



SOUTH AFRICAN QUALIFICATIONS AUTHORITY

SAQA BULLETIN

Volume 15 Number 1

March 2016

- 1. South African College Lecturers: Biography, Knowledge, Pedagogy*
- 2. Referencing of Qualifications Frameworks*
- 3. Recognition of South African Qualifications in Australia*



SAQA BULLETIN

Volume 15 Number 1

March 2016

- 1. South African College Lecturers: Biography, Knowledge, Pedagogy**
- 2. Referencing of Qualifications Frameworks**
- 3. Recognition of South African Qualifications in Australia**

DISCLAIMER

The views expressed in this publication are not necessarily those of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and only those parts of the text clearly flagged as decisions or summaries of decisions taken by the Authority should be seen as reflecting SAQA policy.

COPYRIGHT

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise, without the prior written permission of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA).

**THE SAQA BULLETIN IS PUBLISHED AND DISTRIBUTED BY THE DIRECTORATE:
ADVOCACY, COMMUNICATION AND SUPPORT**

SOUTH AFRICAN QUALIFICATIONS AUTHORITY

POSTNET SUITE 248

PRIVATE BAG X06

WATERKLOOF

0145

FACSIMILE: +27 (0)12 431 5039

WEBSITE: www.saqqa.org.za

HELPDESK: 086 010 3188

E-MAIL: saqainfo@saqa.org.za

SAQA BULLETIN

Volume 15 Number 1

March 2016

Contents

Foreword	i
Editorial	iii
Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) reform in South Africa: implications for College lecturers, context, background	
<i>Volker Wedekind</i>	1
Literature on Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) College lecturers: a review	
<i>Volker Wedekind</i>	31
Understanding complexity in the TVET College system: an analysis of the demographics, qualifications, and experiences of lecturers in sixteen TVET Colleges in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal	
<i>Volker Wedekind and Adrienne Watson</i>	61
Chaos or coherence? Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) College governance in post-apartheid South Africa¹	
<i>Volker Wedekind</i>	85

¹ An earlier version of this paper was published in *Research in Comparative and International Education*, Volume 5, Number 3, 2010. The author expresses gratitude to the publishers, Sage, for giving permission to include this revised version of the original article in this volume.

Lecturers in distress: fractured professional identity amongst TVET College staff in South Africa	
<i>Volker Wedekind, Adrienne Watson and Zanele Buthelezi.....</i>	117
At the pivot: classroom experiences of Marketing lecturers in TVET Colleges in South Africa	
<i>Josephine Towani, Zanele Buthelezi and Volker Wedekind.....</i>	143
Pedagogy in a TVET College: being the visible difference – an analysis of a TVET lecturer at work	
<i>Adrienne Watson and Volker Wedekind.....</i>	161
TVET College lecturers: biography, knowledge, pedagogy – a summary of the over-arching findings of the SAQA-UKZN Partnership Research	
<i>Volker Wedekind</i>	191
Referencing of qualifications frameworks: a new mode of recognition to note	
<i>James Keevy and Coleen Jaftha.....</i>	213
Recognition of South African qualifications in Australia	
<i>Coleen Jaftha, Zola Zuzani and Francois Burger.....</i>	243
Acronyms.....	278

Foreword

The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) conducts and commissions research in line with its mandate to advance the objectives of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), oversee the implementation and development of the NQF, and coordinate the NQF sub-frameworks (RSA, 2008). While some of this research is conducted in-house, SAQA expands its capacity to conduct large-scale and long-term evidence-based research through a partnership model. To date SAQA has supported seven such partnerships. This is the first SAQA Bulletin in a series in which SAQA is publishing some of the key research papers developed through its partnership model.

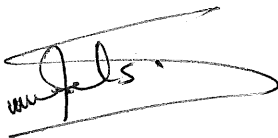
One of SAQA's overall responsibilities concerns the articulation of the qualifications within and across the three sub-frameworks of the NQF. This Bulletin explores the issues of articulation particularly as they pertain to the College sector in South Africa as well as to articulation for learners who move between countries. This Bulletin contains eight papers from the SAQA-University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) partnership research into Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) College lecturers. It contains two further papers, one on the referencing of qualifications frameworks, a method for comparing national qualifications frameworks across different countries which is part of international moves to aid learner mobility across countries. The last paper addresses the recognition of South African qualifications abroad, using the example of Australia.

The collection of papers speaks to the extent to which there is articulation in the system for education, training, development and work in South Africa. There are to be 'no dead ends' for people seeking to follow learning and work pathways (Minister of Higher Education and Training [MHET], 2013). TVET College lecturers are agents of integration and articulation:

they work between the classroom, the workshop, schooling, Higher Education, and the world of work. National qualifications frameworks are articulation tools when they simplify the comparison of qualifications for the purposes of learner movement within and across countries to study or work. The recognition of qualifications across countries supports these processes.

I urge the NQF community to engage with the issues raised by the writers in this volume as we engage collectively with the issues of articulation at national and international levels, and at systemic, sectoral and micro-levels. I want to thank the SAQA-UKZN Research Partner Professor Volker Wedekind for overseeing the compilation of the papers on the TVET College system, and Ms Zanele Buthelezi, Mr Lethukuthula Mkhize, Ms Josephine Towani, Dr Adrienne Watson and Ms Alice Msibi for their contributions. Thanks also to Ms Coleen Jaftha, Mr Zola Zuzani, and Mr Francois Burger for their work on the recognition of South African qualifications in Australia, and to Dr James Keevy and Ms Coleen Jaftha for theirs on referencing national qualifications frameworks. Lastly I want to thank Dr Heidi Bolton who took over the compilation and editing of the Bulletin.

I hope you will find the reading engaging and thought-provoking and that it will help all of us to understand some of the many elements that make up an articulated system for learning and work. This Bulletin is also contributing in a small way towards celebrating SAQA's 20th year of existence!

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Joe Samuels', enclosed within a large, stylized, hand-drawn oval or loop.

Joe Samuels

Chief Executive Officer, SAQA

Editorial comments

The Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is rightly seen by the Minister of Higher Education and Training (MHET) as being integral to the Post-School Education and Training (PSET) system in South Africa. An articulated PSET system is needed urgently in the country and currently hardly a week passes without reference to its importance for economic and wider social development. South Africa needs 'intermediate-level' skills: the College sector is well-positioned to deliver in this respect and in so doing contribute to the much-needed reduction in unemployment. The College system helps to increase the numbers of people from disadvantaged backgrounds who participate in PSET. There is a growing focus on TVET in research, and TVET-related policy processes continue to unfold at a significant pace.

Until a few years ago, as outlined in Paper 2 in this volume, research on TVET was conducted by no more than a dozen researchers located in Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) or research entities such as the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). University faculties of education focused on the school system and Colleges were off the radar. It was with foresight – before the establishment of the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) – that SAQA saw the College sector as being part of an integrated PSET system and of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), articulation, and SAQA's mandate. The research on which the first eight papers in this volume are based was undertaken under the auspices of SAQA's Research Committee and Board, with the full support of the Chief Executive Officer (CEO).

The collection of papers focussing on TVET in this volume is one of the outcomes of SAQA-University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) Partnership Research into TVET College lecturers' lives and careers. The rationale for the research on which the papers are based was as follows: it would not

be possible to understand the strengths, weaknesses, potential and possibilities associated with the TVET College sector without an understanding of the lecturers who teach in the Colleges. Developing new qualifications for the College educators is in the policy agenda, yet very little beyond anecdotal evidence was available on who the lecturers actually were, what they knew, how they taught, and importantly, how they felt about the changes in the system.

The TVET system had already undergone massive changes when the research team started its investigation. The changes had affected all tiers of the College system. There were new governance arrangements, new infrastructural and institutional arrangements, new curriculum systems, and new types of students (these issues are discussed in Papers 1, 4, 5 and 6 in more detail). The changes have not abated. Colleges have recently finalised the transfer of staff to the payroll of the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), as Colleges moved from being provincial to national competences under the Minister of Higher Education and training (MHET). In some Colleges excess staff members have had to be funded through other means, or retrenched. While these moves are welcomed, for some people this will be the third or fourth time that their conditions of service have changed.

The White Paper for Post-School Education and Training (MHET, 2013) proposes a central role for Colleges in the post-school system, with a more focused but expanded mandate. Some Colleges have already developed partnerships with Higher Education Institutions in order to offer Higher Certificates as part of the integrated system alongside the TVET Colleges. The White Paper proposes the establishment of Community Colleges and envisages stronger integration with other Colleges such as in the Agricultural and Health sectors. Exactly how the new landscape will affect the people in the Colleges is not yet clear, but for the foreseeable future there is bound to be change of one sort or another.

The curriculum offered at Colleges has also been subject to changes.

The National Certificate: Vocational (NCV) and the dated NATED (N) curricula are under review, and the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (QCTO) is developing new qualifications to replace some older skills courses and NATED curricula. The increasing focus on workplace learning is putting pressure on Colleges.

The lecturers' own qualifications and professional status have been subject to ongoing discussion. While a policy on professional qualifications for College lecturers now exists, there are few institutions in the country with the capacity to deliver this qualification. A national initiative is underway to strengthen this capacity. Most lecturers who wish to upgrade or gain professional qualifications cannot actually do so yet, so the sense of limbo remains.

As the policy landscape has changed, so have the students who have been entering the Colleges. Interventions such as financial aid have assisted in dealing with the problems of access for the most socio-economically disadvantaged students, and have increased student numbers. Enrolment has more than doubled, but there has been no similar expansion in lecturer numbers. Class sizes, student preparedness and issues of language are some of the challenges that emerged from the research presented here.

The TVET research project was conceptualised as a series of connected but distinct case studies that involved various combinations of the Research Partnership team, allowed some students to pursue their own studies, and allowed the team to adopt eclectic theoretical orientations. An overarching argument emerges from the eight TVET papers presented, but each has its own distinct focus and can be read independently of the other papers. The aim of the TVET part of this volume is to provide an accessible compilation that may be of interest to lecturers, policy makers and researchers.

The study on which the papers are based was first and foremost a sociological study, drawing both on general sociological insights and methodologies, and on the Sociology of Education. Sociology is a discipline that could

be described as 'horizontal' in that it has multiple parallel theories that coexist and illuminate different aspects but often overlap. There was no single overarching theoretical framework across the case studies. Some of the researchers were influenced by the work of Norbert Elias who proposed a strongly relational way of understanding individuals. In terms of curriculum the investigations drew variously on the work of Basil Bernstein, theories of Instructional Design, and the empirical work of John Hattie. From a macro perspective the systems were understood to be complex.

Paper 1 provides an overview of the issues that confront lecturers in Colleges, and outlines the major policy shifts that have marked the sector. Paper 2 reviews available research on the sector. Paper 3 reports on the project's survey findings. A significant number of College lecturers were surveyed in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal, and in collaboration similar data were obtained from the Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation (ECCSEC) and the Institute for Post-school Studies (IPSS), for the Eastern Cape and the Western Cape. The survey reveals some noteworthy patterns and areas of concern, and paints a more complex picture than is often suggested. Paper 4 hones in on the changes in College governance and how these reforms have affected lecturers and managers in the Colleges. Papers 5, 6, and 7 focus on the micro level of the College classroom and deal with the challenges and some examples of excellent practice that are evident throughout the system. Paper 8 summarises the key cross-cutting findings from the SAQA-UKZN research, and suggests some implications for policy.

While the first eight papers focuss on issues pertaining to articulation in the South African College sector and PSET system, Papers 9 and 10 speak to the issues of articulation and recognition of qualifications across countries and to learner mobility across countries for the purposes of learning and work. Paper 9 presents 'referencing' – a new method for comparing qualifications in the contexts of national and trans-national qualifications frameworks, and in the absence of such systems. Paper 10 presents pilot research towards SAQA's wider cross-country bench-

marking agenda, in the form of a case study into the recognition of South African qualifications in Australia. It provides insight into how other countries perceive and recognise South African qualifications, in this instance with a focus on how Australia views and handles South African qualifications.

The research presented in this Bulletin has been reported in various fora, including at number of national and international research conferences, round tables and seminars with policy makers and officials. Related articles have been published elsewhere. By publishing the 10 papers as a collection, it is intended that they serve as resources as the TVET sector continues to be expanded and strengthened, and for an increasingly articulated system for learning and work in and beyond the country.

Volker Wedekind,

SAQA-UKZN Research Partner;

Research Chair: Vocational Education and Pedagogy, University of the Witwatersrand;

Honorary Associate Professor, University of Kwazulu-Natal

Heidi Bolton,

Director: Research, SAQA

Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) reform in South Africa: implications for College lecturers, context, background

Volker Wedekind

INTRODUCTION

2015 marked the 21st anniversary of democracy in South Africa. Under democracy South Africa has seen unprecedented reform across all sectors and institutions of society. The education and training system as a whole has been a site of major reform and contestation with almost every aspect of the system being reformed. The first eight papers in this volume examine one part of the system which has seen extensive change, namely the technical and vocational education and training system and the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) - previously Further Education and Training (FET) - Colleges in particular. The reforms have affected all aspects of the College system and have fundamentally altered the nature of work in the sector. However, while the change has been dramatic, until recently relatively little attention has been paid to this sector in the research literature and in the public domain more generally. The papers attempt to address part of this gap by focusing on the implications of the reforms for those teaching within the sector.

The premise that underpins the papers is that educators are central to the education and training system. There is growing consensus that educational quality is dependent on the quality and commitment of the educators (Morrow, 2007). Understanding the educators in a system is a

necessary prerequisite for making sense of the strengths and weaknesses in the system. Educational reforms affect educators (in this instance, lecturers) in a range of ways. Often reformers pay little attention to the downstream implications that the reforms have on the lecturers. These (often unintended) effects in turn have real implications not only for the lives of the individuals, but also for the institutions within which they work, the students whom they teach, and the system in which the institutions are located.

The implications for policy are profound if the complexity of the system is taken into account. Unless the agency of the range of actors in a system is understood and forms part of the policy process, there is a chance that good policies can founder as the people who are expected to implement them make their own sense of what the policies mean and how they should be implemented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a dearth of formal research literature on the TVET Colleges in South Africa and almost nothing on the lecturers in the Colleges. The most recent available quantitative studies (Akoojee, McGrath and Visser, 2007) report on 2002 data, when there has been significant change in the system over the past 13 years. Basic descriptive information on the population group, gender and qualification level is available up to 2002 (Department of Education [DoE], 2004b; Powell and Hall, 2000, 2002, 2004), and again for 2013 onwards (Department of Higher Education and Training [DHET], 2015) but there is no detail that differentiates areas of specialization in qualifications, work-based experience and so on. From 2002 to 2007 there are no data reported in official statistics. Education statistics for 2007 onwards produced by the DoE include data on the TVET Colleges, indicating that there were almost

5987 lecturers in the Colleges teaching 320 679 'learners' (DoE, 2009). Again, there is no detail differentiating the figures given. The latest publicly available data for 2012 show massive growth in student numbers (657 690) and a smaller but still significant increase in lecturers (9 877).

On a more qualitative level, little is known about the biographical profile of the College staff, their motivation for choosing to teach, their attitudes and values and their career paths. With the exception of a limited but growing number of student dissertations that test perceptions (Geel, 2005; Phutsisi, 2006), Colleges remain a 'black box' as far as the teaching staff are concerned.

This paper provides a context within which the College sector needs to be understood. It does so by providing an overview of the policy developments in the TVET sector by tracking the formal policy development and implementation process. It draws on the gazetted legal policies and the procedural policies developed within the national and provincial departments of education. It does not attempt to analyse the policy process itself, but examines the likely implications of the policies on the lecturers. In doing so, wider reference is made to research on the impact of educational reform on educators more generally, as well as the involvement of the author in a number of the policy processes, and as a university researcher, teacher and administrator involved with programmes geared towards lecturers in Colleges. In adopting this approach the author draws on the methods developed by Linda Chisholm in her reflections on the curriculum reform process in the schooling sector (Chisholm, 2005a, 2005b; Chisholm and Leyendecker, 2008) in which she draws on her insights as an insider-outsider to the reform process.

EDUCATIONAL REFORM

The reforms in the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) sector and specifically the reforms of the Colleges have been relatively well documented in contrast to other research on the sector (see Gewer, 2001; McGrath, 2004, 2005; Sooklal, 2005).

Gewer (2001) outlines the developments from 1990 to 2000. He describes the complexity of Further Education and Training (FET) which includes the senior secondary school, TVET Colleges and a host of private providers. A central feature of the decade he reviews is the challenge of transforming the TVET Colleges into the key drivers of the system so as to respond to macro strategies for human resource development and the skills development strategy of the Department of Labour. Gewer argues that at the College level, the major challenges were to do with this immense delivery pressure compounded by lack of cohesion in the policy environment. The guiding policy frameworks were rooted in traditional partitions across levels of the system, consequently impacting on the capacity to transform. In many instances, the historical divisions between education and training have been perpetuated notwithstanding attempts to bridge this division.

The education reforms in South Africa emerged against a backdrop of the end of *apartheid* and the ushering in of the first democratic government. However, many of the reforms were shaped as much by wider international discourses such as the 'new vocationalism' which emphasized the need for 'some educational sectors to contribute to national economic imperatives and are embedded in human capital theories of economic importance' (Chappell, 2003). These wider international discourses sat well with the internal imperatives for human resource development strategies that would usher in a period of

redistribution through growth. South Africa, like many countries, considers TVET 'a key factor in improving the competitiveness of enterprises and national economies' (Rauner and Maclean, 2008:13). Education policy reforms have been undertaken globally to revitalize TVET for economic growth and solving socio-economic problems.

While the overarching policy intentions may have been clear, it is known from policy sociology that policy intentions and concrete implementation do not follow a linear path of formulation–adoption–implementation–reformulation (Ball, 1990).

Countless studies have shown that reform is recontextualised at the chalkface of the classroom or College, in the management and the resource allocation meetings, through multiple processes and mechanisms (Dale, 1999). Furthermore, policy intentions and actual policies are seldom developed with regard for the resources and capacities required to make them work and thus there are myriad compromises that happen throughout the system as people 'make do'. This introductory paper attempts to map out the reforms as a first step toward beginning to understand how these aspects may have impacted on one of the key groups of people in the system: the College lecturers.

STAGES OF REFORM

The reforms in the TVET sector have been framed by a series of formal policies developed by central government. At the most macro level the adoption of the Constitution of the country put in place certain parameters that shaped the system and provided guiding values for the country as a whole. The compromise arrived at in the constitutional negotiation process in order to accommodate provincial entities was that education was a concurrent responsibility between national and provincial government,

meaning that the national Department of Education determined policy but the provinces had some autonomy regarding the interpretation of that policy, and it was provinces that were allocated the resources to run the system. The implications of this shared responsibility were that Colleges were often forced to manage the tensions between national policy imperatives and local provincial needs and constraints. This matter has only very recently been resolved.

The Constitution enshrines a right to basic and further education that the state must make 'progressively available and accessible'. Ten years of free and compulsory education was the immediate aim, thus focusing the system on Basic Education. As can be seen in the papers that follow, however, the definition of 'post-school' and 'post-compulsory' remained contested terrain throughout the duration of the research.

The third area in which the Constitution affects the TVET College sector is in terms of the overall value system that underpins it. Specifically the notions of equity and redress are enshrined in the Bill of Rights, alongside language and identity rights. As much as education and training sector reforms were driven by human resource development agendas in the main, the need to redress the past has been a major driver within the system as a whole and there are numerous instances where the different forces operate in some tension.

The second macro-level policy that shaped the terrain was the passing of the SAQA Act No. 58 of 1995, which established the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). The NQF was an attempt to map the entire education system onto a single framework divided into three bands and eight levels. All qualifications from short courses to doctorates were placed on the framework, theoretically creating pathways from the lowest to the highest level, and 'sideways'. The clustering of a number of NQF levels into General-, Further- and Higher Education Bands meant that Colleges were

placed in the FET Band (NQF Levels 2, 3 and 4) and all work above that level was defined as Higher Education. These FET levels also applied to the last three years of high school and thus TVET Colleges became parallel to schools rather than being post-school entities. This had a profound impact on curriculum and students as will be discussed below.

The actual legislation directed specifically at TVET Colleges comprised the Further Education and Training Act of 1998; the Skills Development Act of 1998; and the FET Colleges Act of 2006. Each of these Acts was preceded by Green and White Papers and processes of public consultation as required by law, but it is unclear how much direct consultation with the lecturers working in the sector occurred before they were passed into law. As will be shown in the first eight papers in this volume, the lecturers interviewed felt excluded from these processes.

The FET Act of 1998 provided the initial framework for the TVET system in South Africa. It provided for the establishment, governance and funding of public TVET Colleges and the registration of private TVET Colleges. The preamble to the Act highlighted 'restructuring and transforming the programmes offered; redressing past discriminations, ensuring access to disabled and disadvantaged, providing optimal training and learning opportunities, promoting values advancing national strategic priorities, respect and promoting a culture of learning, pursuing excellence and responding to labour and community needs'. At this stage the policy vision was for an integrated 'FET sector' (schooling and Colleges) and so the Act dealt with both the last three grades of schooling and the College sector.

This integrated approach in policy was not realised in practice in part because the differences between the mass-based schooling system with its high-stakes public exit examination and the comparatively small College sector with its specialised technical training requirements made integration much more difficult than imagined. Quite quickly both national

and provincial Departments of Education had established separate directorates and to all intents and purposes schools and Colleges were administered completely separately. Nevertheless, the common nomenclature (FET) and the fact that the National Senior Certificate in schools and the qualifications offered at Colleges were deemed to be on the same NQF level created significant confusion for the general public, and a resistance to programmes at NQF Levels 2, 3 and 4 being offered to post-school students who already had Level 4 qualifications.

What the FET Act of 1998 did make provision for was the establishment of governing Councils at all TVET Colleges. It was intended that the councils would have strong stakeholder representation with powers to develop strategic plans and mission statements, to set policy, and to select staff. This change in the governance model was a radical shift from the department-run Technical Colleges that had little or no independence. Devolution was a general feature of education and training reform following international trends throughout the system, and devolution in the Colleges was similar to, albeit more radical than, the school reforms. The implications of this reform on both the human and financial aspects were profound. These are discussed separately in Paper 4. Kraak and Hall (1999) note that this governance framework in FET required TVET Colleges to move beyond traditional conceptions of their role, to become more flexible and responsive.

One of the recurring tensions that played itself out around the TVET Colleges was the fact that the area of skills development was contested between the then-Ministries of Education and Labour. Because at the time the Department of Labour was custodian of the national Human Resource Development Strategy, it had a keen interest in the TVET Colleges as vehicles for the implementation of related strategies.

The labour legislation that had the single biggest impact was the Skills

Development Act of 1998. This Act established the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) that were the custodians of the skills levy, a 1% tax on the payroll of companies that was meant to fund the skills development agenda in all sectors of the economy. The SETAs disbursed money and managed learnerships, a new form of work-based learning that was intended to replace apprenticeships, and they needed the Colleges as training providers. However, the national Department of Education (DoE) at the time had a different vision for the Colleges and thus ongoing contestation over the Colleges was a feature of the first decade of reform.

The FET Colleges Act of 2006 attempted to clarify the limitations and ambiguities associated with the FET Act of 1998, specifically the need to differentiate between the TVET Colleges and high school sectors which had originally been imagined as an integrated sector. When the former Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, introduced the FET Colleges Bill (RSA, 2006:np) in the National Council of Provinces in October 2006 she outlined a new brief for the Colleges:

We have redesigned the College sector so that from next year they will be able to offer intermediate and high-level skills to students from the age of 16 to mature adults. They will be able to give effect to our long held ideal of providing lifelong learning. To fulfil this goal Colleges have to be a different type of institution to the FET schools.

