needs that were different from those of another segment of the same community. Furthermore, Bernstein (1999) explains that there are two forms of curriculum, namely, the vertical, and the horizontal, whose goals inform the educators' enactment types (Khoza, 2016). The curriculum in use in the NFEP school model was the formal education curriculum, with guidelines for educators to follow. Educators enacting teaching and learning in the formal education school model were expected to use the intended content of the vertical curriculum. In another programme, a curriculum from another ministry became the curriculum in use. The implications for that particular programme were that, the planned horizontal curriculum was overshadowed by the vertical curriculum. In turn, there was confusion amongst the educators when accounting for their teaching actions.

Therefore, one of the findings of the study was that some of the educators on the NFEP school model did not understand the programme goals, which had implications on their forms of enactment, which they used in enacting teaching and learning (Khoza, 2016). The educators were not well versed in the theory that framed the NFEP programmes, namely the TPACK, which would have informed them of particular goals, content, activities, roles and assessment frameworks. The irony is that there were official policy documents on each of the programmes, which the educators, either could not access or whose contents they did not comprehend at all. A committed form of enactment to read the documents would have ensured that educators were informed about the official content in the documents by the time of the study, in order for the educators to be guided, accordingly. Similarly, a communal enactment by programme managers to update the educators periodically, including the sharing of official documents such as curriculum-in-use, motivates the educators, leading to improved enactments. Below is the list of the documents, which were produced for use by educators, and were yet to be evenly distributed among the educators..

- The National Non-Formal Education Policy for Zimbabwe: Promoting alternative pathways to increase access and quality education in Zimbabwe (2015).
- The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Secretary Minute Number 13 of 2016.
- Curricula and syllabi for individual disciplines.

- The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development HEXCO syllabus (2016) (although the position of the MoPSE on the status of this syllabus was not known yet).

It is advisable for the government to revisit its policy documents, for purposes of either updating them or for creating similar documents for the HEXCO curriculum that inform educators who enact programmes that promote horizontal knowledge development in the school NFEP model.

The second question was: How do educators enact teaching and learning within NFEP programmes? In addressing this question, the data were solicited based on the following themes: enactment resources, enactment content, access to learning, and enactment educator activities and roles. The themes were aligned with the CHAT elements that were contextualised in the EAT. The findings showed that all three forms of enactment guided the educators on how they enacted teaching and learning using the curriculum content, resources learning environments, and particular activities and educator roles according to the educators' interpretations of the context of the school-model. Regarding the content, the educators were guided by two government ministries, with the MoPSE directing two of the three of its school-model programmes. In the third NFE programme, another ministry, the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development's curriculum was the guide on the content, resources, access to learning, and the educator activities and roles for the programme's enactment.

The implications were that two government ministries were influencing how teaching and learning in the NFEP school-model programme was currently enacted. This arrangement had further implications on which curriculum concepts to use, as well as on the supervision model and on recontextualising the syllabi. The lack of clarity creates confusion to the educators and learners and affects access to quality relevant NFE. In the programmes that the MoPSE directed, A lack of contextualised and up-to-date secondary evidence on the enactment content that was needed by the educators who were on the ground, was observed. The implication was that there was a chance for the learners to be short-changed in the attainment of learning outcomes by a system that seemed to lack basic official communication in the form of documents.

The final question of the study read: Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?

The conclusion was that the three themes that were used to address the question provided the rationale for the particular ways that the educators used for enacting teaching and learning within the NFEP school-model programmes. The themes were the enactment time rule, the enactment goals for teaching, and the enactment assessment. The central theme for the study was the enactment of teaching and learning, and the findings revealed the importance of the three forms of enactment, namely, the acknowledged, committed, and the communal, as a basis for all the teaching and learning decisions (Khoza, 2015).

According to CHAT, the enactment of teaching and learning is the ‘thing-to-be-acted upon’ (Foot, 2014). On a similar note, Khoza (2016) posits that the use of goals for teaching influences the forms of enactment to use. The findings revealed that some educators used vertical curriculum goals for enacting teaching, while being driven by the communal enactment and vice-versa. The implication was that the educators did not understand their forms of enactment. Therefore, the particular ways lacked direction for attaining the curriculum goals that were set for the programme by the policymakers. The MoPSE had made it official for the school model to be enacted using the formal education goals. The educators were not grounded in the rubric of the NFEP programmes and the formal education goals. The implication was that there were some areas of the programmes that were enacted based on forms of enactment that were not well aligned with the programmes’ goals. In addition, the findings showed that the educators in the school-model programmes were not fully conversant with the concept of goals and the related categories of aims, objectives, and learning outcomes. There was confusion on the actual curriculum in use and misconceptions of aims, objectives and outcomes.