In addition to the above clarification, the Act changed the legislation that dealt with the employment of staff. Instead of College lecturers falling under the Employment of Educators Act, like school teachers, the FET Colleges Act made the council of each College, the employer. The main rationale given was that the Employment of Educators Act created an imperative for the College to fill vacancies 'from [the] school vacancy lists as a first source of staff. Thus even if a College is in need of a skilled technical person, it

may be required to employ a language educator who is on the vacancy list' (Pandor, 2006). However, the consequences were much more significant for individuals. By making lecturers council employees, lecturers lost their 'civil servant' status.

The Council must approve conditions of employment, including the determination and review of salaries for lecturers and support staff and all other forms of remuneration in accordance with the rules (RSA, 2006:34).

Only senior management staff remained DoE appointees.

The central focus of the present paper is how this 'radical revision of the nature of College staff employment' (Akoojee and McGrath, 2008) has impacted on the lives and work of lecturers. In order to begin to explore the impact, each aspect of the reform is discussed in more detail below.

Mergers

Industrial psychologists have equated the stress levels of mergers with those in 'gaining a new family member or becoming bankrupt' (Panchal and Cartwright, 2001). The enormity of the mergers in the College sector has been subject to little discussion in the South African literature or media, and there is no research on the impact of these mergers on the lecturers. Comparatively there has been far more discussion on the relatively smaller scale mergers in the Higher Education sector (Jansen, 2003; Mabokela and Wei, 2007). The College mergers resulted in every single one of the Colleges being structurally reorganised and old work identities disrupted.

The merger process arose out of the promulgation of the FET Act of 1998. The 153 Technical Colleges that fell under the various ethnically

defined *apartheid* education administrations were merged into 50 'Further Education and Training Colleges'² in the space of a few months. The proposal for mergers was articulated as policy in August 2001 with the release of *A new institutional landscape for public Further Education and Training Colleges* (DoE, 2001), but had been preceded by intensive debate about the nature, size and scope of the new Colleges. For example, Kraak and Hall (1999) outlined a range of options including community Colleges. However, the lecturers in Colleges were barely involved in these deliberations. The institutional landscape document outlined the process of merging the former Colleges and creating the new multi-site TVET Colleges.

On one level the process of mergers progressed very smoothly. Unlike the university sector, there was minimal active resistance in the form of political lobbying and all the constituent components of the new Colleges accepted that they would be merged. This reflected to a large extent the top-down culture of management and governance in the Colleges and the largely disempowered role of staff. Staff members in Colleges to whom the researchers spoke at the time reported that they did not feel that they had a say and did not really expect to have a say.

What the mergers meant for the individual lecturers varied from institution to institution. Some mergers resulted in the relocation of specific programmes from one campus to another, while most Colleges merged departments. Lecturers had to move offices, campuses, and staff rooms. They also had to agree on new standard practices and in many cases get used to new management at department, campus and institutional levels. For middle managers the mergers required extensive negotiation across sites, driving between campuses and many hours in meetings. All these changes would

2 Referred to as Technical and Vocational (TVET) Colleges since the publication of the White Paper for Post-School Education and Training (MHET, 2013).

have disrupted the taken-for-granted norms and procedures of the institutions and created significant stress for many individuals.

Governance

As has already been noted, the mergers created an entirely new management and governance structure for the Colleges. Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) or College principals were appointed in a top-down process to manage the mergers and steer the new Colleges. Central Offices were established to serve the multi-site structures with the human resources and finance functions being located centrally. For staff, the new structures necessarily removed them a few tiers from the senior management of the organisation as their CEOs were located at an office, sometimes many kilometres away from their places of work.

Larger corporate structures are a necessary requirement for larger organisations, but they carry almost inherently a greater level of depersonalisation. Many lecturers felt that they were no longer known to management and that they were not central to the concerns of the top management. For some people spoken to by the researchers this seemed to reinforce a sense of alienation from the new organisations and a lack of commitment to the Colleges.

Coupled with the corporatisation of the Colleges was the change in the employer-employee relationship. As noted, the creation of the College council and the subsequent empowerment of the council to be the employer fundamentally changed the identity of the lecturers. Instead of being provincial government-employed lecturers enjoying the same status as their school-based colleagues, lecturers were asked to enter into new employment contracts with the council. There were many concerns about the capacity of the various councils to administer fully-fledged payrolls,

to make adequate provision for pensions and benefits, and to manage the institutions in such a way that there would indeed be funds available to meet the salary bill commitments.

Faced with these concerns a sizeable number of lecturers opted either to transfer elsewhere in the provincial administration (where a number of lecturers were placed in schools) or to take early retirement. In some instances lecturers opted to remain in the Department but were not allocated to posts, and were told to return to the Colleges. So while for some the conditions changed, others remained on the PERSAL system and continued as though there had been no changes.

No doubt with time these new governance arrangements would have become normalised and accepted. However, the shift from provincial department to council posts was not the end point. After development of the *Joint Policy Statement* by the National Department of Education and the Department of Labour in 2007, the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) Act 67 of 2008 was promulgated, leading to the current 10-level NQF, and three NQF Sub-Frameworks³. After the African National Congress (ANC) conference in 2009 a major restructuring of government departments took place and the tensions between the Departments of Labour and Education were partly resolved by the splitting of the National Department of Education into the new Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), and the Department of Basic Education (DBE). The DHET was given the responsibility for post-school education and training, and the DBE, schooling.

These changes made the TVET Colleges a national responsibility. In 2015

³ The Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework (HEQSF) is overseen by the Council on Higher Education (CHE), the General and Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub-Framework (GFETQSF) by Umalusi, and the Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework (OQSF) by the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (QCTO).

the logic of the national competence was implemented administratively and the College lecturers once again became employees on the government payroll.

Salim Akoojee (2008) articulated many of the dangers in the decisions to devolve responsibility for staffing to the College council and warned that there may be undesirable and unintended consequences. The shift back to a central employer in the form of the DHET has a number of systemic advantages, not least a better oversight of who is actually employed in Colleges. However, what is also clear is that the changes in management and governance have added significant stress to the lecturers and have shifted their institutional and employee identity. While this is by no means a unique phenomenon within the increasingly corporatised educational world, it represents a level of stress for the individual that can be either creative or debilitating. It is not yet known what the consequences have been for College lecturers, but judging from the experiences in the corporate sector and in Higher Education, there is little doubt that there has been an impact on individual and corporate wellness.

Curriculum

There have been three major drivers of the curriculum change process in Colleges. Firstly, by locking the new Colleges into the NQF Levels 2, 3 and 4, a significant part of the work of the former Technical Colleges became *ultra vires*. This was because the Colleges offered the old National Technical Education (NATED) 550 curriculum which progressed from N1-N6, with the top levels at NQF Level 5. Technically this NQF level was in the Higher Education band and was thus the domain of universities and universities of technology. The reality was that Higher Education had little interest in offering courses at this level and so for some time the *status quo* remained. However, the NATED curriculum was in need of significant revision since it was

essentially twenty to thirty years old. This constituted the second pressure for curriculum change.

The third pressure on the curriculum was driven by the vision that the senior management in the national Department of Education at the time had for the Colleges. Given that the Colleges were now formally a parallel stream to the last three years of high school, the Department of Education felt that the primary mandate of the Colleges was to provide general vocational training for post-Grade 9 learners. A three-year full-time programme, the National Certificate: Vocational (NCV) was designed at NQF Levels 2, 3, and 4, to cater for these needs. At Level 4, this certificate was deemed to be the vocational equivalent of the National Senior Certificate or matric.

The NCV curriculum was promulgated after a relatively short development and consultation period in 2006 and was implemented in January 2007. At the same time Colleges were told to phase out the old NATED subjects. The NCV curriculum includes three compulsory elements which mirror the school curriculum, namely Mathematics or Mathematical Literacy, Communication, and Life Skills. In addition, the students then specialise in one of a number of streams including Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Mechatronics, Engineering, Marketing, Finance, Management, Office Administration, Tourism, Information Technology, Hospitality, Agriculture, Safety in Society, and Education and Development.

The nature of the knowledge underpinning the new curriculum has clearly changed given both the introduction of new fields of study and the progression of the various disciplines. While the updating of the knowledge base is critical for the delivery of education and training of quality, there is additional pressure on the lecturers to update their own knowledge. Much research shows how crucial the educators' capacity to

work with the knowledge requirements of a curriculum is, for successful implementation. It is unclear whether the lecturers in the Colleges were adequately equipped for the curriculum reforms; further research is required in this regard.

While there were widely divergent responses to the curriculum changes, there was widespread concern amongst the lecturers with whom the researchers interacted, that the NCV was not sufficiently flexible to cater for the traditional College student. Already in 2005 the South African College Principals Organisation (SACPO) issued a statement commenting on the proposed new curriculum (at that stage referred to as the Further Education and Training Certificate [FETC]: Vocational). In the statement SACPO pointed out that a three year full-time programme did not take seriously the urgency with which the country needed to deal with its skills crisis:

Regarding the purpose of the proposed policy, it is SACPO's perception that the document does not make specifically clear how the dire skills shortages in the fields of science, engineering and technology are going to be fore-grounded. The National Skills Development Strategy requires providers of education and training such as FET Colleges to address these shortages by offering relevant, effective and efficient education and training as a matter of urgency. If FET Colleges are going to be "incentivised" through recapitalization and other means, to focus their learning programme provision towards the FETC (vocational) – three year qualification – SACPO believes that "occupational" training will suffer greatly and therefore limit the public providers, such as FET Colleges', contribution towards shrinking the skills shortages in South Africa over the short term. Learners will "qualify" at NQF Level 4 without having attained the level of skill that would make them immediately (self) employable – e.g. licensed electrician (SACPO 2005:np).

At the heart of SACPO's concern lay the tension between Colleges that were responsive to labour market needs by offering flexible courses that enabled employers to release staff for short blocks of time, versus the education departments' vision of Colleges as being primarily vocational and technical high schools. The structure of the NATED programme used a trimester system that allowed students to move between College and work in a three month cycle. Employers generally viewed this arrangement as being preferable in that they would have the benefit of the apprentice for blocks of time while the NCV student would effectively only be employable upon graduation.

The SACPO statement also highlighted what became an increasing source of tension between Colleges and the Department. Colleges were told that their funding stream and recapitalisation budgets would be linked to the enrolment of students on the NCV only. In reality however, as many as 50% of students in the Colleges were not in the NCV programme, and there was thus grave concern that the Colleges would not be financially viable. Indeed, as it developed, it became increasingly clear that the funding subsidy for NCV students was insufficient and Colleges which did focus entirely on NCV provision were placed at risk financially. Colleges which continued to enrol students into the old N-courses and those that offered separately funded skills courses through partnerships with industry, government or the SETAs, were better able to manage the resources and deal with staffing needs more flexibly. In some Colleges the bulk of the students were not enrolled for the NCV.

After the Colleges were transferred to the new DHET, there was an about-turn with respect to the NATED programmes, and the minister announced that these programmes would be retained and would receive subsidy while all the offerings were reviewed. This was due to the strong preference from

industry for the NATED curriculum and a general distrust of the NCV. However this decision was largely reactive and triggered further reviews of both the NCV and NATED curricula.

The confusion over the nature of what Colleges should be offering had an obvious impact on the staff. In some Colleges senior managers were openly dismissive of the new NCV, and this hostility was tangible amongst staff. Lecturers' identities were to some extent shaped by the programmes they were working on, and distinct categories of staff began developing in the Colleges. New lecturers were employed to offer the fundamental subjects such as Communication, Life Skills, Mathematical Literacy and Mathematics. These lecturers often had different backgrounds, coming from the world of education rather than from the workplace, and often had degree-level qualifications. These patterns changed the nature of the workforce in the Colleges.

In all, the curriculum reforms and pressures had a significant impact on the lecturers and changed the way in which many were expected to work. But the curriculum reform also changed the students.

Students

Two significant shifts occurred in relation to the students in Colleges. Available DoE data provide a basic overview of the total enrolment of students in the public TVET Colleges. In 2007 there were 320 679 learners in the 50 'FET Colleges' (DoE, 2009). Eight years earlier, in 1999, there were 271 900 students in the 153 Colleges, while in 2002 the head-count peaked at 406 144 learners (DoE, 1999, 2004a). By 2013 the student numbers had climbed to almost 640 000 (DHET, 2015).

There have clearly been significant fluctuations, but also steady growth in the student numbers. However, if staffing is compared across the same period, it is clear that while the student body increased by more than 100%, the staff complement in the 50 Colleges changed from 7038 in 1999, to 7088 in 2002, and then dropped to just less than 6000 in 2007. There was thus a significant increase in the staff: student ratio (from 1:38 to 1:53) over this period, coinciding with the major policy reforms detailed above. By 2011 these ratios had improved somewhat with the official figures showing that student numbers had stabilized at around 400 000 while the staff complement had increased to almost 8700 (a ratio of 1:45), although by 2013 this ratio had jumped up to 1:64. Clearly lecturers have had to deal with the ever-increasing class sizes, which have probably increased their teaching and assessment loads, and possibly impacted on the quality of curriculum delivery.

Perhaps even more significant in some respects was the change in the make-up of the student body. The former technical Colleges generally catered for students from homogenous backgrounds, based on the *apartheid* system. In addition, depending on subject discipline, there was a strongly gendered pattern of students in the Colleges.

The changes in the national policy and the mergers resulted in significant changes in the student body in terms of socio-economic background, home language, gender and population group. College lecturers who in the past may have worked with and been familiar with students from a specific cultural or linguistic background were now faced with far greater diversity. There is no evidence to suggest that these shifts were supported through staff development around multicultural education approaches, anti-racism or anti-sexism. Literature on multicultural education highlights the complexities and stresses that teachers at any level face when having to confront their own prejudices on a daily basis in their classrooms (Jansen, 2009).

For Colleges that historically drew from the privileged sectors of South African society, and which had good primary and high schools feeding their institutions, certain assumptions about language and numeracy competences were prevalent. As the student population diversified, these basic assumptions about what students knew, and also what they were likely to have experienced, became disrupted. In some cases the students had never seen the tools or artifacts that they were working with before and may never have had exposure to products, such as cars, that they were working on. These realities continue to pose a number of challenges for teaching and what can be assumed about prior knowledge.

In addition, the shift of the Colleges into the NQF Level 2-4 NCV qualifications and the pressure from the DoE to take in post-Grade 9 learners meant that many Colleges suddenly had to cater for students in the 15-17 high school-equivalent age groups for the first time. Historically, Technical Colleges were predominantly post-school institutions and the students were in the 17-25 years age band. In 2010 the enrolments in NCV programmes made up over a third of the students. Teaching young adults and teaching teenagers, many of whom may have enrolled at a College because they were excluded from the schooling system, were very different activities. The College lecturers interviewed, routinely expressed their frustrations at having to deal with new types of issues, including behavioural discipline, emotional maturity and development, and teenage pregnancy. Many of the lecturers interviewed complained that Colleges had 'now become high schools' and that they themselves were like 'babysitters'. Lecturers were given very little support in this regard, and largely had to find their own ways of coping personally, and in terms of their teaching.

Overall, the change in the student body meant that lecturers' prior assumptions about who they were teaching had been disrupted, and that new understandings had to be developed. Disruption of assumptions is not

necessarily a problem, as this can result in creative new engagement with the students. Indeed, it is desirable that lecturers do not become too complacent in terms of assuming that they know and understand their students, given that even in relatively homogenous societies there is significant intergenerational change. However, these changes need to be viewed alongside all the other changes if the impact on the lecturers is to be fully understood.

Educator qualifications

A 2009 audit of the TVET Colleges in the Eastern Cape found that only 38% of lecturers 'are confident in their abilities to fully impart practical skills to learners' and that 34% were in urgent need of a 'practical up-skilling intervention' (ECCSEC-JIPSA, 2009). These percentages are indicative of a wider crisis in the sector around the capacity of the staff in Colleges to teach their subjects, and specifically the practical components of the curriculum.

Michael Young (2006) outlines a number of models of teacher education for the College sector based on international practice. His preferred option is a model that sees professional development as being the joint responsibility of Colleges and universities in partnerships that address the issue of specialist vocational pedagogy and curriculum knowledge. Such partnerships require complex relations between specialists in the appropriate disciplines, professional bodies and curriculum specialists in order to avoid the dangers of generic training. Currently South Africa has not developed this capacity.

The formal offering of programmes for College-based lecturers is relatively limited and there is very little literature on technical and

vocational teacher education in South Africa (Papier, 2010)⁴. One of the reasons for the lack of offerings of dedicated programmes is that until relatively recently there was no policy on what form of educational training is required for College lecturers. The now-gazetted framework for new qualifications envisages that all lecturers will progressively improve their qualifications up to graduate equivalence (RSA, 2013). It requires that all lecturers become qualified educators and not just have relevant work-oriented qualifications.

The implications for lecturers are that they will need to engage in substantial study, beginning with a short Vocational Educators Orientation Programme (VEOP) and then progressively improving their qualifications. Two potential consequences emerge. Firstly, there is a risk that Colleges may decrease their connections to the world of work through the increasing focus on education over work-based qualifications. Currently the identities of many lecturers are centred primarily on their subject disciplines or professions. For example, many of the lecturers interviewed in the engineering field saw themselves as artisans and engineers before they saw themselves as teachers. These identities may shift as they are involved in study programmes. Secondly, lecturers who do not wish to become 'teachers' may leave the Colleges and increase the flow of skills out of the Colleges.

In a more positive vein, many of the challenges related to the curriculum change and student transformation already discussed, are primarily educational challenges that could be addressed through better teaching and educational understanding.

⁴ An interesting possible area that can provide the basis for studies on teacher identity in the vocational sector lies in the work on teaching and learning generated in universities of technology by the teaching and learning specialists and the academic development practitioners attached to the faculties in the institutions (see for instance Jacobs, 2006; McKenna and Sutherland, 2006; Winberg, 2006 and numerous papers presented at the annual SAAAD conferences).

Potentially the poor student throughput and pass rates and challenges lecturers reported in their experiences of classroom and workshop interactions could be improved through more effective teaching-and-learning processes.

Post-2009 developments

In the splitting of the national Department of Education into the DHET and DBE, the TVET Colleges were located under the DHET. Many of the criticisms of the TVET system, including its location in parallel to schooling and the tensions between education and labour, have been addressed (MHET, 2013).

A number of new developments have addressed the challenges outlined in this paper. There was an immediate moratorium on the phasing out of the old NATED courses. Colleges have been encouraged to prioritise post-school youth; more flexible versions of the NCV are being explored, and the SETAs have been brought under the auspices of the DHET. Colleges are no longer tied to the offering of qualifications at NQF Levels 2, 3 and 4: under the NQF Act of 2008, NQF Level 5 qualifications can be located in both the GFETQSF and the OQSF, and NQF Level 6 qualifications in the OQSF and the HEQSF.

While the qualifications framework for College lecturers has been gazetted, the process of actually developing the qualifications is still underway. The recent developments have been widely welcomed in the sector; the immediate implication is that there remains considerable flux in the sector for the foreseeable future.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Education and training reform is largely contingent on the people who have to implement the reforms. In South Africa's TVET Colleges the reform process has changed the institutions' size and shape, has altered their mandate and focus, and has changed the students and the curriculum. In addition the staff conditions of employment have changed, and staff members are increasingly expected to change their workplace identities. This reform process has been extensive, and that it took place in less than a decade highlights the intense nature of the process.

Milbrey McLaughlin (1998) argued that teachers' values, practices and beliefs shape the outcomes of implementation. At the start of the research on which the collection of papers on TVET in this volume are based there was no reliable insight into what these values, practices and beliefs were. It was important to open up this 'black box'.

The lack of a solid TVET management information system has historically presented difficulties for planning in the sector: it is imperative that the current collection of quantitative data be continued and expanded. However, Paper 1 focuses on some of the implications of the reforms, for College lecturers. As Sutton and Levinson (2001) argue, if there is a need to understand the implementation of reform one must start with an examination of practice.

REFERENCES

Akoojee, S. 2008. Further Education and Training (FET) College lecturers: the 'devolving' link in the South African skills development equation. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 60:3:297-313.

Akoojee, S. and McGrath, S. 2008. The marketing of public Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa: issues for policy and practice. *Journal of Education*, 45:131-154.

Akoojee, S., McGrath, S., and Visser, M. 2007. Further Education and Training Colleges. In A. Kraak (Ed.), *Human Resources Development Review 2008: Education, employment and skills in South Africa*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Ball, S. 1990. *Politics and policy-making in education: exploration in Policy Sociology*. London: Routledge.

Chappell, C. 2003. Researching vocational education and training: where to from here? *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 55:1:21-32.

Chisholm, L. 2005a. The making of South Africa's national curriculum statement. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 37:2:193-208.

Chisholm, L. 2005b. The politics of curriculum review and revision in South Africa in regional context. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative Education*, 35:1:79-100.

Chisholm, L. and Leyendecker, R. 2008. Curriculum reform in post-1990s Sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 28:195-205.

Dale, R. 1999. Specifying globalisation effects on national policy: a focus on mechanisms, *Journal of Education Policy*, 14:1:1-17. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/026809399286468>, March 2015.

Department of Education (DoE). 1999. Education statistics at a glance for 1999. Accessed at <http://www.education.gov.za/emis/emisweb/99stats/99stats.htm>, March 2010.

Department of Education (DoE). 2001. *A new institutional landscape for public Further Education and Training Colleges: reform of South Africa's*

Technical Colleges. Pretoria: DoE.

Department of Education (DoE). 2004a. *Education statistics at a glance: 2002.* Pretoria: DoE.

Department of Education (DoE). 2004b. *The new Further Education and Training (FET) professional: the challenge of staffing responsiveness.* Johannesburg: National Business Initiative.

Department of Education (DoE). 2009. *Education statistics in South Africa for 2007.* Pretoria: DoE.

Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). 2015. *Statistics on Post-School Education and Training in South Africa: 2013.* Pretoria: Government Printer.

Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation (ECCSEC)-Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA). 2009. *Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges Systemic Audit 2008/2009: Towards improving performance in the FETC sector.* Bisho: Eastern Cape Department of Education, ECCSEC, and JIPSA.

Geel, P.A. 2005. *The management of staff development programmes at Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in the Gauteng province.* Pretoria: University of South Africa (UNISA).

Gewer, A. 2001. Macro-strategies and micro-realities: evolving policies in Further Education and Training (FET). In A. Kraak and M. Young (Eds.), *Education in retrospect: policy and implementation since 1990.* Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Jacobs, C. 2006. *Negotiated understandings of the academic literacy practices of tertiary educators.* Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Jansen, J. 2003. Mergers in South African Higher Education: theorising change in transitional contexts. *Politikon: South African Journal of Political Studies*, 30:1:27-51.

Jansen, J. 2009. *Knowledge in the blood: confronting race and the apartheid past*. Palo Alto, Canada: Stanford University Press.

Kraak, A. and Hall, G. 1999. *Transforming Further Education and Training (FET) in South Africa: a case study of Technical Colleges in KwaZulu-Natal*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Mabokela, R.O. and Wei, N. 2007. Lingering effects of the past on a university merger process in post-apartheid South Africa. *International Education Journal*, 8:1:160-171.

Macun, I. 2001. Developing skills and employment in South Africa: policy formulation for labour market adjustment. In A. Kraak, and M. Young, (Eds.), *Education in retrospect: policy and implementation since 1990*, pp.169-180. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

McGrath, S. 2004. Reviewing the development of the South African Further Education and Training (FET) College sector ten years after the end of apartheid. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 56:1:137-160.

McGrath, S. 2005. Building a quality College sector for the twenty-first century. *Southern African Review of Education*, 9/10:21-44.

McKenna, S. and Sutherland, L. 2006. Balancing knowledge construction and skills training in universities of technology. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:3:15-24.