The implications were that teaching and learning were enacted without clear goals, objectives, and outcomes. The document and observation techniques that were incorporated for data generation failed to yield much evidence on the use of goals and the related categories of aims, objectives, and outcomes. The educators did not refer to goals in their enactment of teaching and learning, while outcomes were a new concept to the educators. In a related incidence, one educator dismissed the need to write aims, objectives, and outcomes, on the grounds that the failure to plan and document lessons did not reduce the learners’ chances of passing examinations. The implications were that educators did not plan or enact teaching and learning that were based on clear goals (aims, objectives, and outcomes), thereby negatively affecting the learning outcomes. Another implication is that the MoPSE and all its official documents are not effectively guiding

the enactment of teaching and learning on the NFEP school-model programmes, leading to confusion and contradictions among the educators.

The time rule influenced the use of particular ways of teaching that responded to the set times. When problems were encountered relating to the availability of time, all three forms of enactment were explored for solutions. Enacting the solutions required particular ways for delivering learning, such as through the communal enacting using WhatsApp, as a technology of learning. In other words, the educators' perceptions, that the enacted time rule had allocated insufficient instructional time for teaching and learning, influenced the educators to institute particular ways of mitigation the situation, in order to ensure goal attainment. The implication was that, as stated in the CHAT, that the enactment of the activity has to accommodate the interests of the socially constituted members of the community (Daniel, 2004).

Theme Seven, on enactment goals for teaching and learning provided more insights into the justifications for the use of particular ways by educators. The educators were influenced by their perceptions of programme goals to act in particular ways. The use of goals influenced the forms of enactments that were used for driving either the vertical curriculum or the horizontal curriculum. The goals of the vertical curriculum influenced the decisions to select the content, resources, activities and roles that ensured that particular ways delivered the intended outcomes. According to CHAT, various artefacts mediate the activity process and similarly, there was evidence of the effective and ineffective use of the components of the Dartboarding of the NFEP curriculum concepts. Educators enacting the vertical curriculum stated that they used the examination papers as their main source of content that promoted the acquisition of facts, adopted ways that suited the enactment of the content by using mock tests while relying on the instructor and subject specialist roles to prepare learners for examinations. Lectures and question and answer sessions dominated the teaching and learning. The educators, who perceived that a horizontal curriculum was the ideal one, used the content that promoted competence development, educator-centred activities and roles as well as tests, assignments and question and answer sessions. The similarities in the use of the educator-centred approaches provided evidence of misconceptions and a lack of understanding that were rife among the educators regarding goals and their categories.

All the educators demonstrated a committed enactment towards achieving what they believed were the correct goals. Perceptions of programme goals that were aligned to the vertical curriculum influenced educators to teach for examination purposes. The particular ways that educators

employed included the use of the WhatsApp platform and revision sessions that were based on past examination papers, educator-centred activities, and instructor-roles in the form of lectures, owing to shortages of resources and inadequate content. Learners' characteristics also determined enactment ways in situations where the teaching and learning involved of semi-literate learners and children. The activities were enacted using educator-centred activities since the learners were barely able to read the few materials that were available, on their own, including lack of maturity to be self-directed learners. The implication was that all educators enacting teaching and learning in the school-model programmes did so using educator-centred activities and instructor roles. This use of an educator-centred teaching pedagogy created passive learners who did not benefit much from an education that did not produce critical thinkers who construct knowledge (Rodrigo, 2017). The goals of the vertical curriculum require educators to present the learners for assessment at a set time. The educators enacted teaching and learning in particular ways that sought to ensure that the learners passed the examinations, despite the realities of the harsh enactment phenomenon. The phenomenon was characterised by acute shortages of resources, poor lighting in the classroom, inadequate time and low incentives for educators. These factors provided the justification for particular ways of enacting teaching. However, enacting teaching and learning in such environments promoted rote learning with very limited creativity among the learners (Ndlovu, 2016).

On a positive note, the experience of enacting teaching and learning in this environment had its positive implications for the educators. In one programme, educators enacted the use of mobile phones for lighting the classroom and for e-learning through WhatsApp. In yet another situation, educators became united in the sharing of teaching and learning resources, while another educator, used videos for enacting teaching and learning in order to manage burn-out from face-to-face-instruction. The group of semi-literate learners benefitted from multi-sensory teaching and learning. In all the cases where innovative solutions were developed, there were particular ways that enhanced teaching and learning. The lack of transparency and insufficient information on the NFEP programmes framework and management's inability to improve the working conditions and knowledge environments, had also influenced the enactment of teaching and learning in the particular ways that educators interpreted as appropriate to the school-model concept.

12.3 Recommendations of the study

The key findings from Chapters Six to Ten inform the recommendations of the study, based on eight themes. After the recommendations, a summary will close the research study.

In making the recommendations, the study focuses on how the numerous gaps that have surfaced in the findings of the study can be addressed. The study is an exploratory case study and it comes with a handful of recommendations that aim to improve the enactment of teaching and learning in the current NFEP programmes school-model. The recommendations were presented for enactment based on van den Akker et al.'s (2010) levels of curriculum enactment. The recommendations are made for enactment at the macro level (national level of enactment), meso level (institutional/school level of enactment), and micro level (educator/classroom level of enactment).

12.3.1 Recommendations for macro-level enactment

The government, through the MoPSE is commended for stepping up efforts to educate out-of-school children, youths and those adults who need a second chance education, than ever before in the history of Zimbabwe, through the public school-model system. While enrolments have not drastically fallen, there is enough justification for making improvements to the model in which rising costs have resulted in shortages of materials, the hiring of 'unqualified' educators and negative effects on the quality of education. Accordingly, at the macro level enactment, the following recommendations are made for the attention of MoPSE and its provincial and district structures.

- The study recommends that the MoPSE, who are the custodians of the NFEP school model, adopt an integrated curriculum design that addresses both the basic education and the functional literacy education needs of non-formal education learners within the context of the school-model framework. Therefore, curricula that meet the learners' needs for both cognitive and skills development must be adopted. In other words, the intended curriculum of the future should address both the horizontal curriculum and vertical curriculum needs of learners but with a bias on developing the competences of youths and adults, who are poised to make a positive impact on the country's socio-economic development (see Figure

12.1).