McLaughlin, M. 1998. Listening and learning from the field: tales of

imple-mentation and situated practice. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. Fullan and D. Hopkins (Eds.), *International Handbook of Educational Change*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Minister of Higher Education and Training (MHET). 2013. White Paper for Post-School Education and Training. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Morrow, W. 2007. *Learning to teach in South Africa*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Panchal, S. and Cartwright, S. 2001. Group differences in post-merger stress. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 16:6:424-433.

Pandor, N. 2006. Presentation of the Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges Act No. 16 of 2006. National Council of Provinces, October 2006.

Papier, J. 2010. From policy to curriculum in South African vocational teacher education: a comparative perspective. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 62:2:153-162.

Phutsisi, M. 2006. *Designing of a capacity development system for educational staff at Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in the Free State*. Free State, South Africa: University of the Free State.

Powell, L. and Hall, G. 2000. *Quantitative overview of the Further Education and Training (FET) College sector in 1998*. Johannesburg: National Business Initiative.

Powell, L. and Hall, G. 2002. *Quantitative overview of the Further Education and Training (FET) College sector in 2000: the new landscape*. Johannesburg: National Business Initiative.

Powell, L. and Hall, G. 2004. *Quantitative overview of the Further Education and Training (FET) College sector*. Johannesburg: National Business Initiative.

Initiative.

Rauner, F. and Maclean, R. 2008. Vocational Education and Training research – an introduction, in F. Rauner and R. Maclean (Eds.), *Handbook of Technical and Vocational Education and Training research*, pp. 13-20. Berlin and New York: Springer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2013. Policy on Professional Qualifications for Lecturers in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). Government Gazette No. 36554 of 11 June 2013. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Sooklal, S.S. 2005. The structural and cultural constraints on policy implementation: a case study of Further Education and Training Colleges in South Africa. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Pretoria, South Africa.

South African College Principals Organisation (SACPO). 2005. Statement on the Further Education and Training Certificate (FETC). Colloquium on the FETC, 2 November 2005, Pretoria, South Africa.

Sutton, M. and Levinson, B. 2001. *Policy as practice: towards a comparative socio-cultural analysis of educational policy*. Westport: Ablex.

Wedekind, V. 2008. Report on the research on Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa. Pietermaritzburg, South Africa: University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Winberg, C. 2006. Knowledge production in an architectural practice and a university architectural department. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:3:83-96.

Young, M., 2006. FET College teachers: A knowledge-based profession of the future. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:3:153-160.

Literature on Technical and Vocational Education

and Training (TVET) College lecturers: a review

Volker Wedekind

INTRODUCTION

This paper provides an overview of the international literature on College educators and discusses this picture in relation to research on Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges in South Africa. It draws on an earlier unpublished report on the South African literature developed for the British Council, which attempted to outline key trends up to the mid-2000s, in the South African literature (Wedekind, 2008a). The 2008 report drew on published research as well as the growing body of knowledge contained in the unpublished work of post-graduate students that is housed in university libraries. Paper 2 considers the knowledge production networks that exist in South Africa and internationally, that have generated the published and 'grey' literature, where this is available.

This review is limited to those studies that focus on TVET College lecturers and their equivalents in selected countries, what Grollmann and Rauner (2007:6) describe as "teachers or lecturers working in formal school or College settings and giving instruction in vocational courses" as well as "instructors and laboratory assistants, working in College or school settings in vocational labs". Colleges are part of a wider system of technical and vocational education and training, and form part of a larger human resource development agenda. There is related literature on history, policy, institutions, knowledge and skills, skills shortages, skills development, Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs), employment, employability

and unemployment that is directly relevant to this field (readers are referred to Archer, 2007; Daniels, 2007) as well as literature focused on vocational educators in workplaces and adult education centres, which cannot be covered in this review.

As outlined in Paper 1, Colleges are expected to undergo radical transformation and to make difficult contributions to major policy challenges. However, these institutions are still relatively new and fragile and are in some instances based on historically weak predecessors. When forced to confront conflicting questions about what they are for, such institutions have relatively weak resources on which to draw. Understanding these institutions and the people in them is critical for understanding the entire sector. Paper 2 begins by outlining the broad trends in the field of research on vocational teachers in South Africa, and then discusses themes that emerge from the literature. The paper concludes with a section that discusses key gaps and future directions. In each section the paper contrasts the local research with trends in the international literature.

KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION ON FET COLLEGE LECTURERS

The research on TVET Colleges and technical and vocational education and training in South Africa generally has been produced by a relatively small group of researchers and is comparatively underdeveloped. Nonetheless, it is a growing field and there is evidence of increasing numbers of writers entering the field from a diverse range of institutions. However, while there are signs of growth, there is also a great deal of fragility because so much of the research has been commissioned and is thus dependent on the vagaries of funding.

As argued in the earlier review, two now largely defunct centres for

research have historically contributed the largest body of available research on the College sector (Wedekind, 2008). The most significant of these entities is the Human Resource Development (HRD) section of the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (see for example Akoojee, 2005; Akoojee *et al*, 2005; Akoojee *et al*, 2008; Cosser *et al*, 2003; Gamble, 2003b; Kraak and Hall, 1999; Kraak and Perold, 2003; Kraak and Press, 2008; McGrath, 2004; Odora-Hoppers, 2000, 2001; Young and Gamble, 2006). The second significant research unit that generated research on the sector is the National Business Initiative (NBI). The NBI played a lead role in developing a quantitative dataset on the College sector that remains the source of data for most researchers (see Powell and Hall, 2000, 2002, 2004; Jaff *et al*, 2004).

Since the NBI stopped working on the Further Education and Training Management Information System (FETMIS) data there was a hiatus in work that examined the system in a quantitative way, and for a number of years there was no reliable dataset. More recently, this situation has improved with the Joint Education Trust (JET), the FET Institute (FETI), the Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation (ECCSEC), the SAQA-UKZN Partnership Research, and the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) all releasing large scale survey data (ECCSEC-JIPSA, 2009; Cosser and Kraak, 2011; ECCSEC, 2011), The administrative data managed by the Department of Higher Education and Training have also been improved (DHET, 2015).

The second largest body of literature on the sector is the research, evaluation work, and technical reports produced by or for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), donors (for example DANIDA, GTZ, USAID, SSACI and the British Council) and government departments (see for example Badroodien and McGrath, 2003; Gamble, 2003b; Badroodien, 2006; Kraak, 2000; Maja, 2000). International development agencies such as DANIDA, GTZ and SSACI have played a significant role in supporting innovation in

the College sector and developing capacity (Singizi Consulting, 2011). Many of their projects have been monitored and evaluated, providing a valuable research resource (Singizi Consulting, 2010). However, grey literature of this nature is not always readily accessible and there is a risk that valuable research data will disappear if it is not formally published.

In line with their mandates, South African statutory bodies such as Umalusi and SAQA have also commissioned and carried out research focusing on the FET sector. Umalusi in particular has an internal research unit that produces and publishes research reports on various aspects of quality assurance (see for example Umalusi, 2007a, 2007b). Individuals associated with Umalusi have produced work in their personal capacity that engages theoretically with the nature of the qualifications framework and the consequences of outcomes-based education for the sector (Allais, 2003; 2007a; 2007b; 2014, Allais and Raffe, 2009, Allais *et al* 2009).

While there are a few university-based academics writing on the TVET College sector (see for example Bisschoff and Nkoe, 2005), until recently there was only one dedicated university-linked unit focusing on FET, namely the FET Institute (FETI) based at the University of the Western Cape (UWC). There are some research units with an interest in the sociology and eco-nomics of work, that research aspects relating to the TVET sector, but this is not a core focus area for research. There are no university departments of Technical and Vocational Education and training within faculties of education. A few university departments were however found to have programmes such as the National Professional Diploma in Education, and the VEOP pilot and leadership courses for College managers, both geared towards College staff.

A number of centres with a greater or lesser focus on Colleges have recently been set up. The University of the Witwatersrand re-engineered

its Education Policy Unit (EPU) in 2012 to form the Centre for Researching Education and Labour (REAL), in order to focus on the labour market-education nexus. The Centre for Integrated Post-School Education and Training (CIPSET) was also established in 2012, at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU), to focus on an integrated post-school system. A TVET Special Interest Group (SIG) was approved in 2014 by the South African Education Research Association (SAERA), pointing to a significant interest in TVET within the education research community in South Africa.

There are growing numbers of dissertations being produced at various universities across the country that focus on TVET Colleges. The theses surveyed for this report were produced at NMMU, North West University (NWU), Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), the University of Cape Town (UCT), the University of the Free State (UFS), the University of Johannesburg (UJ), the University of Pretoria (UP), the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), the University of South Africa (UNISA), and the University of the Western Cape (UWC). These theses emanate from diverse disciplines and topics ranging from studies on learner achievement (Baloyi, 2004; Kiewiets, 2006; Shongwe, 2004), to student support systems (Ferreira, 2002), dealing with disability (Fourie, 2007), pedagogy (Edwards, 1999; Ferreira, 2005; Moosa, 2012), management (Mafaralala, 2006; Manota, 2003; Mohlokoane, 2004; Ncono, 2006; Selebaleng, 2005; Steyn, 2006; Buthelezi, 2014), evaluations (Barnes, 2004), staff development (Geel, 2005; Phutsisi, 2006), curriculum development (Fester, 2006; Tsolo, 2006; Jacobsz, 2004; Smith, 2006; Towani, 2012; Mkhize, 2015), assessment (Zungu, 2016) and policy (Sooklal, 2005).

Some of these theses are produced by managers or educators within the TVET College sector; they represent an important and growing internal capacity for research within the sector. However, the wide range of

topics and the spread of institutions in which the research is located suggest that there is no critical mass located in any one institution, and that there is very little focus to the work. Indeed, the fact that the research is focused on TVET Colleges does not necessarily mean that it is located within the field of technical and vocational education and training, and much of it is supervised by academics with no background in the field.

This pattern of TVET-related research being generated primarily outside the university sector is mirrored in many countries around the world. In the United States, bodies such as the National Research Centre for Career and Technical Education (NRCCTE) generate research that is geared towards technical assistance and professional development in the field. The NRCCTE has a large output of research, but very little of it focuses on the lecturers other than indirectly, by looking at initial and in-service programmes (Bruening *et al*, 2001; MacCaslin and Parker, 2003). Similar patterns were found in the United Kingdom and Australia where the bulk of the research on Further Education (FE) and Technical and Further Education (TAFE) lecturers is generated outside of the university sector – such as that in the National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER) in Australia – although there is a growing number of dissertations focusing on TAFE lecturers (see for example Shorne, 2008). Even in central European countries with a long tradition of TVET teaching and research at universities, such as Germany, the dominant players in the field are linked to the Bundes Institut für Berufsbildung (BIBB), a government agency.

It is clear that there is a growing interest in the College sector as a research focus, both in South Africa and internationally. However, within this body of literature there is a very limited focus on the educators. Jephcote and Salisbury (2009:967) acknowledge the growth in academic research on Further Education in the United Kingdom, pointing out that “in terms of what we know about Further Education teachers they are

perhaps only marginally beyond the ‘shadowy figures’ stage”. Grollman and Rauner (2007) note that internationally there is still a ‘fundamental lack of information’ regarding vocational teachers. The sections that follow explore some of the key themes that are addressed in the South African literature which focuses on the educators, and contrast these themes with those in international studies. Areas that appear under-developed and requiring more work, are pointed out.

LECTURERS IN COLLEGES

Relatively recent quantitative studies drawing on official statistics (Akoojee, McGrath and Visser, 2008) use 2002 data, despite the fact that there has been significant change in the system over the past decade. Basic descriptive information on the population groups, gender and qualification levels is available up to 2002 (see DoE, 2004; Powell and Hall, 2000, 2002, 2004), but there is no detail that differentiates areas of specialization in qualifications, work-based experience and so forth. More recent surveys conducted by FETI, within the SAQA-UKZN Partnership Research, and by the Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation (ECCSEC) provide more detailed pictures (see Paper 3), but as they do not draw on official data they are not comprehensive. Even the relatively recently released HSRC *Audit of FET Colleges* (Cosser and Kraak, 2011), which had official DHET support, failed to collect detailed data about the lecturers in the system. Nevertheless, the audit report provides some of the most comprehensive, currently available, national data about the lecturers. The DHET has begun publishing some data on the post-school system which provides very basic global figures on the numbers of lecturers in the system (DHET, 2015).

Qualitatively, little is known about the biographical profiles of the College

staff, their motivation for choosing to teach, their attitudes and values, and their career paths. With the exception of a limited number of dissertations that test perceptions, Colleges remain a 'black box' as far as the teaching staff and the students are concerned. Studies by Towani (2012), Buthelezi (2015) and Msibi (2016) are some of the exceptions. Towani (2012) studied the experiences of lecturers as they implemented the new Marketing NCV curriculum, using life-history interviews to elicit the data. She found that lecturers had been insufficiently prepared for the new curriculum and that there had been very little buy-in for its delivery. Buthelezi (2015) interviewed lecturers who had been through the period of reform, seeking to understand the impact of the changes on their lives, while Msibi (2016) examined the effects that 'race and identity' had had, on lecturers' experiences of their careers.

The formal offering of programmes for College-based lecturers is limited, and there is almost no literature on technical and vocational teacher education (Papier, 2010). The report on a symposium hosted by FETI in 2009 documents some of the key debates that remain unresolved (FETI, 2009). Michael Young's (2006) 'conversation' piece outlines a number of models of teacher education for the College sector based on international practices. His preferred option is a model that sees professional development as the joint responsibility of Colleges and universities in a partnership.

Papier (2010) traced the national vocational teacher education debate and compared it to related international debates. Papier (2011) has also begun to explore the terrain of vocational teacher identity, and its relationship to vocational pedagogy (Papier, 2009). She argues (Papier, 2011:102), that "there is a need for qualitative enquiry that attempts to understand the local impacts of the changing world of vocational education both within and beyond South Africa and that deals with the myriad sociological questions

that could be asked". She builds on Barnett's (2006) notion that lecturers need to develop a pedagogy that 'faces both ways', in other words, that is oriented towards both educational and workplace needs. This creates a tension in terms of educator identity:

Vocational teachers are ... required to span these two spheres (work and education) and embrace a dual identity that combines liberal education and economic enterprise, placing them in a state of tension between 'industry expert' and 'expert educator' identities, even though they are dislocated from both traditional sites – the industrial workplace and the traditional school (Papier, 2011:106).

Internationally the issue of teacher identity in TVET has been explored specifically within the context of processes like globalization and neo-liberal economics. One of the key writers in this field is Chappel, who has written extensively about the TAFE teachers' experiences of reform (Chappel, 1999, 2003; Chappel and Solomon, 2002). In her doctoral study, Shorne (2008) traces the lives and careers of TAFE lecturers in Australia and shows how casualization of the College workforce has resulted in shifts in lecturer identities away from the notion of teaching as a career, and how people look for security outside of education.

Salim Akoojee (2008) has highlighted some of the dangers associated with the decisions around devolving responsibility for staffing to the College councils, and warns that there may be undesirable and unintended consequences. However, his paper does not enter into the fine-grained detail required to understand fully, who the College lecturers are and what motivates them, and crucially, how they see themselves as educators and specialists. In a similar vein, in Paper 4 in this volume, Wedekind analyses the changes in governance and policy affecting staff in Colleges and shows how the various changes in governance structures increasingly placed lecturers and College managers at the periphery. These shifts resulted in a

significant portion of the lecturer body feeling disengaged from their workplaces.

An interesting body of research that could possibly provide the basis for studies on lecturer identity in the vocational sector lies in the work on teaching and learning generated in universities of technology. This work has been done not by the faculties of education, but by the teaching and learning specialists, and academic development practitioners attached to faculties in the institutions (see for instance Jacobs, 2006; McKenna and Sutherland, 2006; Winberg, 2006, and numerous papers presented at the annual South African Association for Research and Development in Higher Education [SAARDHE] conferences).

Given that lecturers work primarily with knowledge, one of the key strands of research that needs to be expanded focuses on the nature of vocational knowledge and how it relates to the curriculum. The work of Jeanne Gamble stands out as a major contribution regarding curriculum studies. Gamble (2003a, 2004a, 2004b) has addressed the issues on a theoretical level, in terms of understanding the nature of craft and technical knowledge, and also (in Gamble, 2003b), in terms of curriculum responsiveness.

Gamble (2003a, 2003b, 2004a, 2004b) examines the knowledge required for employment and for self-employment, explores the tensions between theory and practice in the curriculum, and addresses the complexity of language and learning in a country where the majority of people learn in a language that it is not their home language. Gamble argues that there is a convergence between the training required for employment and for self-employment, and that the curriculum needs to focus on employability. Secondly, she argues that, contrary to many fears that a strong focus on employability will 'dumb down' the curriculum, what is increasingly clear is that theoretical knowledge is central to the demands of the modern economy. Gamble suggests that developing some conceptual distinctions

between the different forms of knowledge required for employability could assist when rethinking the curriculum and who should be teaching it.

In addition to her own work, Gamble has co-edited a book with Michael Young that analyses various aspects of the FET curriculum, including the FET curriculum in schools (Young and Gamble, 2006). The contributors that focus on vocational education and training, cover qualifications reform (Allais, 2006; Young, 2006), vocational curriculum (Gamble, 2006), and vocational pedagogy (Barnett, 2006; Wheelahan, 2010; Allais, 2012, Lucas *et al* 2012). While the focus of this work is not on the lecturers, the implications for lecturers are critical.

A body of research that is currently absent from the South African literature is work that focuses on the assessment of competence, both that of the lecturers and that of the students. This form of diagnostic testing that seeks to standardize the instruments so that inter-country comparison is possible is already well developed in Germany and a number of other countries. The work of Rauner (2005) is central to this literature. Rauner is searching the development of instruments that would allow for tests across national contexts so that the comparative strengths and weaknesses in lecturers' knowledge can be ascertained. As with all standardisation there are enormous risks and challenges associated with this work, but it is critical that South Africans engage with it.

An interesting niche area regarding curriculum relates to student access and support. Nair (2002) proposes a theoretical framework for thinking about access and retention issues related to programme design. Other studies examine the integration of students with disability, academic support, e-learning, and specific teaching strategies related to areas of the curriculum (see Shongwe, 2004; Ferreira, 2005; Smith, 2006; Tsolo, 2006). This embryonic research into practice is an area with great possibilities for the future.

While South Africa has significant capacity in curriculum studies research, there is very little application to the vocational curriculum with the notable exceptions already mentioned above. Further, there is no evidence of any sustained examination of the issues of learning and teaching (pedagogy) that are specific to vocational knowledge. The introduction of the National Certificate Vocational (NCV) poses a range of curriculum questions that require research attention. To what extent does the NCV address the employability criteria that Gamble proposes, and what types of knowledge are specified in that curriculum? To what extent does the NCV curriculum fragment knowledge through the specification of outcomes, and to what extent are the existing College lecturers able to teach the new curriculum? These questions are addressed to some degree in papers produced as part of the SAQA-UKZN Research Partnership (see Papers 5, 6, and 7 in this volume) and further developed within the overarching Labour Market Intelligence Project (LMIP)⁵.

CONCLUSION: GAPS AND OPPORTUNITIES

What emerges from the review in this paper is that while there is a growing body of published and 'grey' literature available on the TVET College sector generally, there is a national and international dearth of research into the lecturers that populate the system. In this final section the areas that require further development in order to address this gap are discussed.

One of the overarching concerns is that the bulk of the research in South Africa remains 'grey' and is grant-funded rather than being part of institutions. Recent history in South Africa shows how funding priorities and loss of key personnel at critical moments can result in a major decline

5 See www.lmip.org.za for a repository of research relevant to the field.

in research activity. It is crucial that the research in the sector becomes mainstreamed into research organizations that have discretionary monies available. Universities, with their own internal research grants, graduate students, and access to funding from structures like the National Research Foundation, offer a possibility of more sustainable longer-term research into the sector, particularly in areas outside policy and evaluation studies.

The establishment of a number of new centres and units at universities offer some hope that this work is now underway, and the establishment of a Special Interest Group (SIG) under the umbrella of SAERA is an indicator of growing interest amongst South African researchers. There is a critical need for the development of internal research capacity within the College system itself, so that knowledge about the sector is generated from within. The offering of new masters-level programmes that focus on the post-school sector is a key development in this respect.

Much of the reform process cares little about understanding the people in the system or about addressing their needs. From a macro-reform perspective, as long as more staff and students meet equity criteria, and enrolments and 'throughputs' are increasing, there is little more that needs to be considered. However, such a view is untenable. Staff in the sector have been consistently portrayed as conservative, ill-educated and out of touch with workplaces.

Yet, these same staff members were required to become transformed through little more than a few workshops on outcomes based education. Assumptions that staff should provide "24/7 delivery" (as expressed by some of the lecturers interviewed) are ungrounded in any sense of either the existing rights of staff, or the nature of the TVET field in much of South Africa. Beyond such practical issues, there are also unanswered and often unstated questions about the nature of the staffing complement, its multiple backgrounds and senses of identity, and its future aspirations.

Too little is known about the dynamics of staff and student interactions. How do the different evolutions of both groupings in terms of population group, gender and class interact with each other? On a more practical level, how do both groups deal with the issues of language in the classrooms and workshops, given the radical but unbalanced changes in the home language mixes of both groups?

Finally, this review reveals a major gap in the understandings of pedagogy that is specific to the technical and vocational sector. What are the 'signature pedagogies' (Shulman, 2005) of the various vocational disciplines taught in the College sector and do we have an adequate language of description for the task of analyzing it? If teachers are to be more professionally trained, it is incumbent on the teacher training institutions to develop a more focused theoretical understanding of the teaching processes required to train and apprentice new skilled professionals, artisans and workers. For this task there is a need to engage with research outside of the Anglophone world and to develop a context-appropriate theory of pedagogy.

The embryonic nature of the field opens up possibilities for creative and innovative research on technical and vocational education at all levels. Higher Education institutions are showing signs of recognizing this need and its potential and consequently there may be realignments in the existing capacity, and development of new capacity, that will see the sector emerging as a substantive area of study.

REFERENCES

Akoojee, S. 2005. *Private Further Education and Training in South Africa: the changing landscape*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council

(HSRC) Press.

Akoojee, S. 2008. Further Education and Training (FET) College lecturers: the 'devolving' link in the South African skills development equation. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 60:3:297- 313.

Akoojee, S. and McGrath, S. 2006. *Marketing and communication units at Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges: an appraisal*. Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) report.

Akoojee, S. and McGrath, S. 2007. Public and private Further Education and Training in South Africa: a comparative analysis of the quantitative evidence. *South African Journal of Education*, 27:2:209-222.

Akoojee, S., Gewer, A. and McGrath, S. (Eds.) 2005. *Vocational Education and Training in Southern Africa: a comparative study*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Akoojee, S., McGrath, S. and Visser, M. 2008. Further Education and Training Colleges. In Kraak A. *et al* (Eds.), *Human Resources Development Review: 2007*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Allais, S.M. 2003. The National Qualifications Framework in South Africa: a democratic project trapped in a neo-liberal paradigm? *Journal of Education and Work*, 16:3:305-324.

Allais, S.M. 2006. Problems with qualification reform in senior secondary education in South Africa. In Young, M. and Gamble, J. (Eds.), *Knowledge, curriculum and qualifications for South African Further Education*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Allais, S.M. 2007a. Education service delivery: the disastrous case of outcomes-based qualifications frameworks. *Progress in Development Studies*, 7:1:01:65-78.

Allais, S.M. 2007b. The rise and fall of the NQF: a critical analysis of the

South African National Qualifications Framework. Doctoral thesis, School of Public and Development Management, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa.

Allais, S.M. 2012. Will skills save us? Rethinking the relationships between vocational education, skills development policies, and social policy in South Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 32:5:632-642.

Allais, S.M. and D. Raffe. 2009. Learning from the first qualifications frame-works. Geneva: International Labour Organisation (ILO).

Allais, S.M., Raffe, D., Strathdee, R., Wheelahan, L. and Young, M. 2009. *Learning from the first qualifications frameworks*. Geneva: International Labour Organisation (ILO), Employment Sector, Skills and Employability Department.

Archer, S. 2007. The international literature on skills training and the scope for South African application. Development Policy Research Unit Report.

Badroodien, A. 2004. Monitoring and evaluation of DANIDA Support to the Education and Skills Development (SESD) programme: Second Formative Impact Assessment – Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges. Paper presented at the SESD programme evaluation: Mid-term Dissemination Seminar, Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC), Pretoria, 23 July.

Badroodien, A. 2006. The role of linkages and programme units in building better relationships between Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges and the world of work. Paper commissioned by the Department of Education.

Badroodien, A. and Kallaway, P. 2003-4. Further Education and Training (FET) in South Africa: the pursuit of skills and learning, to work. *Southern African Review of Education*, 9/10:5-20.

Badroodien, A. and McGrath, S. 2003. Monitoring and evaluation of the

DANIDA Support to Education and Skills Development (SESD) Programme: First Formative Assessment. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Baloyi, M.L. 2004. Improving achievement in Further Education and Training (FET) institutions in Limpopo province. Unpublished master's degree thesis, Tshwane University of Technology, Pretoria, South Africa.

Barnes, C.F. 2004. The transformation of Technical Colleges into Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges: a decision-oriented evaluation of the Northern Cape Urban FET College. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of the Free State, South Africa.

Barnett, M. 2006. Vocational knowledge and vocational pedagogy. In M. Young and J. Gamble (Eds.), *Knowledge, curriculum and qualifications for South African Further Education*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press: 143-157.

Bird, A. 2001. Knowledge capacity-building in South Africa. In W. Gmelin, K. King and S. McGrath (Eds.), *Development knowledge, national research and international cooperation*. Edinburgh/Bonn/Geneva: CAS/DSE/Norrag.

Bisschoff, T.C. and Nkoe, M.N. 2005. The merging of Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges - challenging factors in three provinces of South Africa. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 19:3:203-217.

Bruening, T.H., Scanlon, D.C., Hodes, C., Dhital, P., Shao, X. and Liu, S.T. 2001. Characteristics of teacher educators in career and Technical Education. Accessed at <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED458407>, March 2016.

Buthelezi, Z. 2014. At the policy-practice interface: exploring Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) lecturers' educational reform experiences. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Chappel, C. 1999. Issues of teacher identity in a restructuring Vocational

Education and Training (VET) system. Paper developed for the UTS Research Centre for Vocational Education and Training.

Chappell, C. 2003. Researching Vocational Education and Training: where to from here? *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 55:1:21-32.

Chappell, C. and Solomon, N. 2002. Researching the pedagogies of the new vocationalism: developing skills for the new economy. Paper presented at the International Conference on Technical and Vocational Education and Training. Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada: UNEVOC-Canada and the Canadian Vocational Association.

Chisholm, L. 1989. Reformatories and industrial schools in South Africa: a study in class, colour and gender in the period 1882 to 1939. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, South Africa.

Chisholm, L. (Ed.) 2004. *Changing class: education and social change in post-apartheid South Africa*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Cosser, M. and Kraak, A. 2011. Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges at a Glance in 2010: FET Colleges Audit, May - July 2010. Pretoria, Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Cosser, M., McGrath, S., Badroodien, A. and Maja, B. (Eds.) 2003. *Technical College responsiveness: learner destinations and labour market environments in South Africa*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Daniels, R. 2007. Skills shortages in South Africa: a literature review. Development Policy Research Unit Report, University of Cape Town, South Africa.

Department of Education (DoE). 2004. The new Further Education and Training (FET) professional: the challenge of staffing responsiveness in

FET Colleges. Report prepared by the National Business Initiative (NBI).

Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). 2015. Statistics on Post-School Education and Training in South Africa: 2013. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation (ECCSEC). 2011. Report on a skills audit of Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges. Eastern Cape: ECCSEC.

Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation (ECCSEC)-Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA). 2009. Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges Systemic Audit 2008/2009: Towards improving performance in the FETC sector. Bisho: Eastern Cape Department of Education, ECCSEC-JIPSA.

Edwards, L. 1999. The integration of education and training in Further Education and Training (FET): towards a pedagogy of mode-switching. Unpublished masters' thesis, University of Cape Town, South Africa.

Ferreira, D.C. 2005. An investigation into the effects of co-operative learning strategies on the test results of Science students at N3 level at the Port Elizabeth College for Further Education and Training. Unpublished master's thesis, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, South Africa.

Ferreira, S.L. 2002. The design, implementation and evaluation of student support and development services in Further Education and Training Colleges in South Africa. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of the Western Cape, South Africa.

Fester, R.R. 2006. Academic staff perceptions of learnership programme delivery at a Further Education and Training institution. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Johannesburg, South Africa.

Fourie, L. 2007. Academically accommodating students with learning disabilities at Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges. Unpublished master's degree, Tshwane University of Technology, Pretoria, South Africa.

Further Education and Training Institute (FETI). 2009. National Symposium on the Development of Qualifications for Vocational and Occupational Trainers and Educators. Kopanong, Benoni, South Africa: FETI.

Gamble, J. 2003a. Retrieving the general from the particular: the structure of craft knowledge. *Journal of Education*, 29:71-92.

Gamble, J. 2003b. *Curriculum responsiveness in Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Gamble, J. 2004a. Tacit knowledge in craft pedagogy: a sociological analysis. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Cape Town, South Africa.

Gamble, J. 2004b. A future curriculum mandate for Further Education and Training Colleges: recognising intermediate knowledge and skill. In McGrath, S., Badroodien, A., Kraak, A. and Unwin, L. (Eds.). *Shifting understandings of skills in South Africa: overcoming the historical imprint of a low skills regime*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press, 175-193.

Gamble, J. 2006. *Knowledge, curriculum and qualifications for South African Further Education*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Gamble, J., McGrath, S. and Badroodien, A. 2004. Monitoring and evaluation of the DANIDA Support to Education and Skills Development (SESD) programme: Second Formative Impact Assessment, May 2004.

Geel, P.A. 2005. The management of staff development programmes at Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in the Gauteng province.

Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of South Africa.

Gewer, A. 2001. Macro-strategies and micro-realities: evolving policy in Further Education and Training (FET). In Kraak, A. and Young, M. (Eds.), *Education in retrospect: policy and implementation since 1990*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press, 133-151.

Gibbs, T., Brigden, D. and Hellenberg, D. 2004. The education versus training and the skills versus competency debates: open forum. *South African Family Practice*, 46:10:5-6.

Grollmann, P. and Rauner, F. 2007. Preface. In Grollmann, P. and Rauner, F., *International perspectives on teachers and lecturers in Technical and Vocational Education*. Dordrecht, Springer: xi-xii.

Isaacs, E., Visser, K., Friedrich, C. and Brijlal, P. 2007. Entrepreneurship education and training at the Further Education and Training (FET) level in South Africa. *South African Journal of Education*, 27:4:613-630.

Jacobs, C. 2006. Negotiated understandings of the academic literacy practices of tertiary educators. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Jacobsz, G.L. 2004. Guidelines to ensure market-driven Further Education and Training (FET) programmes in the Free State. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Free State, South Africa.

Jaff, R., Gewer, A., Fisher, G. and Wickham, S. 2004. The new Further Education and Training (FET) professional: the challenges of staffing and responsiveness in FET Colleges. National Business Initiative (NBI) report.

Jephcote, M. and Salisbury, J. 2009. Further education teachers' accounts of their professional identities, *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 25:966-972.

Kiewiets, W.M. 2006. Perceptions relating to students' performance in

Small Business Management at Further Education and Training Colleges. Unpublished master's degree thesis, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, South Africa.

Kraak, A. (Ed.). 2000. *Changing modes: new knowledge production and its implications for Higher Education in South Africa*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Kraak, A. and Hall, G. 1999. *Transforming Further Education and Training in South Africa: a case study of Technical Colleges in KwaZulu-Natal, Volume 1: Qualitative findings and analysis*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Kraak, A. and Perold, H. (Eds.). 2003. *Human Resources Development Review 2003: Education, employment and skills in South Africa* Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Kraak, A. and Press, K. (Eds.). 2008. *Human Resources Development Review 2008: Education, employment and skills in South Africa*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Kruss, G. 2006a. Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges set to become 'first choice' to skill youth. *HSRC Review*, 4:4:6-7.

Kruss, G. 2006b. *Towards a framework for organising academic support to improve student success in Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Kruss, G., Klerck, G., Paterson, A. and Godfrey, S. 2006. *Creating knowledge networks*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Lucas, B., Spencer, E., and Claxton, G. 2012. *How to teach vocational education: a theory of vocational pedagogy*. Winchester: Centre for Real-World Learning.

Mabunda, P., Adams, J. and McGrath, S. 2006. Governing transformation: the role of College councils in South African Further Education and Training reform, *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, 20:1:77-95.

MacKaslin, N. and Parker, R. 2003. *National Career and Technical Teacher Education Institute: Final Report*. Columbus: National Dissemination Centre for Career and Technical Education, Ohio State University.

Macun, I. 2001. Developing skill and employment in South Africa: policy reformulation for labour market adjustment. In Kraak, A. and Young, M. (Eds.), *Education in retrospect: policy and implementation since 1990*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press, 169-180.

Mafaralala, T.M. 2006. Merger challenges facing the management of a selected College for Further Education and Training. Unpublished master's thesis, Tshwane University of Technology, Pretoria, South Africa.

Maja, B.I. 2000. A situational analysis of Further Education and Training (FET) institutions in Mpumalanga. Report to the MEC of Education. Colleges Collaboration Fund: National Business Initiative.

Manota, P. 2003. The management of the restructuring of Technical Colleges into Further Education and Training institutions in Gauteng. Unpublished doctoral thesis, Rand Afrikaans University, Johannesburg, South Africa.

McGrath, S. 1998. National policies and institutional practices: the credibility gap in South African education and training reform. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 50:4:503-520.

McGrath, S. 2000. Coming in from the cold? Further Education and Training in South Africa. *Compare*, 30:1:65-84.

McGrath, S. 2004. Reviewing the development of the South African Further Education and Training College sector ten years after the end of *apartheid*.

Journal of Vocational Education and Training, 56:1:137-157

McGrath, S. 2005. Building a quality College sector for the twenty-first century. *Southern African Review of Education*, 9/10:21-44.

McGrath, S. 2007 Transnationals, globalisation and education and training: evidence from the South African Automotor Sector. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 59:4:575-89.

McGrath, S. and Akoojee, S. 2007. The emergence of marketing and communications strategy in South African Further Education and Training Colleges. *Education, Knowledge and Economy*, 1:3:301-321.

McGrath, S., Akoojee, S., Gewer, A., Mabizela, M., Mbele, N. and Roberts, J. 2005. An examination of the Vocational Education and Training reform debate in Southern Africa. *Compare*, 36:1:85-103.

McGrath, S., Badroodien, A., Kraak, A. and Unwin, L. (Eds.). 2004. *Shifting understandings of skills in South Africa: overcoming the historical imprint of a low skills regime*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

McKenna, S. and Sutherland, L. 2006. Balancing knowledge construction and skills training in universities of technology. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:3:15-24.

Mkhize, L. 2015. Examining the National Certificate Vocational (NCV) Finance, Economics and Accounting curriculum in promoting employability skills. Unpublished master's dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Mohlokoane, M.J.S. 2004. Towards a leadership model for the effective management of Further Education and Training Colleges in the Gauteng province. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of South Africa.

Msibi, A. 2016. An exploration of the identities of qualified artisans employed as Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) College lecturers. Unpublished master's dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Nair, P.A.P. 2002. A theoretical framework for an access programme encompassing Further Education and Training: remedy for educational wastage? *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 16:2:01/01:94.

Ncono, W.F. 2006. A comparative study of leadership and management approaches in Further Education and Training Colleges. Unpublished doctoral thesis, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, South Africa.

Odora-Hoppers, C. 2000. *Community Colleges in South Africa: towards an inclusive and vibrant Further Education and Training: Phase One Report*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Odora-Hoppers, C. 2001. *Further Education and Training institutions and communities at work: case studies of five Community College models*. Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Papier, J. 2009. The notion of vocational pedagogy and implications for the training of vocational teachers in South Africa - examining the field. In Dittrich, J., Yunos, J., Spottl, H. and Bukit, M. (Eds.), *Standardisation in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) teacher education*. Frankfurt-am-Mein: Peter Lang.

Papier, J. 2010. From policy to curriculum in South African vocational teacher education: a comparative perspective. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 62:2:153-162.

Papier, J. 2011. Vocational teacher identity: spanning the divide between the academy and the workplace. *Southern African Review of Education*, 17:101-119.

Phutsisi, M.D.M. 2006. Designing of a capacity development system for

educational staff at Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in the Free State. Unpublished master's degree, University of the Free State, South Africa.

Powell, L. and Hall, G. 2000. Quantitative overview of the Further Education and Training College sector in 1998. National Business Initiative (NBI) Report for the Department of Education.

Powell, L. and Hall, G. 2004. Quantitative overview of the Further Education and Training College Sector in 2002: a sector in transition. National Business Initiative Report (NBI) for the Department of Education.

Rauner, F. 2005. Work process knowledge and the development of vocational competence. Paper delivered at the Vocational Education and Training Conference, Muscat, Oman.

Sekete, P., Shilubane, M. and Moila, B. 2001. *De-racialisation and migration of learners in South African schools: challenges and implications*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Selebaleng, L.S. 2005. Analysis of the perceptions of staff members towards total quality management: the case study of Taletso College for Further Education and Training in the North West province. Unpublished master's thesis, North West University, South Africa.

Shongwe, Z. 2004. Factors influencing learner retention, dropout and achievement in previously disadvantaged Further Education and Training Colleges. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Port Elizabeth, South Africa.

Shorne, P. 2008. A study of the lives of casual Technical and Further Education (TAFE) lecturers in metropolitan Perth. Unpublished master's dissertation, Murdoch University, Perth, Australia.

Shulman, L. 2005. Signature pedagogies in the professions. *Daedalus*, 134:3:52-59.

Sibuqashe, M.R.S. 2005. Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) in Further Education and Training (FET) institutions in Gauteng. Unpublished master's thesis, Tshwane University of Technology, Pretoria, South Africa.

Singizi Consulting. 2010. Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges Project: Final Evaluation. Johannesburg: Swiss-South Africa Cooperation Initiative (SSACI): 101.

Singizi Consulting. 2011. Review of Further Education and Training (FET) College partnerships and linkages. Johannesburg: Swiss-South Africa Cooperation Initiative (SSACI): 56.

Smith, D.J. 2006. Concept analysis of critical cross-field outcomes in the context of private service providers within Further Education and Training (FET). Doctoral thesis, University of Pretoria, South Africa.

Sooklal, S.S. 2005. The structural and cultural constraints on policy implementation: a case study of Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Pretoria, South Africa.

Steyn, I.S. 2006. The role of educational managers in the successful implementation of Life Skills programmes in Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Stellenbosch, South Africa.

Towani, J. 2012. Classroom experiences of lecturers in implementing the new National Certificate: Marketing – life histories of three Further Education and Training (FET) College lecturers in KwaZulu-Natal. Unpublished master's dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Tsolo, R.P. 2006. The implementation of e-learning in public Further Education and Training institutions in South Africa. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Johannesburg, South Africa.

Umalusi, Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training. 2007a. Apples and Oranges? A comparison of school and College subjects. Umalusi research report. Pretoria: Umalusi.

Umalusi, Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training. 2007b. The 'f' word: the quality of the 'fundamental' component of qualifications in General and Further Education and Training. Umalusi research report. Pretoria: Umalusi.

Wedekind, V. 2008a. Report on the research on Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa. Unpublished report for the British Council England-Africa Partnership.

Wedekind, V. 2008b. Report on the research on Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa: England-Africa partnerships in Higher Education - supporting accelerated and shared growth in South Africa. Pietermaritzburg, South Africa: University of KwaZulu-Natal publication.

Wedekind, V. 2010. Chaos or coherence? Further Education and Training College Governance in Post-*apartheid* South Africa. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 5:3:302-315.

Wedekind, V. and Watson, A. 2012. Being the visible difference: an analysis of a Further Education and Training (FET) College lecturer at work. Unpublished paper, developed as part of the South African Qualifications Authority-University of KwaZulu-Natal(SAQA-UKZN) Research Partnership.

Wedekind, V., Watson, A. and Buthelezi, Z. 2011. Lecturers in distress: fractured professional identity amongst Further Education and Training (FET) College staff in South Africa. Unpublished paper, developed as part of the South African Qualifications Authority-University of KwaZulu-Natal (SAQA-UKZN) Research Partnership.

Wheelahlan, L. 2010. *Why knowledge matters in curriculum: a Social Realist argument*. London: Routledge.

Winberg, C. 2006. Knowledge production in an architectural practice and a university architectural department. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:3:83-96.

Young, M. 2006. Further Education and Training (FET) College teachers: a knowledge-based profession of the future. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:3:153-160.

Young, M. and Gamble, J. (Eds.). 2006. *Knowledge, curriculum and qualifications for South African Further Education*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Zungu, Z. 2016. Curriculum and competence: exploring the relationship between competence development and the curriculum within Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in South Africa. Unpublished master's dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Understanding complexity in the TVET College system: an analysis of the demographics, qualifications, and experiences of lecturers in sixteen TVET Colleges in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal

Volker Wedekind and Adrienne Watson

INTRODUCTION

In the White Paper for Post-School Education and Training (MHET, 2013) the Minister of Higher Education and Training sets out the intention that the TVET College sector becomes ‘the key area of focus for [the] expansion’ of South Africa’s education and training system. TVET Colleges are conceptualised as being pivotal institutions, ‘rooted in and serving’ their communities’ (MHET, 2013). This vision is aligned to the broader goal of strengthening South Africa’s economy which includes the skills development of its workforce as outlined in the National Skills Development Strategy III (NSDS III) (DHET, 2011). This articulated vision for education and training is a key driver of the continuing work of social transformation: opportunities for the majority of South Africa’s people are still curtailed by the lingering effects of institutionalised deprivation. Positioning TVET Colleges as being integral to communities suggests a welcome shift towards recognising the historic diversity and complexity of the configurations of people who are implicated in the country’s education and economic enterprises.

In addition to the White Paper, several diverse processes underway

support the centrality of TVET Colleges in creating opportunities for people seeking to participate in education and training, including those who have dropped out of school or who are seeking to access Higher Education or other learning pathways. These initiatives include a number of Ministerial task teams which are looking at funding, systemic articulation, and the role of Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs); the imperatives in the NSDS III, the development of a national plan for the post-school system, linked to the White Paper, and the development of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and its Sub-Frameworks. Embedded in these processes is an understanding that the College sector needs to be expanded significantly if it is to address the various issues mentioned. Policy-makers are thus considering a range of reforms to the TVET system in order to deliver, despite the fact that the sector has been repeatedly reformed for precisely the same reasons (Wedekind, 2014).

Work in the field of policy studies suggests that complexity is a useful lens through which to understand the processes, successes and failures of policy (Ramalingam and Jones *et al* 2008). Historically, policy processes have tended to assume a rational set of connections flowing from the policy design through to its implementation (Ball, 1990). Recognition of the complexity of social systems foregrounds the interconnected and interdependent elements of systems and the way system characteristics and behaviours emerge from interaction in a non-linear manner. Policy changes and interventions thus become much less predictable in their consequences.

In order to begin to understand some of this complexity and the way it plays out across different levels of the system (Vavrus and Bartlett, 2009), it is necessary to develop a better and more nuanced picture of such complexity. As Grollmann and Rauner (2007) point out, the international research on College lecturers is very sparse. In the NSDS III document, there is a recognition that “there is limited research available that provides

a nuanced picture into the Colleges' systems and their strengths and weaknesses" (DHET, 2011:16).

Paper 3 attempts to open up an understanding of College lecturers in South Africa from a quantitative angle, and to contribute to building up a local knowledge base. Like all research that focuses on a moving target, the data necessarily capture a moment in time in a constantly changing system. Therefore caution is needed about any claims made as there may already be significant changes. However, there is good reason to believe that many of the issues that emerged at the time of the study have not yet been resolved and thus the analysis of the quantitative data remains of interest at the time of publication of this volume.

METHODOLOGY

A baseline survey of TVET College lecturing staff in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) was conducted during the course of 2009 and 2010. Seven of the eight Colleges in Gauteng agreed to participate while in KZN, all nine Colleges in the province were surveyed. The seven participating Colleges in Gauteng were spread across the East and West Rand, Pretoria, and Soweto. In KZN the Colleges were spread across the South Coast, Northern KZN and Zululand, and the Durban-Pietermaritzburg corridor regions. In total, 1650 lecturer-questionnaires were gathered: 927 from Gauteng and 723 from KZN. The official Education Management Information System (EMIS) figures for 2009 were 1804 lecturers in Gauteng and 764 for KZN (Department of Basic Education, 2010). That would suggest that the response rate was 51% in Gauteng and 95% in KZN, although it is not clear whether the population defined for the purposes of the research coincided with the EMIS definitions. Suffice to say that the sample was sufficiently large to be broadly representative of the range of lecturers in Colleges in the two provinces. There has since been considerable growth

in the staff complements of both provinces. Data published by the DHET (2015) indicates that in 2013 Gauteng had 2086 lecturers and KZN 2299. The large discrepancy between the official data in 2009 and 2013 in KZN may suggest that the official figures were inaccurate or that there was a lack standardised definitions in the use of the data.

The questionnaire had four main focus areas: (1) lecturers' biographic information; (2) lecturers' qualifications and work experience (academic; industry; teaching); (3) TVET College-specific variables (such as student enrolment and programme offerings), and (4) lecturers' training needs. Relational analyses of the data sought to expand the focus from a descriptive account to an exploration of the interrelated nature of the four focus areas. The goal was to open for enquiry the relationships between the multifaceted nature of lecturers' qualifications and experiences, and their teaching responsibilities at the TVET Colleges. Given the ongoing DHET focus on the implementation of the National Certificate: Vocational (NCV), the data were analysed around variables pertaining to this component of TVET College offerings. The intention was to explore emerging patterns in the distribution of overall lecturer training and experience in relation to the human resource demands implicit in the NCV curriculum.

The data were cleaned for consistency and all analyses were cross-tabulated to exclude missing or patently incorrect data, and these percentages are indicated. The analyses and findings that follow represent the first level of interrogation of the data focusing predominantly on quantitative analyses and comparison with similar studies conducted in the Western Cape (McBride, Papier and Needham, 2009) and the Eastern Cape (ECCSEC, 2011). Where possible, 2013 DHET data have also been compared in order to identify aspects that have shifted significantly in the lecturer profile.

DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE LECTURERS

Gender and population group

For the purposes of the provincial analyses, the data were cross-tabulated to omit the population group category 'other', in addition to missing data. This represents a 0.07% exclusion from the total of 927 responses in Gauteng, and 0.05% from the 723 in KwaZulu-Natal. There were no significant gender discrepancies between these two provinces: females outnumber males by 2% in Gauteng, and in KwaZulu-Natal, males outnumber females by 8%. The Western and Eastern Cape data showed that females outnumbered males (McBride, Papier and Needham, 2009; ECCSEC, 2011). The 2013 data showed a marginally higher number of employed male lecturers. These trends illustrate a major shift from the Technical College era when the majority of lecturers were male. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the gender and population group distribution of the sample.