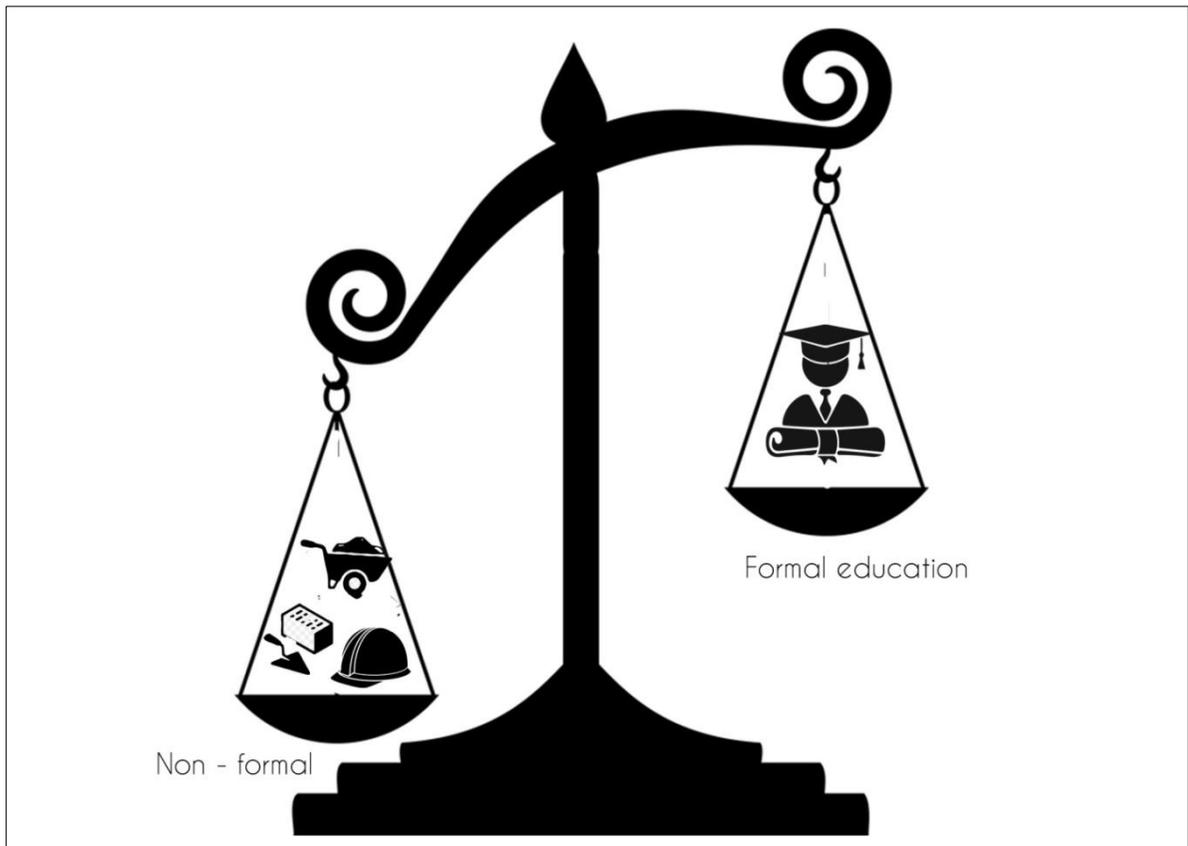


Figure 12.1: Integrated non-formal education policy curriculum

Figure 12.1 portrays a balancing scale that has been filled with two different curricula. The NFEP curriculum is the one that has been loaded with tools for enacting a horizontal curriculum that drives the development of competences. The FE curriculum is framed by academia, those who pursue education by following a vertical curriculum (Bernstein, 1999), that is driven by the acknowledged enactment, where the development of the cognitive domain is more pronounced than any other domain (Khoza, 2016). However, the two types of curricula can complement each other in the NFEP's school-model of enactments in which addressing community needs for skills becomes more visible since it will be organised around the NFE's TPACK, than at present. Currently, the MoPSE is applauded for playing a role in promoting NFE, but it borrows the FE curriculum and its specialist educators. This shows the existence of a gap in addressing the needs of the NFE learners with the discipline's specific curriculum. Hence, the study recommends an integrated approach to curriculum design in which NFE learners, within the school-model, can

identify more with the horizontal curriculum, than with the vertical curriculum. In doing so, policy makers need to harness the strengths that are inherent in the two types of curricula, so as to diffuse tensions between them. In Figure 12.1 above, the proposed tilt in the scale is in favour of a horizontal curriculum, that Zimbabwe may be able to use for driving a transformation and industrialisation agenda.

- The study recommends that the MoPSE take a leading role in providing guidance for Meso-level enactment of workshops that address the misconceptions, inconsistencies, contradictions, and confusion regarding programme goals, forms of enactment, curriculum-in-use, curriculum concepts and curriculum-borrowing. The theory on the rationale that frames the school-model programmes will be presented by experts from the MoPSE. These experts will use the acknowledged enactment to present the national vision, mission, aims, objectives, and outcomes. University lecturers, whose personal technologies include enacting programmes in non-formal education, can present curriculum theory that informs the acknowledged, commune and committed forms of enactment. These lecturers will be assisted by the MoPSE's curriculum-development experts.
- Van den Akker et al.'s (2010) curriculum spider web, as represented in Figure 2.2 on Dartboarding curriculum concepts, will provide the guidelines for the discussions on intended enactment goals and the content to be covered at the workshops. The content should increase participants' conceptualisation of the enactment goals, enactment content, enactment activities, enactment resources, enactment educator-activities and roles, accessing learning, enactment time rule, and enactment assessment. The EAT provides the rationale for contextualised discourses which will be framed around economic factors and innovative solutions; while the CHAT platforms the discourses on social, cultural, and historical factors. The workshops will, above all, raise the educators' understanding of forms of enactment against the research findings where educators, without adequate knowledge of programme goals, enacted teaching and learning that were driven by their perceived programme goals. In addition, MoPSE will shed light on issues that cause dissonance among educators, such as work overload, time allocation, and low-level incentives. There is a glaring need for clarity on the curriculum-in-use, too.