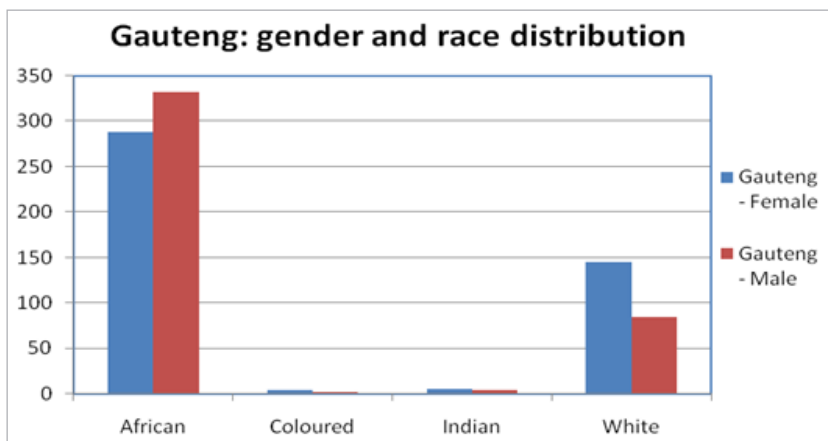


Figure 1: Gender and population group distribution amongst TVET College lecturers in Gauteng, 2009-2010

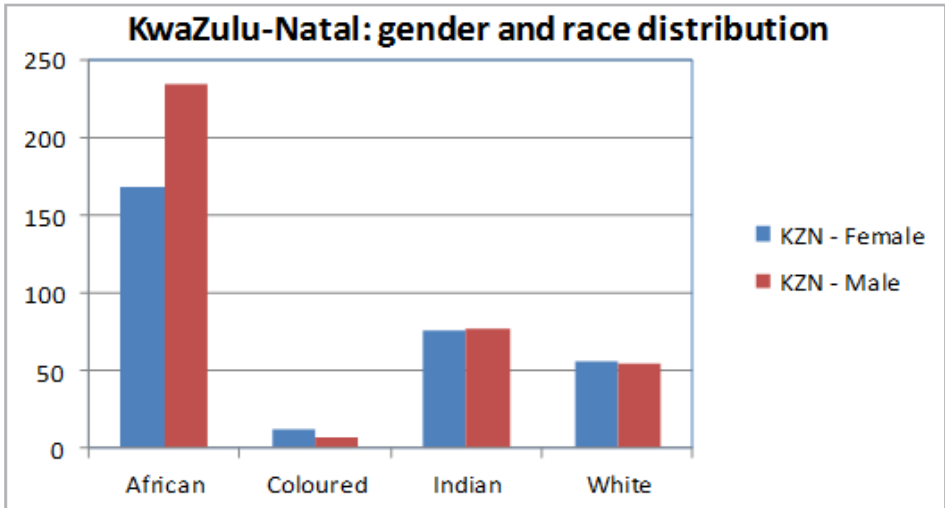


Figure 2: Gender and population group distribution amongst TVET College lecturers in KwaZulu-Natal, 2009-2010.

Figure 3 and Table 1 give a broad view of the population group distribution across both Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. For this analysis, the category ‘other’ was included in order to allow for a more complete representation.

In Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal (combined) and the Eastern Cape, the percentages of African TVET lecturers more closely approximate the national demographic distribution as shown in the 2001 census⁶: 66% and 68% for the two sets of provinces respectively. This pattern differs significantly from that in the Western Cape province, where only 11% of lecturers in the system are African (McBride, Papier, and Needham, 2009). Overall, it is worth noting that the demographics of the Colleges reflect to a large extent the regional demographics of the provinces. While in some specific Colleges and campuses transformation is less evident, given the history of the TVET system, the population group and gender

⁶ Black African people 79%, White people 9.6%, Coloured people 8.9%, Indian/ Asian people 2.5% (STATSSA, 2001).

demographics reflect significant change in the composition of the Colleges. The trends suggest that there has been major transformation from the historically segregated pre-1994 Colleges.

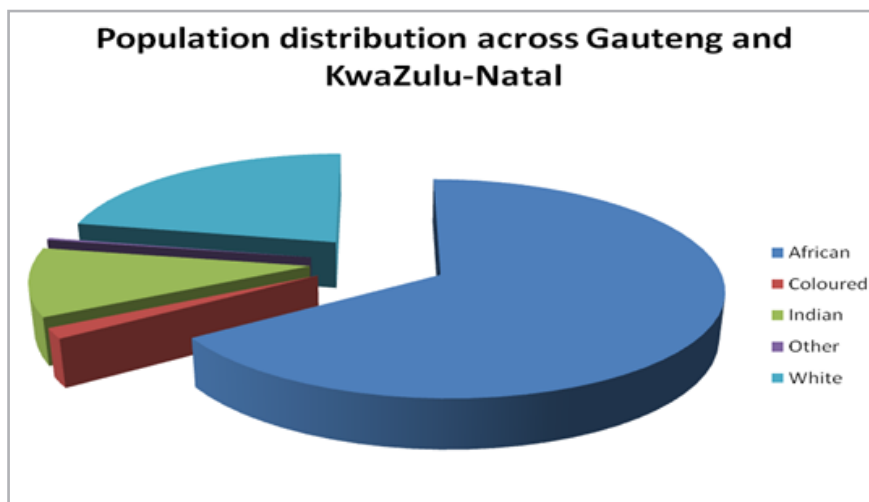


Figure 3: Population group distribution of TVET College lecturers in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal combined, 2009-2010

Table 1: Population group distribution of TVET College lecturers in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal combined, 2009-2010

Population group	Lecturer numbers	% of total sample
African	1030	65.8%
Coloured	25	1.6%
Indian	162	10.4%
Other	5	0.3%
White	343	21.9%
TOTAL	1565	100%

One of the major concerns in the sector centres on perceptions that the TVET lecturer population is an 'ageing' one and that the Colleges will

rapidly lose the collective industry, workplace and teaching experience of hundreds of retiring lecturers. The following analyses suggest that there is cause for some concern in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal; Figure 4 and Table 2 show these trends. To some extent, these findings align with those of the study conducted in the Western Cape (McBride, Papier and Needham, 2009:5) but differ from those in the Eastern Cape study, where approximately 30% of lecturers are between the ages of 41 and 60 as indicated by the Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation (ECCSEC, 2011:7). In Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal (combined), the average lecturer age is 40.36 years.

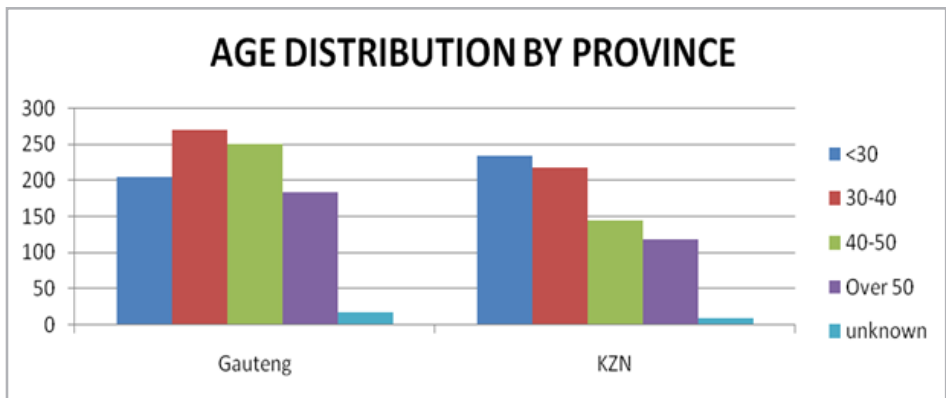


Figure 4: Age distribution of TVET College lecturers in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal, 2009-2010

Table 2: Aggregated age percentiles of TVET College lecturers in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal combined, 2009-2010

Age category	Percentage of total
Under 30	27%
30 – 40 years	30%
40 – 50 years	24%
Over 50 years	18%
Unknown	1%
TOTAL	100%

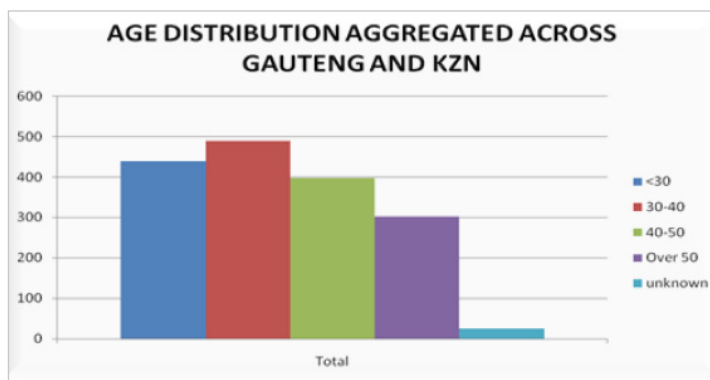


Figure 5: Age distribution of TVET College lecturers aggregated across Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal, 2009-2010

While the concern is valid, the survey data suggest that Colleges have been recruiting younger staff and that at an aggregated level there is a reasonable spread across the age bands. What requires further analysis is whether the age distribution reflects a full spread across the subjects making up programmes. It may be true, as is suggested in the qualitative interviews reported other papers in this volume, that certain scarce skill areas are over-represented in the older age band and that many of the younger lecturers are teaching in the commercial and fundamental areas of the curriculum rather than in specialised fields such as engineering (See

the section on the National Certificate: Vocational [NCV] below).

Language

In Gauteng, Afrikaans is the dominant home language, with isiZulu reported by the second highest number of lecturers. In KwaZulu-Natal, isiZulu is most lecturers' home language, and English the second most prevalent (see Figure 6). The relationships between Afrikaans, English and IsiZulu across Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal are interesting in that they point to the relative dominance of different combinations of these languages in the different contexts. In contrast, in the Eastern Cape, isiXhosa is the home language of 60% of the lecturer cohort, with English ranking second (ECCSEC, 2011). In the Western Cape, Afrikaans is the dominant home language (57%) followed by English (37%) (McBride, Papier and Needham, 2009). The regional variations in languages spoken by the lecturers reflect the broad linguistic patterns in the different provinces, in much the same way as the population group demographics do. Gauteng, a province with high levels of migration (both in-country and international) has the highest level of linguistic diversity.

Given that the languages spoken by the students in the Colleges are likely to reflect the language patterns of the region, the capacity of the Colleges to deliver the curriculum in languages other than English or Afrikaans becomes pertinent. There has been little debate about the language policy in the College sector and no concerted effort to offer the curriculum through the medium of African languages other than Afrikaans. Given the poor performance of many of the learners in the system, there is every reason to examine whether achievement could be enhanced through the use of some of the other official languages. What these data suggest is that there is certainly scope for drawing on the linguistic skills of the lecturers as reflected in Figures 6 and 7.

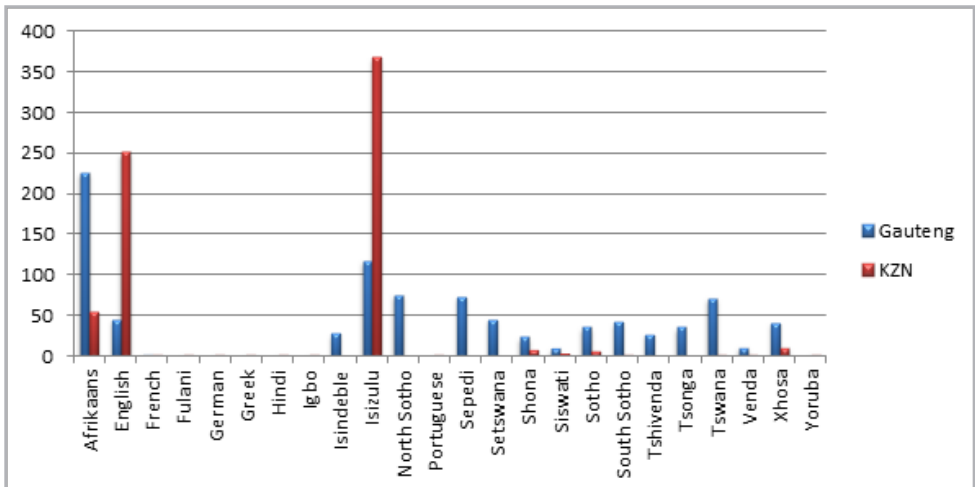


Figure 6: Home language distribution of TVET College lecturers across Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal, 2009-2010

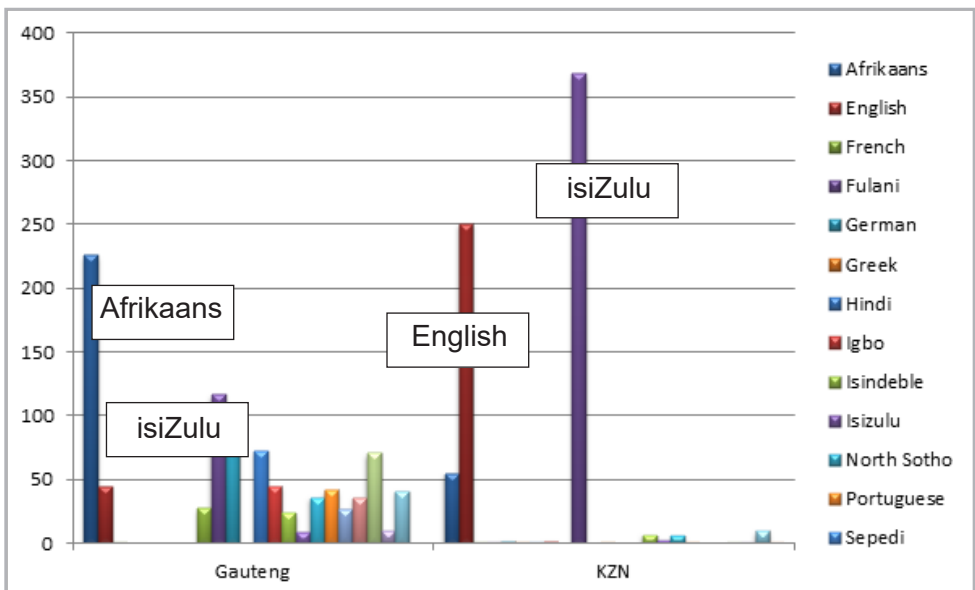


Figure 7: Home language diversity between TVET College lecturers in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal, 2009-2010

Lecturer qualifications and experience regarding pedagogy, industry, and subject

Having provided a broad overview of the demographics of the surveyed lecturers, the paper now turns to their qualifications and experience. This section presents a summary of the relationships between the foci of lecturers' teaching, and their qualifications, and industry-based experience. Qualifications are clustered in an attempt to reflect clearly, the situations in both provinces. Missing data have been excluded from the analyses.

Definition of terms used for coding the data

The analyses presented focus on an overview of the extent to which TVET College lecturers are trained and experienced in the three areas of expertise which have been the subject of widespread and continuing consultation and research, and which feature in the White Paper for Post-School Education and Training (MHET, 2013). Central to the debate around the capacity of TVET lecturers is the extent to which their academic and workplace-specific qualifications and pedagogic-, subject-matter- and workplace experience are integrated. Therefore, the research questionnaire sought to elicit and cross-check data pertaining to lecturers' teaching, disciplinary (academic) specialisations, and workplace-specific qualifications and experience.

The data in all three fields – pedagogic, academic, and industry – were in many cases highly idiosyncratic and required iterative processes of standardisation in order to align responses with the correct historic and current qualification descriptors.

The dual function of TVET Colleges as education providers offering both the National Certificate: Vocational (NCV) and post-matric vocational training,

such as the National Technical Education (NATED) curriculum and various skills programmes, together with the complex and contested nature of the kinds of knowledges and skills required for competence as an artisan, have shaped the analyses of the data.

The findings from all four provinces referred to in this paper suggest that there are disjunctures between these three domains, reflected in both the lecturers' qualifications and experience. For example, lecturers might have discipline and workplace knowledge, but no pedagogic qualification. Or, they might have academic and teaching qualifications, but no teaching or workplace experience. These trends are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

Teaching qualifications and experience

The policy on TVET lecturer qualifications (RSA, 2013) requires lecturers to have specialised vocational teaching qualifications in conjunction with their trade or occupational qualifications, and industry experience. Currently, based on the sample of lecturers in the research, only 703 (42,6%) of the 1 650 lecturers had the required teaching qualifications. Trying to make sense of the teaching qualifications that lecturers hold proved more complex than expected and the question arises as to what education qualifications are appropriate for the purpose of teaching at a College.

The survey responses did not always allow the researchers to differentiate between different versions of the qualifications held by the lecturers. Where respondents indicated that they had a particular diploma such as the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE), the researchers could not always be certain that it was the version of the qualification required for vocational teaching. The vast majority of the lecturers with teaching qualifications had general or schooling-related qualifications rather than

those designed for College lecturers.

These findings correlate with those emerging from the studies conducted in the Western- and Eastern Cape provinces (McBride, Papier and Needham, 2009; ECCSEC, 2011). In all four provinces, the Higher Education Diploma (HED)/Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) were the most prevalent teaching qualifications. In many respects this was not surprising, given that there have not been dedicated qualifications for vocational teachers for more than a decade. The only exception was the National Professional Diploma in Education for Vocational Teachers (NPDE:VT), an NQF Level 5 qualification based on a school-teacher upgrade initiative offered by a limited number of universities. This initiative catered for lecturers who had occupational qualifications and no education qualifications. A pilot initiative to introduce a 30-credit general introductory programme known as the Vocational Educators Orientation Programme (VEOP) was also collaboratively offered by a number of Higher Education Institutions (HEI) and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs).

Nevertheless, a surprising spread of technical and vocational qualifications was found in the system, and would be worth further interrogation. Any attempt to develop new vocational educator qualifications should begin with a thorough review of the strengths and weaknesses of the various existing programmes for technical teachers such as the HED Technical, the University Education Diploma (UED) Technical, and others.

The issue of analysing overall educator competence became even more complex when experience was factored in as a constitutive component. In the survey sample, only 37% of the lecturers had both a teaching qualification and any form of teaching experience.

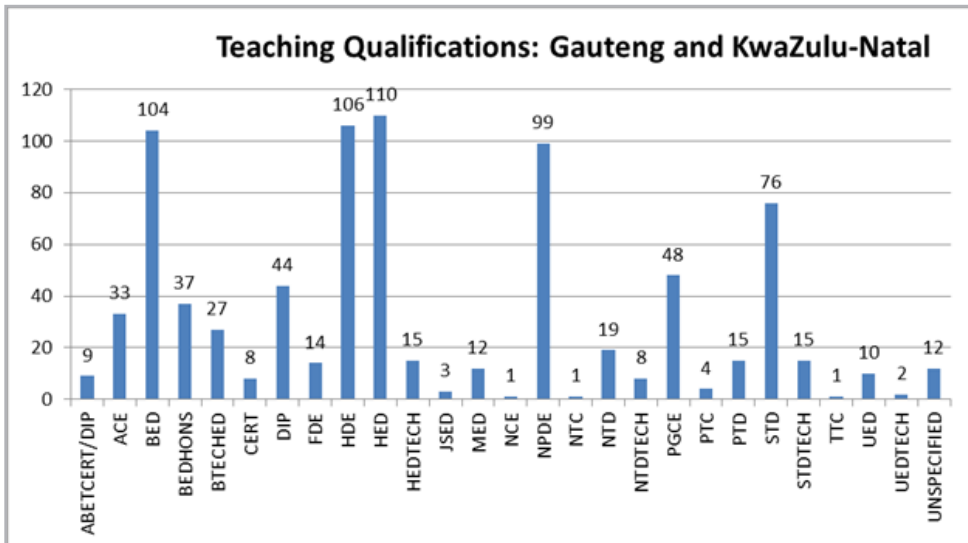


Figure 8: The teaching qualifications of TVET College lecturers in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal combined, 2009-2010

Industry qualifications and experience

In identifying TVET College teaching staff as key drivers of change, and by recognising that “the single greatest challenge in improving and expanding the Colleges is the capacity of lecturers, particularly their subject-matter expertise” (MHET, 2013:24), the White Paper on Post-School Education and Training focuses on a further dimension of overall lecturer competence: their expertise in their trades or occupations. However, owing to the often tacit or embodied nature of this kind of knowledge, the relationship between practice and competence is significant (Gamble, 2009). Therefore, the extent to which lecturers had practised their trades in the workplace was seen as an important qualitative dimension of what and how they taught their students. This workplace experience also related to lecturers’ abilities to prepare their students adequately for the world of work, as vocational training by its very nature must bridge education and training, and work.

In the research sample, 43% of the lecturers had both industry qualifications and industry experience. What requires further investigation is the extent to which lecturers have relevant industry experience and qualifications together with appropriate pedagogic qualifications and experience. Figure 9 presents a visual summary of the initial findings around teaching and industry experience, and qualifications.

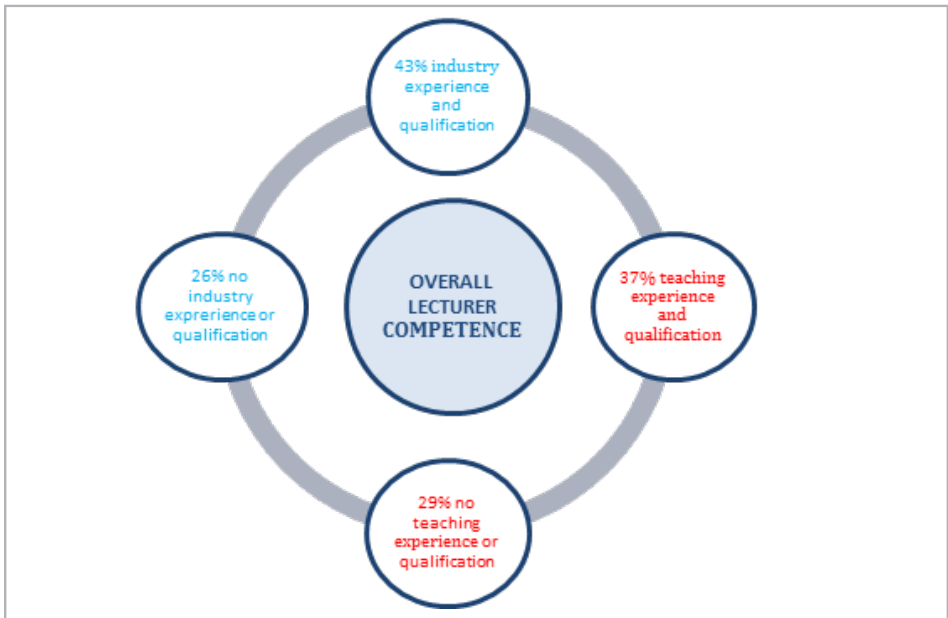


Figure 9: Summary of overall TVET College lecturer competence (qualifications and experience) for Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal combined, 2009-2010.

Delivering the National Certificate: Vocational (NCV)

The implementation of the general vocational qualification, the NCV from 2007, effected in the wake of the fundamental policy, governance and institutional reforms discussed in Papers 1 and 2, caused disruption in the TVET Colleges and widespread disaffection amongst the lecturer population. This finding emerged as a recurrent theme in the SAQA-UKZN

Partnership Research reported here, and in research undertaken by FETI (McBride, Papier and Needham, 2009). The relative dearth of research in this area assumes an urgency given the DHET's intention to strengthen the NCV as a key qualification for general vocational education.

A quantitative analysis of lecturers' NCV subject teaching load is presented in Figure 10. The complete dataset was analysed to extract those lecturers teaching NCV courses. Some lecturers taught multiple subjects. Therefore, the representation of the data is given as a proportion of lecturer teaching load rather than as percentages or number counts. For the purposes of coding and analysis, the NCV subjects were allocated according to the NCV specialisation. These specialisations were further grouped. This grouping made possible the presentation of a general overview of the demand for NCV courses, which could be considered in relation to the National Skills Development Strategy III.