- Lastly, currently NFEP school-model programmes are enacted by volunteer teachers and the MoPSE needs to multi-skill all educators with andragogy's content and knowledge. This will enable the future educators to become versatile and effective in the enactment of non-formal education teaching and learning. Course designers from universities, and other experts, can develop the content for the short courses and modules for use. This could result in having a 'blended' educator of the future. Such an educator will possess a personal technology for enacting both forms of education, effectively and efficiently.

12.3.2 Recommendations for meso-level enactment

- The study recommends that workshops should be held for NFEP programme management and educators, in order for them to understand the gaps that the findings have revealed so as to improve professionalism, consistency and uniformity, among educators and management. As a priority decisions and acknowledged enactments should promote understanding, distribution and utilisation of:
 - The official documents such as the curriculum-in-use and the syllabi.
 - Primary documents such as the compressed syllabi and personal records.
- The study recommends the establishment of a Communication and Quality Assurance structures that will manage and reward the performance of NFEP programme actors. The same structures should ensure the provision of adequate resources for teaching and learning, including official documents for educators.
- Related to the above, the same structures should periodically identify and deliberate on the contextualised enactment of the school-model NFEP teaching and learning, based on the EAT, at each school. The quality assurance reports will provide the structures with the issues that mediate the enactment of teaching and learning using the school model phenomenon.

12.3.3 Recommendations for micro-level enactment

- The study recommends that educators who currently enact teaching and learning to youths and adult learners should obtain relevant qualifications such as the certificate diploma,

degree, masters and doctoral degree programmes, in order to enhance their effectiveness. The modalities available for accessing the qualifications are the block release model in which lectures are conducted during school holidays.

12.4 Conclusion to the Study

The phenomenon of the study was the enactment of teaching and learning in NFEP programmes at three schools in Masvingo District, at which educators enacted the teaching of out-of-school-children, youths and adults. It was imperative that government provide access to quality basic education in response to international and national constitutional pronouncements for the right to basic education. Accordingly, the aim of the study was to explore educators' enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP school-model programmes, in order to recommend ways that improve access to quality non-formal education. Likewise, the strategic objectives were:

1. To explore the forms of enactment that educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP policy programmes in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe.
2. To analyse how educators enact teaching and learning in NFEP policy programmes in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe.
3. To explore the particular ways the educators use to enact teaching and learning in NFEP in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe.

In accordance with the study aim, questions and objectives, the study sought to establish the educators' forms of enactments, how the teaching and learning were unpacked and the rationale that framed the ways the educators enacted teaching and learning, in order to recommend improvements to the school-model that was currently in use. The current school-model is framed by the formal education curriculum as the curriculum-in-use, as well as the use of any other curricula except the non-formal education curricula. The teaching and learning enactment is championed by 'unqualified' volunteer educators who enact NFEP programmes in contexts that are characterised by shortages of teaching and learning resource, inadequate official documents, long working hour and low level incentives for educators.

The qualitative design that is framed by the interpretive paradigm influenced the use of the case-study approach. Purposive and convenience sampling techniques were adopted for a guided selection of the three participating schools and the seven participants. The data-generation methods (semi-structured interview, observation, document analysis) were used as the data-generation methods were used for triangulation purposes, with particular attention to ensuring measures of trustworthiness, namely, credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability. The guided analysis technique was selected for the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of the data, which had been structured into eight themes that were generated from the literature; and through incorporating curriculum concepts in the CHAT.

The CHAT was the theory that underpinned the study in order to gain deep insight into the phenomenon. It was a theoretical framework that emerged from the literature search. The CHAT framework was used in this study to illuminate the theoretical orientation of the study and to conceptualise the educators' enactments of teaching and learning in non-formal education policy programmes in the particular ways they do. There are some similarities between CHAT and the NFEP enactment theory, such as tools and activities. In this case, CHAT was used in order to gain deeper insights into the concepts used for conducting the study on forms of enactments of teaching and learning. The CHAT was useful at developing themes and for presenting the data. The theoretical framework presented a toolkit that has been used empirically to explore education problems, having evolved over three centuries and through diverse cultures across the globe. The developments included philosophical and psychological discourses (Engestrom, 2001; Nussbaumer, 2010). Since CHAT has been tested and used successfully in previous educational research, the researcher gained the confidence to use CHAT in NFE.