Table 3: Legend showing the widely-used abbreviations for NCV subjects

Acronym	Full Description
FEA	Finance, Economics and Accounting
PRIMARY AGRIC	Primary Agriculture
OTHER	Data that did not correlate with any NCV specialisation subjects as outlined in DHET documents
H/T	Hospitality and Tourism
ITCS	Information Technology and Computer Science
SS	Safety in Society
MECHATRONICS	Mechatronics
E&D	Education and Development
BCC/EIR/ERD	Building and Civil Construction, Electrical Infrastructure Construction and Engineering and Related Design
FUND MELO	Fundamentals: Mathematics; Mathematical Literacy; English (all); Life Orientation
COMMERCE	Office Administration; Management and Marketing

What is immediately striking about the lecturer teaching load distribution is that 40% of the load comprises the Mathematics, Life Orientation and Language (MELO) components of the curriculum, also known as the Fundamentals. These subjects are core to all the specialisations and are thus generic rather than specialized. This trend is a crucial issue in terms of teacher identity, because the teachers of the Fundamental courses are likely to have a general schooling identity rather than a specialisation-specific identity.

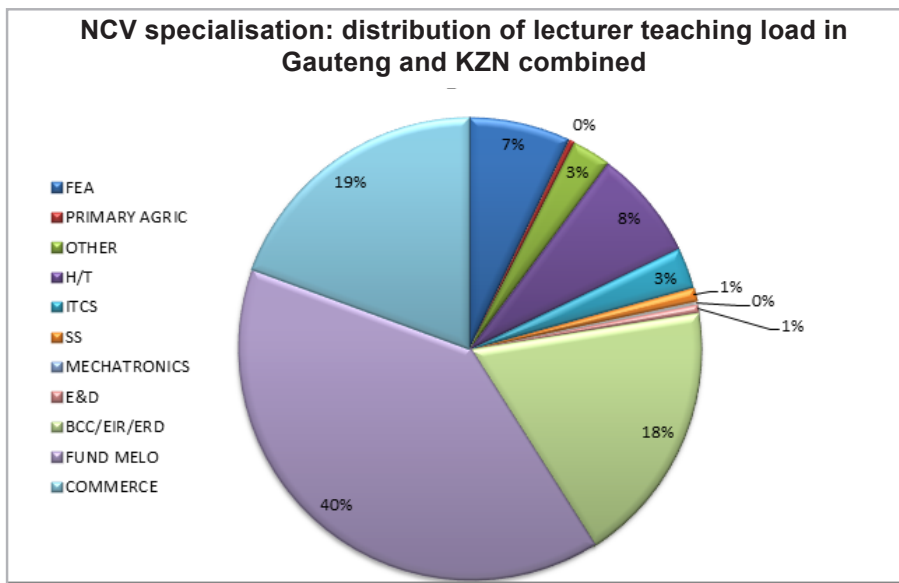


Figure 10: Distribution of NCV lecturer teaching load by categorised specialisations for Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal combined, 2009-10

The spread of specialisations making up the lecturers' NCV teaching loads gives some broad indication of the relative weighting of specialisations within Colleges. In the context of skills shortages, the critical area is the BCC/EIR/ERD portion along with a few highly specialised areas such as Mechatronics, which constitutes just less than 20% of the total. In contrast the humanities-type areas such as Education and Development along with the commercial subjects make up the remaining 40% of the College sector.

The reality of the TVET College staffing and workload, through the lens of curriculum, is that 80% of NCV-related activity comprises either fundamental (core) subjects, or human- and management science specialisations. The notion that TVET Colleges are Technical Colleges is fairly far from the truth, and thus there are real challenges for future expansion if that growth assumes a significant expansion in the technical

fields. This is not to suggest that Colleges should not be offering humanities and management programmes, but rather that the perception that Colleges in the main are engaged with, and have capacity in, the technical fields such as engineering, is not necessarily accurate when viewed in terms of what lecturers actually teach.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

This summary of the key demographic, qualification and experience data on TVET lecturers in 2009-10 suggests that there is a great deal of complexity in the current make-up of the College lecturing staff. This complexity is evident not only in the diversity of the staff in terms of population group, gender and age, but also in terms of the qualifications and the pedagogic and industry-based experience of the lecturers, and the relative weighting of curriculum commitments between them.

In the context of the number of recent and on-going policy processes sketched in Papers 1 and 2, it is salutary to recognise that many Colleges are perhaps much less technical institutions than they are a form of vocational high school. Large proportions of the College lecturers have teaching qualifications coming from the general education sector, and a significant proportion of the curriculum is dedicated to general or humanities subjects.

A quantitative focus cannot by its very definition provide insights into the identities of the individual lecturers. However, the fact that a large component of the educationally qualified staff hold schooling qualifications and are engaged in general subjects, suggests that there is probably a weaker specialisation focus in the Colleges than is ideal, and that there is a far smaller remnant of the Technical College culture than may be surmised. Connections to a pre-transformation organisational culture that focused on

technical and work-based education have in all likelihood been eroded on many of the College campuses. The consequences of such a loss could be significant in relation to the need for alignment between the skills demands of industry, and the ability of vocational education and training institutions to prepare learners to meet those demands.

Future policy reform needs to be undertaken with a deep understanding of the field in which the policies are to be implemented. Clearly the Colleges are diverse and complex institutions, and in that context policy changes are not likely to be implemented in a linear fashion. Rather, policy is likely to be implemented in an unpredictable way, and is less likely to succeed if it has not been designed for the implementation context.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Paper 3 has presented data from the survey component of the SAQA-UKZN study to illustrate the diversity of the demographics, qualifications, experience and teaching commitments of the TVET College staff. It has been argued that a deeper understanding of the lecturers, including the broad picture emerging from this data, will enable the development and implementation of policies grounded in the realities of the Colleges and their lecturers. This in turn may result in the next set of reforms being more successful in improving the capacity of the College sector, and assist in addressing some of the pressing social issues that are facing South Africa today.

REFERENCES

Akoojee, S. and Gewer, A. 2005. South Africa: skills development as a tool for social and economic development. In S. Akoojee, A. Gewer and S. McGrath. *Vocational Education and Training in Southern Africa: a comparative study*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Badroodien, A. 2004. Technical and vocational education provision in South Africa from 1920 to 1970. In S. McGrath, A. Badroodien, A. Kraak and L. Unwin. *Shifting understanding of skills in South Africa – overcoming the historical imprint of a low skills regime*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Ball, S. 1990. *Politics and policy-making in education: exploration in Policy Sociology*. London: Routledge.

Department of Basic Education (DBE). 2010. *Education statistics in South Africa: 2009*. Pretoria: DBE.

Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). 2011. *National Skills Development Strategy III*. Pretoria: DHET.

Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). 2015. *Statistics on Post-School Education and Training in South Africa: 2013*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation (ECCSEC). 2011. *Report on a skills audit of Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges*. Eastern Cape: ECCSEC.

Gamble, J. 2009. *The relationship between knowledge and practice in curriculum and assessment*. Umalusi Occasional Papers. Pretoria: Umalusi.

Grollmann, P. and Rauner, F. 2007. Preface. In P. Grollmann and F. Rauner (Eds.), *International perspectives on teachers and lecturers in Technical and Vocational Education*. Dordrecht: Springer.

McBride, T., Papier, J. and Needham, S. 2009. *Further Education and Training (FET) College lecturers in the Western Cape*. Cape Town: Further Education and Training Institute.

Ministry of Higher Education and Training (MHET). 2013. *White Paper for Post-school Education and Training*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Ramalingam, B. and Jones, H. 2008. *Exploring the science of complexity: idea and implications for development and humanitarian efforts*. London: Overseas Development Institute.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2013. Policy on Professional Qualifications for Lecturers in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). Government Gazette No. 36554 of 11 June 2013. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Vavrus, F. and Bartlett, L. (Eds.). 2009. *Critical approaches to comparative education: vertical case studies from Africa, Europe, the Middle East, and the Americas*. Houndmills, Palgrave: Macmillan.

Wedekind, V. 2014. Going around in circles: employability, responsiveness, and the reform of the College sector. In S. Vally and E. Motala (Eds.), *Education, economy and society*. Pretoria: University of South Africa (UNISA) Press.

Chaos or coherence? Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) College governance in post-apartheid South Africa⁷

Volker Wedekind

INTRODUCTION

Since the achievement of democracy in 1994, the technical and vocational education and training (TVET) system in South Africa has been significantly reformed. As outlined in Paper 1, the reforms have spanned all aspects of the system, from its design and the funding arrangements through to the detail of the curriculum; and from the structural organisation of institutions to the qualifications offered in them. Most significantly, the reforms have been underpinned by new governance arrangements. It is these governance reforms, and specifically the governance of the TVET Colleges, that are the focus of this paper.

In writing about TVET in sub-Saharan Africa, the director of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation Regional office in Dakar (UNESCO-BREDA) refers to the 'fragmented TVET governance arrangements' as continuing 'to plague the TVET space in Africa' (Ndong-Jatta, 2009). South Africa has over the course of the past decade attempted to bring a highly fragmented system into a unitary framework through a series of quite radical reforms. The question this paper seeks

⁷ An earlier version of this paper was published in *Research in Comparative and International Education*, Volume 5, Number 3, 2010. The author expresses gratitude to the publishers, Sage, for giving permission to include this revised version of the original article in this volume.

to address is: To what extent have these reforms succeeded in bringing about coherence in the system and how have related developments been experienced by the people in the system?

The concept of governance is fairly wide-ranging in that all aspects of governing can be viewed as part of governance, from the macro-level rules and regulations to the micro-level of management of an institution. In the field of education and training, governance usually focuses on the internal arrangements of governance within an institution. In this paper the focus shifts from the level of systems governance such as national laws and policies (external) through to the institutional level, such as the role of governors on College councils (internal) (Kezar and Eckel, 2004). It will be argued that it is often the ways in which governance plays out across these levels that is critical to the overall coherence of the system.

METHODOLOGY

This paper tries to make sense of the governance reforms in South African TVET Colleges specifically through three lenses. First, the College system in the country is described within a wider social reform project by drawing on the policy documents and the existing literature on the reforms. Rauner *et al* (2010) have developed a typology of governance systems that provides a useful basis for analysing the systemic-level reforms. The typology works on two axes: the 'integration' axis describes the degree to which the system is coordinated or fragmented, while the 'rationale of agency' axis focuses on the orientation of the system towards input control or output control. Typically, governance by 'input' would focus on rules and laws, while 'output' would focus on governance through the establishment of objectives (such as incentives or targets). This typology is applied to understanding the governance system of TVET Colleges in South Africa based on an analysis of the policy texts.

A second discursive analytic lens is applied, which locates the reforms in the wider national and international discourses of governance generally and educational governance specifically, with a particular focus on the discourses of decentralisation.

Finally, a ground-level view of the governance reforms is presented, in order to contrast the discursive and descriptive lenses with a voice from the actors in the Colleges. The data for the ground level analysis are drawn from a series of interviews conducted with ten lecturers, four College principals, and two chairpersons of College councils. The interviews were part of the wider SAQA-UKZN study on the biographies, identities and pedagogies of College lecturers on which the papers in this volume are based, and they were not conducted with a focus on governance. Nevertheless, the respondents all raised governance reforms as issues that affected their lives and work.

BACKGROUND TO TVET AND FET GOVERNANCE IN SOUTH AFRICA

While the earliest forms of TVET in South Africa were linked to the mission schools, the modern system emerged from the establishment of technical Colleges. Technical Colleges emerged after the 1922 Apprenticeship Act and were designed to provide the theoretical training for apprentices attached to workplaces. While the colonial and apartheid system meant that Colleges were originally intended for the training of a skilled White working class, the growth and changes to the South African economy resulted in Colleges, over time, also being opened to African, Indian and Coloured South Africans, albeit not as apprentices (Badroodien, 2004). However, as Akoojee *et al* (2005) point out, the fact that African people were only permitted to become apprentices in the 1980s, and that Colleges remained segregated according to population group, meant that the link

between the Colleges and the apprenticeship system, and consequently the link to industry, had become weak.

At the time of the negotiated political settlement of the early 1990s, the College landscape consisted of more than 150 technical Colleges throughout the country with significantly diverse human and infrastructural capacity. The historically White Colleges operated with a semiautonomous model of governance with a College council that provided linkages to the local industry, although the staff remained employees of the relevant department of education⁸. Historically, Colleges and training centres for African people were centrally controlled by other departments along the same lines as schools. The management of these Colleges had little autonomy, and limited control over their budgets. The governance system before 1990 can best be classified as one of fragmented input control, where “competences are allocated according to policy areas and ... a vertical integration takes place at best within these areas. The result is that the institutions operate relatively independently of each other and have few incentives to coordinate their actions” (Rauner *et al*, 2010:35).

It is this racially divided and differentially governed educational landscape that became the subject of major reforms throughout the twenty-five year period from 1990 to 2015 and beyond. The reforms have affected all aspects of the system and the people in them. The general reforms in the technical and vocational education and training sector, and specifically the reforms of the TVET Colleges, have been relatively well documented (Gewe, 2001; McGrath, 2004a, 2005; Sooklal, 2005; McGrath and Badroodien, 2005). The next section of this paper focuses on the reforms to the governance of the system.

⁸ In the final stages of the apartheid system there were 17 education departments catering for the different ethnically defined groups in South Africa as well as the four provinces in the country.

GOVERNANCE REFORMS

Macro-level reform

The education and training system in South Africa is shaped by the Constitution of the country, which declares education to be both a national and a provincial competence. This arrangement is a consequence of the constitutional compromises arising from the negotiated transition to democracy. The allocation of responsibilities was designed to strike a compromise between the centrist African National Congress (ANC) and the concerns of minority parties that sought a federal solution to South Africa's regional differences (Inman and Rubinfeld, 2005). Policy on education and training, funding norms and all post-school education and training are deemed to be national competences, while the financing and administration of the schooling and initially, the TVET College system were the responsibility of provinces (RSA, 1996)⁹. The differentiation between national and provincial government has never become a major political issue because the ANC has held power at both levels in all but two of the nine provinces since democracy. However, the fact that the budget for Colleges was, until recently, located at provincial level has presented challenges in so far as provincial governments have at times diverted funding away from the Colleges to other sectors. Thus, while most TVET College policy has been developed at national level, the implementation has sporadically been constrained by the funding pressures and consequently there has been a constitutionally defined fragmentation to the system. Post-2009 reforms (see Paper 1) have sought to address these concerns by making the entire post-school system a national responsibility.

The architecture of the education and training landscape was influenced by

⁹ The TVET Colleges became a national competence in 2015.

the promulgation of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act 58 of 1995 which gave rise to the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). The NQF has had a profound effect on the nature of the South African education and training system because it attempted to bring all education and training together into a single framework, suggesting the need for a high level of integration in governance. NQF has had a profound effect on the nature of the South African education and training system because it attempted to bring all education and training together into a single framework, suggesting the need for a high level of integration in governance.

Driven primarily from a training perspective (the process of the creation of the NQF had its origins in the labour movement), the NQF sought to map pathways of learning onto one framework from the lowest levels to the doctorate, across the academic, occupational and vocational divides. This concept affected the curriculum through the introduction of outcomes-based education (OBE) and the notion that knowledge can be expressed in discrete, measurable standards. OBE and the NQF have been heavily criticised (Allais, 2007). There were significant changes in the way the system was conceptualised under the NQF Act 67 of 2008: currently the NQF comprises three differentiated Sub-Frameworks – for General and Further Education and Training (GFET), Higher Education (HE), and Trades and Occupations (TO) respectively – coordinated by SAQA.

From a College governance perspective, the creation of the NQF ironically initially led to greater fragmentation rather than integration. One of the features introduced consisted of the three bands of the education system: GET, FET, and HE. The bands were meant to cluster particular levels of the NQF and distinguish between a compulsory Basic Education (NQF Level 1) covering Grades R-9; a post-compulsory FET band (NQF Levels 2-4) covering Grades 10-12 in schools and programmes in the TVET sector at these levels; and an HE band covering programmes offered at universities or universities of technology as well as higher-level vocational programmes

historically offered in Colleges (NQF Levels 5-8). While the three bands were supposed to describe the levels of qualifications offered, they almost immediately became the designators for specific types of institutions, particularly those outside the mainstream schooling sector. Thus, technical Colleges became FET Colleges, and then TVET Colleges. The bands also became an organising principle for the structuring of the then-national Department of Education, which created three branches each with its own Deputy Director General (DDG).

The 'GET' branch administered the first 10 years of the schooling system and basic adult education and training; the 'FET' branch administered the last three years of schooling and vocational programmes at NQF Levels 2-4, and university education fell under the HE branch. Higher-level vocational education not offered at universities was not taken up within this division and remained an area that received very little attention. This divided structure at national level meant that the schooling system was managed by two branches, and the vocational system was theoretically the responsibility of all three, with no branch having oversight of the entire system. For the Colleges, this meant that offering programmes above NQF Level 4 remained an area greatly lacking in clarity.

As noted in Paper 1, contestation between the then-Ministries of Education and Labour regarding the functions of Colleges also generated lack of clarity for governance. The Skills Development Act of 1998 had established the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) that were the custodians of the skills levy, a 1% tax on the payroll of companies. This sizeable fund was meant to support the skills development agenda in all sectors of the economy. Colleges were supposed to be the primary vehicle for this work and the SETAs entered into direct partnerships with Colleges and disbursed funds to them. At the time, in order to receive these funds, Colleges had to be quality assured by the SETAs. However, the then-Department of Education had a different view on the primary

purpose of the Colleges, namely, that they should provide general vocational programmes to 15-19 year-olds. The contestation between the two departments and their divergent visions of the Colleges' focus was a feature of the period from 2000-2010, and reinforced the fragmented, input-controlled nature of the system.

Between 1997 and 2010 a number of bodies quality assured qualifications on the NQF. The Council on Higher Education (CHE) established a Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) to oversee programmes in Higher Education, while the General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance Act 58 of 2001 established Umalusi, the quality assurance body for GET and FET. The SETAs also had quality assurance powers associated with skills programmes, and thus there were overlapping mandates. The HEQC had no interest in or capacity for quality-assuring short courses or skills courses and had no interest in the vocational programmes at NQF Level 5 offered by TVET Colleges. Umalusi similarly was not willing to quality-assure unit-standards-based courses, and focused on exit-level qualifications, while SETAs adopted a range of approaches to quality assurance.

For the Colleges this system was both confusing and incomplete as they had to meet a range of requirements for different quality assurance bodies or not have any requirements at all for some of the programmes. This arrangement has been clarified to some degree under the NQF Act of 2008 with the establishment of a third Quality Council, the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (QCTO), which took over the quality assurance functions of the SETAs in 2010. However, it could be argued that the QCTO does not currently have capacity to cover all the programmes for which it is responsible. In addition, there was initially contestation between the Quality Councils over which should hold responsibility for particular qualifications. Currently Umalusi and the QCTO can develop qualification types at NQF Level 5. For Colleges the quality assurance terrain has shifted over time,

has been confusing, and in some instances remains far from clear.

College-level reform between 1996 and 2009

The former 153 technical Colleges were the subject of a number of policy processes that emerged after the establishment of the National Commission on Further Education in 1996. The commission's recommendations resulted in the release of the Green and White Papers on Further Education and Training, and the promulgation of the Further Education and Training Act, all in 1998. The institutional landscape in the FET sector was mapped out in a parallel process. In 2001 a report entitled '*A New Institutional Landscape for Public Further Education and Training Colleges*' was released (Department of Education, 2001). This report provided the blueprint for the merger and reorganisation of the technical Colleges into 50 multi-campus FET Colleges, since 2013 known as TVET Colleges, which would focus on general vocational education.

The enormity of the mergers in the College sector has been subject to little discussion in the South African academic literature and media. The College mergers resulted in every single one of the Colleges being structurally reorganised, resulting in a disruption of the work identities of the lecturers (Akoojee, 2008; Wedekind, 2010). The impact of this reorganisation is discussed in the third part of this paper.

The FET Act of 1998 provided the framework for the FET system in South Africa, providing for the establishment, governance, and funding of public FET (now TVET) Colleges, and the registration of private Colleges. At this stage, the policy vision was for an integrated FET sector, and so the Act dealt with both the last three grades of schooling and the College sector. This integrated approach was not realised in practice, in part because the

differences between the mass-based schooling system, with its high-stakes public exit examinations, and the comparatively small College sector, with its specialised technical training requirements, made integration much more difficult than imagined. Quite quickly both national and provincial departments of education had established separate directorates and to all intents and purposes schools and Colleges were administered completely separately.

What the FET Act of 1998 did make provision for was the establishment of governing councils at all TVET Colleges. The councils were intended to have strong stakeholder representation, with powers to develop strategic plans and mission statements, to set policy, and to select staff. This change in the governance model was a radical shift from the department-run technical Colleges that had little or no independence. Devolution was a general feature of educational reform following international trends throughout the system, and devolution in the Colleges was similar to, albeit more radical than, the school reforms. The impact of this reform on both the human and the financial aspects was profound. Kraak and Hall (1999) note that this governance framework required Colleges to move beyond traditional conceptions of their roles, to become more flexible and responsive. This focus signalled something of a shift towards an 'output' orientation in the governance policy, although 'input' in the form of rules and regulations still dominated the governance model.

The FET Colleges Act of 2006 attempted to clarify the limitations and ambiguities associated with the FET Act of 1998, specifically the need to differentiate between the TVET and high school sectors. The Act changed the legislation that dealt with the employment of College staff. Instead of College lecturers falling under the Employment of Educators Act, like school teachers, the FET Colleges Act made the council of each College the employer. The roles for the Colleges were clear: the Council had to approve

the conditions of employment, including the determination and review of salaries, for lecturers and support staff, and all other forms of remuneration (FET Colleges Act 16 of 2006). Only senior management staff at Colleges remained government appointees. By devolving the responsibility of staffing to the College councils, a higher level of autonomy was being granted to institutions to shape their own human resources and elect to achieve 'outputs' rather than being managed through an 'input control' model.

Developments post-2009

Following the release of the Joint Policy Statement by the then Departments of Education and Labour (DoE-DoL, 2007) in which there was an agreed way forward between the two departments, the NQF Act of 2008 was promulgated. This Act ushered in three differentiated NQF Sub-Frameworks, each overseen by a Quality Council, while the overall responsibility for the coordination, implementation and further development of the NQF lay with SAQA. The national Ministry and Department of Education was split into the Ministry and Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) on one hand, and the Ministry and Department of Basic Education (DBE) on the other.

TVET Colleges and their programmes became the responsibility of the Minister of Higher Education and Training, removing a number of the areas of fragmentation discussed earlier. The different roles of the national and provincial departments were replaced by centralising the responsibility for, and funding of, Colleges at national level. It is clear that TVET Colleges are seen as post-school institutions. The Ministry and Department of Higher Education and Training oversee the National Skills Development Strategy and the functions associated with the Skills Development Act. This means that the SETAs report to the same ministry as the education and training

institutions that play a key role in the delivery of skills development courses.

In 2012 the Ministry and Department of Higher Education and Training drove a consultative process that included a Summit on Further Education and Training and exploration of the curriculum, institutional, and policy changes required to make the system more responsive to the needs of the country. This process culminated in the release of the White Paper on Post-school Education and Training (MHET, 2013). In this White Paper, the vision for the TVET sector included rapid expansion in enrolments, curriculum reviews, and adjustments to the governance system. Two key issues that affected governance was the removal of the responsibility of the College council for the employment of lecturers, and the revitalisation of College councils with a direct link to the Minister of Higher Education and Training. The transfer of all College lecturers from individual Colleges to the public service under the DHET was completed in the first half of 2015. Newly appointed College councils with five ministerial appointees were in place in late 2014, with much tighter expectations and standardisation of roles and functions.