The findings on Research Question One on the forms of enactments that educators enacting teaching and learning in NFEP's school-model programmes use, revealed the use of all the three forms of enactment that were identified from the literature. These were, the acknowledged, committed, and commune enactments. The findings then highlighted how the forms of enactments are important in teaching and learning, since enactments determine teaching and learning decisions. The research findings exposed the futility of educators who teach without understanding their forms of enactment, on the premise that the goal of teaching is to attain the intended learning outcomes. In addition, the educators did not utilise their TPACK to the full, since they were limited

in the application of most curriculum elements. Forms of enactments and the elements are linked to each other and they combine to control teaching and learning (Khoza, 2016). For example, educators who were entrapped into the use of educator-centred teaching, needed to reflect on their decisions in order to devise other forms of enactments that were more effective than the instructor-roles. The findings on the use of curriculum concepts on enactment resources, enactment content, access to enactment of teaching and learning and educator-activities and roles, unpacked answers to Question Two on how educators enacted teaching and learning in NFEP school-model programmes. Similarly, the findings on the curriculum concepts on enactment time rule, the enactment goals of teaching and the enactment of assessment, provided a response to Question Three of the study that sought the rationale that framed the educators' enactment of teaching and learning, in particular ways.

The study revealed a lack of understanding of programme goals by most educators, which resulted in confusion and misalignment of some programmes' goals and forms of enactment. This compromised the efficient and effective achievement of programme goals, especially enactments without learning outcomes. All the participants were unaware of learning outcomes. . Furthermore, the mediation effects of some curriculum concepts that were incorporated in CHAT had disruptive tendencies on the enactment of teaching and learning, such as unsuitable knowledge environments and inadequate supplies of books.

On a positive note, the findings revealed that the educators used their personal technologies to develop creative ways for the enactment of teaching and learning, based on home grown WhatsApp platforms. The solutions were developed out of necessity and they ensured that the NFEP school model met the basic standards for teaching and learning, while it did not succumb to the prevailing negative effects. Therefore, the gaps that the findings exposed convinced the researcher that the full potential of the educators who were enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP's school-model programme, was yet to be fully realised. Therefore, improvements needed to be made in order to address the needs of NFE learners, educators and the community. Key recommendations are that the macro level of the NFEP's programmes' enactment, the MoPSE, should harmonise the curriculum through an integrated approach that incorporates the strengths of both the vertical and horizontal curricula. The MoPSE needs to harmonise the use of borrowed curricula. An integrated approach to curriculum design may ease existing tensions by borrowing

the strengths that are inherent in various curricula. There is need to meet the learners needs for competences and cognitive development through NFE. Furthermore, the MoPSE should champion initiatives that capacitate educators, improve communication on curriculum issues as well as improve the resourcing of programmes and the incentivisation of the educators. The accelerated development of basic skills education for the out-of-school children, youths and adult learners, will result in great strides that will contribute to the transformation and industrialisation of Zimbabwe's economy.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Semi-structured interview schedule

Title: Educators enacting Non-Formal Education Policy: Case of three schools in Masvingo District, Zimbabwe-an Exploration.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What forms of enactment do educators use for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes at selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?
2. How do educators enact teaching and learning in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?
3. Why do educators enact teaching and learning in the particular ways they do in selected schools in Masvingo District in Zimbabwe?

RATIONALE: To understand educators' enactment of teaching and learning in Non-Formal Education Policy (NFEP) programmes.

1. Educators' forms of enactments

- 1) What is your main reason for enacting teaching and learning within the NFEP programme?

2. Object

- i) What problem/s are you addressing by enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programme?
- ii) What content are you using to enact teaching and learning in the NFEP programme?

3. Goals

- i) What are the goals for enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programme?
- ii) What are the aims for enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programme?
- iii) What are the objectives for enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programme?
- iv) What are the learning outcomes for enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programme?

4. Activities

- i) What activities are you using for enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programme?
- ii) How are you teaching?(roles)

5. Tools

- i)With what tools are you enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programme? (Hard, soft, ideological ware)
- ii) How do you use the tools for teaching and learning?

6. Time Rules

- i) When do you enact teaching and learning in the NFEP programme?
- ii)What are your comments on allocated and instructional time?

7) Accessibility

How accessible is the teaching and learning for your NFEP programme? (physical, financial, cultural accessibility)

8. Evaluation

- i) What forms of evaluation do you use for evaluation?
- ii) How do you conduct the evaluation?

Thank you

Appendix 2 Observation schedule

Rationale: To observe how educators enact teaching and learning in the **Non-Formal Education Policy programmes**

I observed how educators enacted teaching and learning in the NFEP programme (enthusiasm, confident etc.).

Goals

I observed whether or not enactment was in line with goals stated in lesson plans.

Tools

I observed how educators used available tools (e.g. hardware, software resources) when enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programme.

Assessment

I observed how educators used assessment approaches (formative, summative assessment).

Content

I observed whether educators were using the content that was prescribed in the NFEP curriculum.

Activities

I observed whether educators used educator-centred, client-centred or problem centred activities to enact teaching and learning in the NFEP programme.

Accessibility

I observed how clients and educators arrived at the school (e. g. mode of transport)

I observed the distance learners travelled to and from the NFE school.

I observed rate of attendance by clients

Time

I observed at what time lessons started.

I observed the duration

I observed how many hours, a day and per week were allocated for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programme.

Educator roles

I observed whether educators were instructors or facilitators during the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP programme.

Knowledge environment

I observed the kind of knowledge environments used for enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programme (traditional classrooms, online or open environments)

I observed the general condition of the knowledge environment (adequate/inadequate)

I observed the type of furniture available for NFE clients (i.e. for adult-learners use)

THE END

APPENDIX 3 Documents Analysis Schedule

Rationale: To analyse what messages the documents portray with regards to the enactment of teaching and learning in the Non-Formal Education (NFEP) programmes in schools

1. Goals

- i) Does the NFEP prescribe goals/aims/objectives/outcomes?
- ii) Do educators articulate goals in enacting teaching and learning in NFEP programmes?

2. Tools

- i) What kind of tools does the NFEP curriculum prescribe?

3. Evaluation

- i) What form/s of evaluation does the NFEP document prescribe?
- ii) How do educators plan for assessment?
- iii) Are the assessment records maintained (daily, weekly, monthly, or annually?)

4. Content

- i) What content is specified in the NFEP for enacting teaching and learning?
- ii) What content do educators use for enacting teaching and learning in enacted NFEP programmes?

5. Accessibility

- i) Does the NFEP specify physical, cultural and financial accessibility by clients?
- ii) Do educators' plans specify knowledge environments for use in enacting teaching and learning?

6. Roles/Division of labour

- i) Does the NFEP prescribe specific roles for enacting teaching and learning?

7. Knowledge environments

i) Is the policy specific on where the enactment of teaching and learning should be conducted?

8. Activities

i) What NFEP programmes enactment of teaching and learning activities are prescribed in policy documents?

ii) Do educators enact the activities according to what is in the NFEP document?

9. Time

i) Is the enactment of NFEP programme in the school time table?

ii) Is the enactment of teaching and learning in the NFEP programme on the class time table?

10. Rules

i) Does the NFEP prescribe rules for educators enacting teaching and learning in the NFEP programme?

THE END

APPENDIX 4 Ethical clearance



24 July 2017

Mr Morgen Peter Mabuto (213574440)
School of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Mr Mabuto,

Protocol reference number: **HSS/0584/017D**

Project title: **Implementation of non formal Education Policy – A multiple-case study of Masvingo Province in Zimbabwe**

Full Approval – Expedited Application

With regards to your response received on 07 July 2017 to our letter of 22 June 2017, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the above mentioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. **Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods** must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully



Dr Sireenka Singh (Chair)

/ms

cc Supervisor: Professor Phillip Higgs
cc Academic Leader Research: Dr SA Khoza
cc School Administrator: Ms Tyzer Khumalo

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

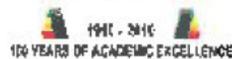
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