With the restructuring of the NQF under the NQF Act of 2008, the Colleges were no longer strictly limited to the FET Band, making space for qualifications that could be offered both by Colleges or universities. While this expansion was a consequence of the reform of the NQF itself, it is also in line with the White Paper which supports a more differentiated system. Some Colleges are therefore currently exploring the possibility of developing and offering Higher Education qualifications, often in collaboration with universities. These developments are likely to pose new governance and management challenges going forward.

DISCOURSES ON GOVERNANCE REFORM

The education reforms in South Africa emerged against the backdrop

of the end of *apartheid* and the commencement of the first democratic government in the country. Much of this reform can be understood in terms of what Stephen Ball (2009) calls the 'transnational flow of policies and policy discourses'. Examples of the wider international discourses include the 'new vocationalism', which emphasises the need for education to 'contribute to national economic imperatives' (Chappell, 2003). These international discourses were aligned with the national imperatives for human resource development strategies that would support redistribution through economic growth in the new democracy. South Africa, like many countries, considers TVET "a key factor in improving the competitiveness of enterprises and the national economy" (Rauner and Maclean, 2008:13).

It is clear that the policy related to governance in South African TVET Colleges has drawn heavily on other systems. While the World Bank and UNESCO have played their part (World Bank, 1991), country-specific funders have also been central to the development of the system in the country. The idea of an NQF was taken from similar systems in New Zealand, Australia and Scotland, although the particular form it took in South Africa differed. Conceptualisation of the Further Education Band drew on the notion of further education understood in England (Allais *et al*, 2009). Much of the TVET work has been supported by international agencies such as the Danish 'DANIDA', the German 'GTZ', the British Council and the Department For International Development (DFID), and the Swiss government. The concept of Outcomes Based Education (OBE) and the specific variant that was adopted in South Africa can be linked with the visits of individual consultants funded by the United States (Jansen, 2004; Chisholm, 2005).

The question as to whether this flow of policy discourses and policies should be understood in terms of a world system perspective (Boli *et al*, 1985) or rather as an example of 'policy borrowing and lending' that retains the specificities of the local context (Jansen, 2004; Phillips and

Ochs, 2004; Steiner-Khamsi, 2004; Phillips, 2005) is beyond the scope of this paper. Certainly, the various external agencies represent different traditions of TVET, and these various influences may partially explain some of the contradictory tendencies in the initial policy processes.

One of the most powerful conceptual frames for making sense of the governance reforms in the TVET Colleges is the idea of decentralisation. While the term is seldom used in the official South African policy discourses, one reading of the reforms in the Colleges is to understand it as a progressive decentralisation of power and authority. Decentralisation has been a global trend in education since the 1960s (Dyer and Rose, 2005), and has been actively promoted by international agencies since the 1970s. Given the influx of international influences in the post-*apartheid* policy terrain, it is to be expected decentralisation would feature in the South African policy script.

The arguments for decentralisation cut across all spheres of governance and have become the 'rage' (Bardhan, 2002:185) in the wake of the failure of the central state. Decentralisation has been embraced by the World Bank as a major thrust in its governance reforms (World Bank, 2000), and has been experimented with economically, politically and in education in all parts of the world (Bardhan, 2002). The arguments for decentralisation are multiple: it is supposedly more efficient; it has more checks and balances and thus reduces the abuse of power and corruption; it is able to accommodate diversity; it enables more participation; and it is more responsive to local needs (Bardhan, 2002; World Bank, 2003; Dyer and Rose, 2005; Lo, 2010). From an economics perspective, decentralisation includes reducing the tax burden on individuals and generally reduces the role of the state in the economy.

Decentralisation discourses in education reflect wider economic and social arguments (Holmes, 1999). In South Africa, the push for decentralisation

is most often associated with a strong tradition of community control over education that was central in the resistance to *apartheid*. This community control, in the form of 'People's Education', had led to the formation of student representative structures and parent-teacher-student associations at a time when the state functioned in a centralised and undemocratic fashion. Vestiges of these concepts remain in the local discourse in the current democracy, although there are increasingly critical voices which argue for less power at local level. These arguments are made especially in instances where local bodies have the power to make appointments in schools or Colleges, which resist transformation agendas, or which attempt to employ only local people regardless of their ability (Personal communication, Senior Education Official).

The post-2009 set of reforms have seen the earlier tendencies towards decentralisation reversed to some degree as the central state has sought to exercise more direct control over the Colleges. This shift is visible in the powers of the Minister to influence the composition of College councils, to appoint the principals and to employ the staff directly. While there remain strong arguments for decentralisation at the level of the programmes, the current policy approach has moved towards a more centralised governance model.

Dyer and Rose (2005) distinguish between different organisational versions of decentralisation, such as 'de-concentration', 'devolution' and 'delegation'. De-concentration refers to shifts in management responsibility without shifts in centralised control, while devolution sees power being formally held at local level. Delegation is located between these two points on a continuum, where power is formally passed down to local levels, but the decision as to which powers are passed on is taken by a central authority. Distinguishing between these different forms of decentralisation and aligning them with the integration/agency typology of governance already discussed allows for a variegated understanding of the seemingly contradictory trajectories in the

decentralisation policy discourse.

GOVERNANCE REFORM: A VIEW FROM THE GROUND

It is known that while the overarching policy intentions may be clear, there is not necessarily a linear path regarding policy formulation–adoption–implementation–reformulation (Ball, 1990). Many studies have shown that reform is re-contextualised at the chalk-face of the classroom or College, and in the management and resource allocation meetings, through multiple processes and mechanisms (Dale, 1999). Furthermore, policy intentions and actual policies are often not developed with regard for the resources and capacities required to make them work, and thus there are myriad compromises that happen throughout the system as people ‘make do’.

This paper now turns to the ‘lived policy’ through the examination of the reflection on reform of council chairpersons, principals and lecturers.

The interviewees were selected primarily on the basis of convenience and availability as life history interviews are time-consuming and require the development of trust in the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee. The interviewee views grouping; neither can they be judged against the kinds of criteria associated with quantitative research. Nevertheless, through processes of iterative analysis, checking for internal consistency, and judgements against wider contextual information, the researcher is able to establish the trustworthiness of the data.

Governors

The two College council chairpersons interviewed had been appointed to these positions in the post-merger period. They were thus not able to make comparisons with College governance in the pre-merger context. Their

immediate and common concerns were the enormity of the tasks that they were expected to carry out in line with the FET Colleges Act 16 of 2006. The fact that the councils were required to take on the role of employer was of great concern primarily in light of the capacity of the Colleges to manage this task. The council chairpersons believed that the policy had not been adequately thought through, and that it was not based on a realistic assessment of the actual capacity of the councils to take on these responsibilities.

Both chairpersons expressed frustration at the lack of commitment and expertise of some of the members of council and at the lack of depth of insight amongst the executive management of the Colleges. While both interviewees expressed support for the principals, they felt that their senior managers were not able to deal with the complex governance issues that had been devolved to the Colleges. Both chairpersons reported that many of the statutory requirements of the FET Colleges Act were simply not being fulfilled.

One of the chairpersons pointed to the somewhat unusual situation that the College senior management were technically not accountable to council because they were appointed by the Department of Education and remained the only staff in the College who were not council employees and who were therefore accountable to the provincial government (and national government under emerging policy at the time). The performance agreement of the principal was negotiated with the Minister at provincial level, and was not in the council's brief. Thus the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the College, who managed the College on behalf of council, was ultimately not employed by council and could not be removed by council.

The chairperson saw this contradiction as being evidence of reluctance on

the part of the government, to devolve power to the College councils. The arrangement could be categorised as a form of de-concentration rather than devolution, with the central authority maintaining control but shifting management responsibility.

In order to manage the many issues related to the taking over of the staff of the College, the chairpersons of all College councils in the country formed a national association, not least to act as an employers' association for negotiating with unions. However, in some cases wealthier Colleges were not abiding by national agreements and were paying salaries that other Colleges could not afford. Another example of differentiated practices emerging is that some Colleges appeared to be paying the council members a fee for their services while other councils were not. The legislation did not envisage that council members would be paid, but given the increased responsibilities, it was viewed by the interviewees as necessary that councillors were adequately compensated.

The chairpersons of the two councils expressed frustration at the level of political involvement in the appointment of members of council. Council itself did not have a say in the appointment process and some of its members were regarded as political appointees whose job seemed to be to report on the College to the Minister. This practice was seen as being problematic, as these members of council were not active in other respects, and as a result many of the council sub-committees were not fully established or functional. Whether there was any substance to this allegation was unclear, but the fact that both chairpersons independently made similar comments suggests that this was not an isolated perception.

Overall, from the perspectives of the chairpersons of council, the governance arrangements were problematic in both design and execution. The responsibilities

of council were similar to those of a corporate board, yet the powers and relationship to management did not mirror corporate governance procedures. For the council chairpersons this was not a manageable arrangement and required revisiting.

While there has recently been some revision of the functions of councils, specifically with respect to the shift of the role of employer to the national Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), and greater clarity regarding fiscal oversight responsibilities, in most other respects College councils are still a form of de-concentrated governance. There are still unresolved tensions in the reporting lines of the principals, and limited powers to make decisions of a strategic nature.

Principals

The four principals interviewed were selected on the basis of both convenience, and in terms of the diversity of their colleges. The principals were responsible for distinctly different Colleges. Two of the principals (or Chief Executive Officers [CEOs], as they were referred to at times) were in charge of larger urban Colleges, while one was located in a large town, and one in a small rural town. Three had been appointed at the time of the merging of the Colleges and thus had experienced and managed all the changes, while one had been appointed recently, in the post-merger period, but had been an official in the Department of Education, and had been involved in the sector, prior to this present position.

One of the most striking themes that emerged was the lack of experience in vocational education, which they indicated was common to many of the principals countrywide. One principal said:

I am still learning all the time. I was a school principal. I am a school

teacher by training. The first time I saw these machines we have was when I started this job. It was difficult to learn all the language of this sector. And when I was appointed I had to bring these different Colleges together and the staff did not trust that I understood what they do.

This lack of experience in the vocational sector meant that some of the principals were not in a position to play strong leadership roles in the Colleges, and they focused instead on managing the mergers in a relatively technical fashion. Certainly there was little sense that the principals were actively managing the curriculum processes.

Two of the principals interviewed spoke at length of the lack of capacity in their management teams. In one case all the managers at the central office had transferred from the schooling sector and lacked what the principal described as the 'experience of managing the staffroom dynamics of a large organisation'. He felt that he alone was able to think strategically and with some vision, and that this meant that he was not able to delegate key functions. This lack of capacity meant that devolution of functions such as human resource management were unwelcome. Three of the four principals interviewed would have preferred that these functions remained centralised until such time as the College had developed capacity.

Three of the principals described the functioning of the College councils as being problematic. Like the chairpersons of the council, the principals did not view the capacity of the council members as being appropriate for the requirements of the devolved responsibilities. In part, this was attributed to the fact that some of the people were nominated to the councils by politicians who were not familiar with the College sector and thus tended to nominate people loyal to the political party and not because of their expertise. Even where there was expertise, the councillors did not necessarily take their roles seriously, and in a number of cases the council

meetings were not quorate. The exception was a College where the principal was able to influence the nominations process and ensure that the council was comprised of people with relevant expertise.

The principals were united in their frustration with the role that the national Department of Education had played in the development of the policies governing Colleges. There was a sense that the senior officials were trying to change Colleges into institutions that addressed the problems of school drop-out rather than the issue of skills development. The funding formula attached to the mandatory National Certificate: Vocational was viewed as being inadequate and as causing the Colleges to go bankrupt. The urban Colleges were in stronger positions than their rural counterparts because they were able to raise their own income through running programmes geared to local industry, and thus were able to meet their financial commitments. Where Colleges were able to do this, the principals were more confident about determining the nature of the programmes offered. The Colleges that were wholly or primarily dependent on the subsidy felt that the department was destroying the Colleges.

Despite the general frustration expressed by the principals regarding the reforms, there was also evidence that the principals were growing in their assertiveness and that the national South African College Principals Organisation (SACPO) was developing into a forum through which collectively the principals were beginning to challenge the policy trajectories (SACPO, 2005). Principals' responses to recent developments were also largely positive, with one suggesting that government had finally 'seen the light' and that the post-1994 policies were 'coming full circle'. Many of the recent developments in Colleges have attempted to address the weaknesses identified with councils through better selection criteria, training and support.

Lecturers

The ten lecturers interviewed came from a range of disciplines in five different Colleges. The lecturers had been selected because they had been at the Colleges for at least 10 years and had experienced the various changes discussed. The views expressed may reflect the experiences of older staff members and it is possible that new College employees are less disillusioned than this sample was.

The lecturers' sense of frustration at the changes was directed not only at governance-related reforms, but equally at the changes in curriculum, the nature of the new learners, and the management of the Colleges. It is difficult to separate these matters, and in some respects they all flow from macro-level governance issues. The process of mergers progressed very smoothly. There was minimal active resistance in the form of political lobbying, strikes or protests, and all the lecturers interviewed accepted that they had to be merged. To a large extent, this reflects the top-down culture of management in the Colleges and the largely disempowered role of staff. Staff members interviewed reported that they did not feel that they had a say and did not really expect to have a say.

What the mergers meant for the individual lecturers varied from institution to institution. Some mergers resulted in the relocation of specific programmes from one campus to another, while most Colleges merged academic departments. Lecturers had to move offices, campuses and staff rooms.

Lecturers also had to agree on new standard practices and in many cases to get used to new management at department, campus and institutional levels. For middle managers, the mergers required extensive negotiations

across sites, driving between campuses and spending many hours in meetings. All these changes disrupted the taken-for-granted norms and procedures of the institutions and created significant stress for many individuals.

As the mergers created new management and governance structures, the College principals were appointed in a top-down process to manage the mergers and steer the new Colleges. Central offices were established to serve the resulting multi-site structures. These structures removed the lecturers a few tiers from the senior management of the organisations: the CEOs were usually located in offices many kilometres away from where the lecturers worked.

Larger corporate structures are a necessary requirement for larger organisations, but they carry, almost inherently, a greater level of depersonalisation. Many lecturers interviewed felt that they were no longer known to management and that they were not important in the concerns of the top management. For some, this reinforced a sense of alienation from the new organisation and a lack of commitment to it.

Coupled with the corporatisation of the College was the more recent change in the employer-employee relationship. The creation of the College councils and the subsequent empowerment of the councils to function as the employers fundamentally changed the identities of the lecturers. Instead of being provincial government-employed lecturers enjoying the same status as their school-based colleagues, lecturers were asked to enter into new employment contracts with the council. The interviewees expressed many concerns about the capacity of the various councils to administer fully-fledged payrolls, to make adequate provision for pensions and benefits, and to oversee the management of the institutions so that there would be funds available to meet the salary bill regularly. The lecturers

reported that their principals were not able to answer their queries, and that the provincial department 'did not seem to care'. Faced with these concerns, a sizeable number of lecturers reportedly opted either to transfer elsewhere in the provincial administration (a number being placed in schools), or to take early retirement. Many of the interviewees felt that the system had unnecessarily lost a lot of capacity through this process.

Salim Akoojee (2008) has articulated several of the risks involved in devolving the responsibility for staffing to the College councils, and warned of possible undesirable and unintended consequences. What was clear was that the changes in management and governance added significant stress in the lecturers' lives, and shifted their institutional and employee identity. While this was not a unique phenomenon within the increasingly corporatized educational world, it represented a level of stress for the individuals involved that proved either creative or debilitating.

The linking of the new TVET Colleges to the FET Band and the injunction from the then-Department of Education to focus on the new National Certificate: Vocational were perceived by many lecturers (and College principals) as a diminishing of their status. 'We are now high schools, not Colleges' was a repeated lament. In one College, lecturers described how they used to work closely with the local university and that the courses they offered were accredited by that university. By locating most of the TVET College offerings at FET level, the programmes that were classified as Higher Education were no longer funded and the link to the university became problematic. For the lecturers, these changes had been very demotivating and 'insulting'.

Coupled to these developments was the change in the age profile of the students in the Colleges. Many lecturers reported that the new students were too young, were not interested in their studies and appeared to be there simply to collect the student financial aid package.

Overall, the interviews with the College lecturers revealed that changes in the governance system, and the subsequent changes to curriculum, at national and local levels, and in the students, had made a serious impact on their morale and identity. Contrary to expectations, rather than feeling empowered through the decentralisation process, the lecturers interviewed spoke of feelings of disempowerment and loss of status. There appeared to be little sense amongst the lecturers that governance reforms might enable more localised responses to the educational needs of the communities in which the Colleges were located. Rather, there was a sense that the strengths of the College system had been undermined and that their own job security and status had been diminished. Most of the lecturers interviewed expressed a desire to leave the Colleges for other employment.

There was, however, a sense that the recent developments associated with the inclusion of the TVET Colleges in the Higher Education sector might signal positive developments for the future, although this was coupled with a strong sense of 'change fatigue'. None of the lecturers interviewed was aware of any of the details of these developments, and they expressed surprise when some of the implications were spelt out by the researcher. It was also apparent that, unlike the principals and council chairpersons, there was no active national or regional lobby group or union for articulating the lecturers' viewpoints in policy circles.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

While the reforms of the governance systems of Colleges in South Africa reflect many of the trajectories associated with global policy discourses, and specifically those associated with decentralisation, the sense that this is a linear, modern and coherent path was not experienced by the agents in the system.

What is clear from the perspectives of the lecturers, managers and governors in the system is, firstly, that the various reforms were not experienced as being coordinated. Secondly, while the reforms may have been aligned to global governance discourses and specifically to the 'rage' of decentralisation, they cannot be understood in a unitary fashion. Indeed, the various reforms include elements of devolution, but in the main the reforms can best be understood as de-concentration and delegation, with the central authority remaining intact (Dyer and Rose, 2005).

The potential efficacy of reforms is always largely dependent on capacity. As has been noted by Bardhan (2002), decentralisation can as easily lead to greater inefficiencies, to the empowerment of local elites to the detriment of the populace, and to general disillusionment, as it can to the envisioned efficiencies, heightened responsiveness and increased local accountability. Viewing governance issues from the perspectives of the governed and the middle level of management provided useful insights into the ways in which the policy played out in practice.

It is clear that the governance of the TVET Colleges in South Africa cannot be neatly situated within any of the four quadrants developed by Rauner *et al* (2010) to categorise decentralisation. The reform process was 'messy' and contradictory, with policies simultaneously promoting high and low levels of coordination and fragmentation, and the system vacillating between input and output systems of control. While there was a developmental trajectory when viewed at a macro level, for the people in the Colleges the experience seemed incoherent and at times damaging to the system as a whole.

The governance of TVET in South Africa is in another cycle of reform. Taking into account the people in the system, and their capacity to manage the reform, will be an important step in the process of this new phase of reform if some of the more problematic dimensions of the previous cycles

are to be avoided.

REFERENCES

Akoojee, S. 2008. FET College lecturers: the 'devolving' link in the South African skills development equation, *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 60:3:297-313. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13636820802305645>, March 2015.

Akoojee, S., Gewer, A. and McGrath, S. 2005. South Africa: skills development as a tool for social and economic development. In S. Akoojee, A. Gewer and S. McGrath (Eds.). *Vocational Education and Training in Southern Africa: a comparative study*, 99-117. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Allais, S.M. 2007. *The rise and fall of the NQF: a critical analysis of the South African National Qualifications Framework*. Johannesburg: University of the Witwatersrand.

Allais, S.M., Raffe, D., Strathdee, R., Wheelahan, L. and Young, M. 2009. *Learning from the first qualifications frameworks*. Geneva: International Labour Organisation (ILO), Employment Sector, Skills and Employability Department.

Badroodien, A. 2004. Technical and Vocational Education provision in South Africa from 1920 to 1970. In S. McGrath, A. Badroodien, A. Kraak and L. Unwin (Eds.). *Shifting understanding of skills in South Africa – overcoming the historical imprint of a low skills regime*, pages 20-45. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Ball, S. 1990. *Politics and policymaking in education: explorations in policy sociology*. London: Routledge.

Ball, S. 2009. The Governance Turn! Editorial, *Journal of Education Policy*,

24:5: 537-538. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02680930903239904>, March 2015.

Bardhan, P. 2002. Decentralization of governance and development, *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 16:4:185-205. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/089533002320951037>, March 2015.

Boli, J., Ramirez, F.O. and Meyer, J.W. 1985. Explaining the origins and expansion of mass education, *Comparative Education Review*, 29:2:145-170. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/446504>, March 2015.

Chappell, C. 2003. Researching Vocational Education and Training: where to from here? *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 55:1:21-32. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13636820300200216>, March 2015.

Chisholm, L. 2005. The Making of South Africa's National Curriculum Statement, *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 37:2:193-208. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0022027042000236163>, March 2015.

Dale, R. 1999. Specifying globalisation effects on national policy: a focus on mechanisms, *Journal of Education Policy*, 14:1:1-17. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/026809399286468>, March 2015.

Department of Education (DoE). 2001. A new institutional landscape for public Further Education and Training Colleges. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Department of Education-Department of Labour (DoE-DoL). 2007. Joint Policy Statement. Government Printer.

Dyer, C. and Rose, P. 2005. Decentralisation for educational development? An editorial introduction, *Compare*, 35:2:105-113. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03057920500129809>, March 2015.

Gewer, A. 2001. Macro-strategies and micro-realities: evolving policies in

Further Education and Training (FET). In A. Kraak and M. Young (Eds.) *Education in retrospect: policy and implementation since 1990*, 133-151. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Holmes, K. 1999. The reform and governance of public Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions: comparative experiences. In R. Maclean and D. Wilson (Eds.). *International handbook of education for the changing world of work: bridging academic and vocational learning*, 1:905-919. Amsterdam: Springer.

Inman, R.P. and Rubinfeld, D.L. 2005. Federalism and the democratic transition: lessons from South Africa, *American Economic Review*, 95:2:39-43. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/000282805774670356>, March 2015.

Jansen, J. 2003. Mergers in South African Higher Education: theorising change in transitional contexts, *Politikon: South African Journal of Political Studies*, 30:1:27-51. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02589340308046>, March 2015.

Jansen, J. 2004. Importing Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) into South Africa: policy borrowing in a post-communist world, in D. Phillips and K. Ochs (Eds.). *Educational policy borrowing: historical perspectives*, pages 199-220. Oxford: Symposium Books.

Kezar, A. and Eckel, P. 2004. Meeting today's governance challenges, *Journal of Higher Education*, 75:4:371-398. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1353/jhe.2004.0022>, March 2015.

Kraak, A. and Hall, G. 1999. *Transforming Further Education and Training in South Africa: a case study of technical Colleges in KwaZulu-Natal*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Resource Council (HSRC) Press.

Lo, W.Y.W. 2010. Educational decentralization and its implications for governance: explaining the differences in the four Asian newly industri-

alized economies, *Compare*, 40:1:63-78. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03057920903156888>, March 2015.

Mabokela, R.O. and Wei, N. 2007. Lingering effects of the past on a university merger process in post-*apartheid* South Africa, *International Education Journal*, 8:1:160-171.

McGrath, S. 2004a. Reviewing the development of the South African Further Education and Training College sector ten years after the end of apartheid, *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 56:1:137-157. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13636820400200242>, March 2015.

McGrath, S. 2004b. The state of the South African Further Education and Training College sector, in S. McGrath, A. Badroodien, A. Kraak and L. Unwin (Eds.). *Shifting understandings of skills in South Africa: overcoming the historical imprint of a low skills regime*, 158-174. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

McGrath, S. 2005. Building a quality College sector for the twenty-first century, *Southern African Review of Education*, 9-10:21-44.

McGrath, S. and Badroodien, A. 2005. International influences on the evolution of skills development in South Africa, *International Journal of Educational Development*, 26:5:483-494. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2005.10.008>, March 2015.

Minister of Higher Education and Training (MHET). 2013. White Paper for Post-School Education and Training. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Ndong-Jatta, A.T. 2009. Opening statement by the Director: UNESCO-BREDA. Paper presented at the Revitalising Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Provision in the ECOWAS Countries, Conference, Final Workshop Report, 17-20 August, Abuja, Nigeria. Accessed at http://www.unescobreda.org/sitebreda/pdf/UNESCO_ECOWAS_Fina_Workshop_Report_Comments_on_board.pdf, March 2015.

Pandor, N. 2006. Address by the Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, MP, introducing the Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges Bill. National Council of Provinces (NCOP), Cape Town.

Phillips, D. 2005. Policy borrowing in education: framework for analysis, in J. Zajda (Ed.) *International handbook on globalisation, education and policy research*, 23-34. Berlin and New York: Springer.

Phillips, D. and Ochs, K. (Eds.). 2004. *Educational policy borrowing: historical perspectives*. Oxford: Symposium Books.

Rauner, F. and Maclean, R. 2008. Vocational Education and Training research – an introduction, in F. Rauner and R. Maclean (Eds.). *Handbook of Technical and Vocational Education and Training research*, 13-20. Berlin and New York: Springer.

Rauner, F., Wittig, W. and Deitmar, L. 2010. Plural administration in dual systems in selected European countries. In F. Rauner and E. Smith (Eds.). *Rediscovering Apprenticeship*, pages 31-45. Dordrecht: Springer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1995. South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act No. 58 of 1995. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1998a. Further Education and Training Act No. 98 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1998b. Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2006. Further Education and Training Colleges Act No. 16 of 2006. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2008a. General and Further Education and

Training Quality Assurance Amendment Act No. 50 of 2008. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2008b. National Qualifications Framework (NQF) Act No. 67 of 2008. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Sooklal, S. 2005. The structural and cultural constraints on policy implementation: a case study on Further Education and Training Colleges in South Africa. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Pretoria.

South African College Principals Organisation (SACPO). 2005. Statement on the Further Education and Training Certificate (FETC). Colloquium on the FETC, 2 November 2005, Pretoria, South Africa.

Steiner-Khamsi, G. (Ed.). 2004. *Lessons from elsewhere: the politics of educational borrowing and lending*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Wedekind, V. 2008. Report on the research on Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa. Pietermaritzburg, South Africa: University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Wedekind, V. 2010. Further Education and Training reform in South Africa: implications for College lecturers. Paper presented as part of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Research Seminar Series, 19 May, Pretoria.

World Bank. 1991. Vocational and Technical Education and Training: a World Bank policy paper. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. 2000. *Entering the twenty-first century*. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.

World Bank. 2003. World development report: making services work for poor people. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Lecturers in distress: fractured professional identity amongst TVET College staff in South Africa

Volker Wedekind, Adrienne Watson, Zanele Buthelezi

INTRODUCTION

Post 1994, South Africa's new government was compelled to respond quickly and decisively to the myriad of problems in the education system. The series of radical policy reforms that followed was a process described by McGrath as being both "fragmented and remedial" (2010:531). The process, by its very nature, resulted in a temporal dilemma. The country faced a situation in which, intrinsic to the change-agenda, was a "conception that transformation had to be achieved immediately [but that] real transformation was a long term process" (*ibid.*:531).

Because South Africa wanted to signal a complete break with the past, the reforms covered all aspects of the system. However complicating the situation in the Further Education and Training (FET) sector, as Akoojee *et al* (2008, in McGrath, 2010:531) note, was the fact that the reforms were devised to change a part of South Africa's education system for which, at the time, "the state of FET data [was] very bad". Furthermore, finances - and therefore inadequate infrastructure - were, and continue to be, a problem. As Wedekind noted, "Much of the policy has been developed at national level, the implementation has at times been constrained by the funding pressures" (2010a:304).

It is unsurprising then, that TVET Colleges in 2015, still reflect the stresses

placed on the people in the system and on the lecturers in particular. The focus of this paper is on the impact of major reforms on their classroom practices and their identities as lecturers.

Framing this focus are other equally significant reforms in the governance and employment conditions which have impacted on the lives of the lecturers, and which are discussed in Papers 1 and 4 in this volume. A raft of legislative changes has shaped the overall purpose of the College sector. This legislation fundamentally changed the governance arrangements of the sector and the overall orientation of the system. However, it is the changes in the historical TVET College student demographics and the curriculum reforms that accompanied the wider system reforms that have had the most direct impact on lecturers in their classrooms. It is these aspects of the reform that are central to this paper.

Identity has been referred to as a 'buzz-word' in education (Clarke, 2009) that is part of a significant expansion in work that focuses on teachers' personal and professional lives (see Beijard *et al*, 2004; Wedekind, 2001 for overviews). As Britzman (1991:8) argues, "Learning to teach – like learning itself – is always a process of becoming: a time of formation and transformation, of scrutiny into what one is doing and who one can become". Arguing for the importance of this type of research, Clarke (2007:186) suggests that "identity is increasingly being seen as a crucial component determining how teaching and learning are played out in schools and classrooms".

The difficulty with the TVET College sector is little is known about the lecturers (Wedekind, 2010a, 2010b; Akoojee *et al*, 2008). This is not a peculiarly South African problem. Writing about vocational educators in Europe, Buiskool *et al* (2009:145) note:

... not much is known about this group of practitioners. At the

European level, there is a lack of information about who they are, how they are recruited, their specific roles and tasks, what competences and qualifications they are expected or required to possess, their employment status, how their professional development is organised, how they are assessed, and the attraction of their profession.

It is this lack of understanding that this paper begins to address. In particular, the possible implications for lecturer identity, emerging as a result of the changing curricular and classroom dynamics in South Africa's Colleges, are examined.

The data for this paper are drawn from classroom observation and interviews. The interview data reported here consist of 20 in-depth, semi-structured interviews that were conducted in Colleges in two of South Africa's provinces during 2010 by the authors. The Colleges selected include urban and relatively well-resourced institutions as well as Colleges in rural areas. Because of the centrality of the engineering subjects to debates around skills formation in South Africa, this paper reports primarily on lecturers in these technical fields and focuses less on the Management Studies and Communication lecturers. There is thus a deliberate bias towards lecturers with technical backgrounds. Interviews were coded thematically and common threads were identified in an iterative process involving the authors and in some instances, follow-up interviews and data-checks with participants.

CURRICULUM REFORMS

The institutional precursors to the current TVET Colleges were the Technical Colleges. These racially segregated institutions had developed over the course of the 20th century into institutions primarily geared towards the provision of theoretical courses offered to apprentices in various fields.

Typically the courses, referred to as the NATED courses¹⁰, would be offered in three-month blocks which allowed artisans in training to be released from their work commitments for short periods in order to complete the theory courses. Lecturers were typically drawn from industry and were usually themselves qualified artisans who maintained a primary identification with their trades rather than with the education sector.

From the mid-1980s there was a significant decline in the numbers of apprenticeships, and Colleges began offering the NATED courses to students without an apprenticeship. This resulted in an overly theoretical curriculum and too few opportunities for practical work. The changes to the curriculum that were introduced after 2006 were intended to address the perceived inappropriateness of the NATED curriculum by including a more generic fulltime vocational qualification that was geared towards learners post-(school) Grade 9. The apprenticeship system was to be replaced by the concept of 'learnerships' that sought to open up more opportunities for workplace learning without creating contractual obligations for employers to employ the apprentices after they had completed their trade tests successfully.

The new qualification, the National Certificate: Vocational (NCV) was introduced in 2007 after a very short period of consultation. It was designed to offer a vocational alternative to the National Senior Certificate (NSC) offered in mainstream academic schools. The NCV runs parallel to the NSC from school Grades 10 to 12. Compulsory subjects are Mathematics, Communication and Life Orientation. Added to these, are specialist electives in fourteen different vocational fields that are intended to align with identified scarce skills in South Africa.

Although the TVET College lecturers interviewed in this study agreed that

¹⁰ NATED refers to the National Technical Education curriculum.

the NATED courses were outdated and possibly needed to be replaced, they claimed that the reforms were implemented too hastily and without seeking adequate input from the variety of people who have worked in the TVET sector for many years. One participant said:

One moment we hear about it in the media, within a few months it is thrown at us to implement! How do you begin to work with changes that you have no grip of?

From this response it could be deduced that some of the lecturers perceived the NCV as a 'top-down', centrally-developed innovation imposed on 'implementers' at the periphery of decision-making. Some of the lecturers interviewed believed that the entire system might have worked better if the old NATED programmes were gradually revised, restructured and updated instead of the government introducing a completely new curriculum. The introduction of new curricula posed tough challenges for those at 'the chalk-face' as it had implications for their practices. The difficulties with such changes are heightened if the reforms are characterized by poor planning and a one-way, centre-to-periphery approach (Kelly, 1989:127). One of the lecturers participating in the study commented:

Why didn't the government improve the 'devil we know'? With the NATED programme we knew what we were dealing with. There are way too many questions than answers in this new thing.

The majority of lecturers interviewed for this study believe that the Colleges were not adequately prepared for the introduction of the NCV. Overall, the discourse from the interviews was one of exclusion from the reform process and a consequent sense of disempowerment and devaluing of the lecturers' identities as professionals in the system.

The reforms had a major impact on the lecturers' sense of themselves as

professionals, as people offering critical and complex skills, knowledge and values within a unique sector in the education system. Such shifts in lecturer identity centred around several pressures exerted by the implementation of the NCV. These pressures are, for ease of discussion, grouped into three categories but need to be understood as being inter-related issues in the broad landscape of sweeping reform that has characterised the South African TVET sector. The three issues that will be discussed below are: first, inadequate training and preparation for the delivery of the NCV; second, lecturers' perceptions of factors that contributed to a shift in their identity as TVET lecturers and third, how the 'new learners' enrolling for the NCV impacted on lecturers' construction of themselves as TVET College professionals.

INADEQUATE LECTURER TRAINING FOR DELIVERY OF THE NCV

Papier (2009) argues that staff training is a 'priority for implementation' of new curricula. The lecturers interviewed said that this aspect had been neglected by the government and managing authorities of TVET Colleges. Papier (*Ibid.*) goes on to assert that lecturers need pedagogical knowledge, methodologies and adult education strategies. Debates about what type of initial and continuing professional development TVET College lecturers need are long overdue.

The majority of participants in the study on which this paper is based had worked in the TVET sector for many years and had carried this experience over into the new system. A lecturer who already has an abundance of experience is presumed to possess a valuable competence base (Livingstone, 1997:2). Moreover, knowledge accumulated through experience can be shared with new or inexperienced colleagues.

There is however a sizeable number of unqualified and under-qualified staff in South Africa's TVET College system. According to Powell and Hall (2002), unqualified and under-qualified staff in South African TVET Colleges constituted 12% of the staff body in 2000. Although the hard data on this issue are unreliable, from the respondents' reports, this number appears to have grown significantly. In addition, most researchers believe that the post-1994 transformations of Technical Colleges to TVET Colleges brought new dimensions to teaching and learning which have implications for staff competences (Papier, 2009).

Historically, most vocational education lecturers have been recruited from industry. They have technical qualifications and are artisans and trainers, but they are also expected to teach, frequently without a formal teaching qualification. One interviewed lecturer in an electrical department described himself as a teacher with artisan skills who, because of his twenty-year experience in industry, "have first-hand knowledge of what is happening out there, and what is expected of you out there". He said that his ability to teach was rooted in his ability to "transfer the information from the outside in". However, this particular lecturer, like many in the TVET sector, had no formal teacher training and is therefore regarded as unqualified.

Unlike in some European countries, for example Germany, in South Africa historically there have never been any dedicated institutes for vocational lecturer training. Consequently lecturers can only be re-skilled through the top-up in-service training offered by private providers and a few public Higher Education Institutions. Although some staff development work had taken place since the transformations occurred, most of this had consisted of short courses and sporadic workshops that lasted a few days or a week. One vice-principal recalled that at the end of 2006, before the imminent implementation of the NCV in 2007, the Education Department typically responded to staff training needs in this way:

What they would do is firstly - money was an issue - so they couldn't train everybody, so they would say, 'okay, let's take now two or three people. Give me two of your Maths lecturers; give me one of your ... uh ... Fitting and Turning ... and maybe one Welding lecturer ... maybe one Electrical lecturer' and then we would have a day workshop, or two or three day workshop and then they had to come and cascade that training back to the staff. But how could they do that? ... It was a big mess. They didn't treat the sector - from the Education Department side, I don't think they were very fair toward the [TVET] sector.

The lecturers interviewed asserted that owing to a lack of training, they had not been able to interpret and understand the new policy. As a result they had many problems in implementing the new curriculum. One of the challenges experienced was that of dealing with the complex and extensive assessment framework. The new framework demands a combination of Internal Continuous Assessment (ICASS) which assesses the skills, knowledge, attitudes and values of the learners internally (within institutions) throughout the year; External Summative Assessment (ESASS) which is a single or set of written papers set to the requirements of the Subject Learning Outcomes Task (ISAT), a compulsory practical component task that draws on the learner's cumulative learning throughout the year.

Nonetheless, the lecturers interviewed agreed that the vision driving the introduction of the NCV was worthwhile, as it aimed to align theory and practice. But the lecturers remained convinced that the curriculum changes should have been preceded by adequate training in order to enable them to engage effectively with its implementation, and in particular with the new demands for the complex assessments outlined. The lecturers claimed that the lack of training has had disastrous pedagogical consequences, with one respondent saying that:

We were never trained as teachers. We don't have money to get this kind of professional training and we learn through trial and error as we crawl. It is frustrating for us and I think this is unfair to students who become guinea pigs of the innovation.

It appears that the lecturers feel that they were robbed of an opportunity to think, analyze and make sense of the educational changes before these were introduced for implementation. Kelchtermans (2005:2) argues that teachers have to be given a chance to interpret the demands for change and make sense of them through social processes because “the sense-making determines teachers’ eventual reactions to the reforms”.

At least partly as a result of the inadequate inputs regarding staff training needs, the TVET Colleges are still facing serious lecturer capacity challenges in the form of unqualified and under-qualified lecturers and staff recruitment (Bird, 2001 in McGrath, 2004). Retaining existing College staff is increasingly difficult owing to the enormous stress placed on the lecturers who have had to adjust to continual waves of extensive and fundamental shifts in their professional lives.

The following section of the paper reiterates, and attempts to synthesize, other factors affecting TVET College lecturers as they struggle to integrate profoundly altered working conditions into their professional identities.

CHANGES IN LECTURERS’ PERCEPTIONS OF THEMSELVES

In addition to lecturers feeling that they were not coping with the new curriculum demands, the changes initiated a lot of paperwork which dramatically reduced teaching time. Some of the lecturers felt that they had

been turned into administrators. Over and above teaching, they had to oversee the development of student Portfolios of Evidence (POEs) and Portfolios of Assessment (POAs):

I have become a clerk in this NVC (sic). There must be evidence for everything that I do in the classroom. All this must be typed and filed properly. I spend a lot of time preparing these files as they are checked monthly by my superior. Reflecting on what has been happening so far I think students end up being neglected. There are times when I failed to finish the syllabus because I spent too much time updating my file so that I am praised for 'the job well done'.

This experience was confirmed by a lecturer from a different College who said:

These portfolios have to be updated continuously, causing us to lose a lot of teaching time. As a matter of fact, it sometimes seemed to us that management regarded the completion of paperwork as more important than actual teaching and learning. As long as the portfolios were up to date, nothing else seemed to matter.

Most of the lecturers said that they should be given ample opportunities to engage in teaching and learning for the benefit of the students. The lecturers did not see the point of having to plan and prepare four portfolios per subject or per level that they taught. In the past, one file per subject had been sufficient evidence to validate that teaching and learning were taking place. Many lecturers suggested that there was a need to hire administrative staff or teaching assistants to deal with the cumbersome additional paperwork they were compelled to do.

Experiences from Finnish vocational education confirmed that the reforms brought with them adaptations to lecturers' occupational profiles. The lecturers

found themselves having heavy workloads, excessive administration which limited effective teaching time, and having to adapt to a lot of new methods. Heikkinen (1997:4) quotes one of the Finnish lecturers expressing her frustration thus:

You feel like being a narcissist if you just want to concentrate on your teaching. It has become secondary.

Resentment of this nature has also been identified in South Africa with the introduction of Curriculum 2005 (C2005) in the mainstream education system. Research from a number of scholars who have investigated school teachers and the implementation of C2005 and OBE (Clark, 2007; Sibuquashe, 2005) consistently show that teachers' roles became more complex and stressful due to increased accountability via increased paperwork, increased workloads, lack of resources, inadequate training and a lot of uncertainty.

Fullan (2001:265) argues that this situation may be aggravated if reform initiatives involve dealing with students with diverse needs with respect to cultures, behaviours and backgrounds. Townsend and Bates (2007:42) argue that generally reform initiatives adversely affect teachers and tend to weaken rather than strengthen teacher professionalism. In the South African TVET College context, this could be compounded by a lack of identity as professionals such as that enjoyed by other teachers in ordinary mainstream basic education.

Vocational education lecturers in some of the developed countries are better established as professionals compared with those in developing countries such as South Africa. TVET College lecturers in developed countries work in professional vocational environments as they have discipline-specific teacher training and development; clear career paths

and recruitment procedures; and strong union affiliations. For example, Finnish vocational educators have an unambiguous sense of their identity as lecturers working in the TVET sector. This identity excludes teachers who work in the school-based vocational education as these “teachers have identified themselves more as general teachers (and thus, often civil servants) than vocational educators” (Heikkinen, 1997:2).

CHANGES IN STUDENT DEMOGRAPHICS, AND LECTURER IDENTITY

In Paper 4 in this volume, which focussed on governance in the TVET Colleges, it was noted that the interviewed lecturers, principals and chairpersons experienced high levels of frustration. The challenges outlined arose largely as a consequence of the series of rapid reforms in the sector between 1994 and 2006. The frustrations were directed “not only at governance-related reforms, but equally at the changes in curriculum, the nature of the new learners, and the management of the new Colleges” (interviewee).

Compounding the difficulties faced by lecturers with the introduction of the NCV is that they came at a time when the sector was already grappling with the effects of severe staff shortages and an overall increase in student enrolment. As Akoojee (2008:303) notes, “an overall staff-student ratio decline from 1:38.6 in 1999 to 1:58.9 in 2005 represents considerable stress in the sector”. The first intake of NCV students in 2007 presented an almost insurmountable challenge to an already change-fatigued College staff sector which had not been adequately prepared to deal with the demands of the new lecturer-student dynamic. As one College Deputy Principal reflected:

I can recall the first meeting that I went to, um ... was in late 2006, I would imagine must have been around this time, October ...we went to a meeting there whereby officials from the Department came down from, from Pretoria ... they were gonna tell us now about the NCV program that is now coming. And that was the first time that I actually physically heard the Department now talking to us, tel ling us, 'Well, look now, it's happening now in January 2007'.

Moreover, at this time, the FET Colleges Act of 2006 had been implemented, which devolved responsibility for staff employment and remuneration from the state to the College councils. And while, in this new devolved staffing structure, the advantages of institutional accountability and responsiveness envisioned by the provisions of the Act are in some respects commendable, these benefits seemed to be, as Akoojee (2008:306) proposed, "undermined by [the] current school-based intake" of the NCV.

The challenges around this "school-based intake" coalesced around four concerns. First, inadequate admission criteria led to the emergence of multi-level teaching which involves having a class comprising students who are at different developmental and cognitive levels. As one Deputy Principal reported:

The only criteria was from the Department stating ... well ... you know the entry requirement is Grade 7 (Grade 9), the candidate's at Grade 7 (Grade 9), there's no reason that you can say to them, 'Sorry, I can't take you'.

Therefore, in a TVET College Level 2 class, one could find a student who had passed Grade 9 as envisaged by the policy, but also Grade 10-12 'dropouts' or 'push-outs' from mainstream academic schools; those who had already matriculated, and those who had N6-level qualifications but need to specialize in a new field. The multi-level nature of students in these

classrooms poses a unique challenge for which sporadic workshops cannot cater.

Second, complicating the multilevel composition of the NCV learner population was the disjuncture between the perception that the TVET College is a 'dumping ground' for academically challenged learners, and the rigorous demands of the NCV courses. As one lecturer said:

I once sat in the company of principals in which many of them admitted to the fact that whenever there is overcrowding in their schools, they call slow learners and advise them to go to FET (TVET) Colleges.

The NCV courses that are offered at TVET Colleges, such as Engineering, require academically capable students – as is the case for other science subjects in mainstream schools. But, learners who would not ordinarily take science subjects in ordinary high schools misguidedly choose such courses in TVET Colleges thinking that the Colleges offer easier options. Another respondent verified this trend:

I think, at this moment, there's a lot of them are coming here as an escape, last sort of resort, you know ... but they are not really prepared for what they are actually letting themselves in for, that, that, the theoretical and classroom is just as bad as if they didn't like it at school, they come here and they don't like it either.

This situation is frustrating for lecturers, especially those who are inexperienced and under-qualified.

Third, the NCV courses comprise heavy subject loads. Students have to take three compulsory subjects, namely Mathematics or Mathematical Literacy, Communication (Language) and Life Orientation as well as four subjects in their chosen area of specialisation. Compounding this was a

government directive that students who passed three out of seven subjects should be promoted to the next level and may carry the failed subjects. This is a significant additional load of subjects (seven, plus four being repeated, means 11 subjects in a year) for a student. When the student who is already demonstrably at risk is placed under this pressure it is distressing for both students and lecturers, particularly when the latter do not have necessary skills to deal with such situations.

A fourth factor contributing to the high levels of stress, dissatisfaction and low morale amongst TVET lecturers is that the NCV cohort was characterised by problems associated with the learners' backgrounds. Many of the learners come from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds. Thus poverty and unemployment are typically associated with many NCV students' home experiences. The learners were often hungry, struggled with transport and were exposed to environments where the social fabric of the community was under strain (Chidester, Dexter and James, 2003). These factors at times gave rise to anti-social classroom behaviour which many College lecturers were under-prepared to manage:

The 2007 group that came onto this campus, I would say, 80% of those students that were sitting in our class were problem students, coming out of broken homes, drug problems, not being able to cope with school. We really, we really, we really got the bad kids from school – became the dumping ground here. I think that, that's what a lot of the staff wasn't prepared to all of a sudden, you know, get these guys that were absolutely rowdy ... of course you hear from things that are happening at schools where a lot of these kids came from ... knives and gangsters and ... it really wasn't a good experience ... for the staff and they weren't prepared for it.

Speaking of the 2008 NCV cohort, a current Head of Electrical (including NCV), commented that, "our Level 4 NCV learner, the students were, were

I, I would say on a scale of 1-10 for disobedience, they were a 12.”

Following a series of rapid governance, institutional and curriculum reforms in a relatively short space of time, the introduction of the NCV presented TVET lecturers with situations where they were suddenly faced with very large classes of multilevel, academically challenged students. Most of these students enrolled in the NCV without sufficient knowledge of the discipline-specific rigorous nature of the various curricula and were seeing it as a last resort rather than a conscious choice to pursue a particular vocation. Consequently they brought to the classroom patterns of behaviour to which the lecturers were unaccustomed.

Finally, although this was not articulated directly in interviews, but mentioned often informally, the reforms had confronted lecturers with gender and race diversity in their classrooms. Many of the lecturers would have been used to training young artisans who were following career trajectories similar to their own, came from similar communities and held similar values. In the newly merged and diversified Colleges, lecturers had to deal with students of both genders, and from a variety of different cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

INADEQUATE RESOURCES AND UNDER-DEVELOPED INFRASTRUCTURE

For TVET lecturers, the stresses of responding to radical shifts in curriculum and learner demographics were exacerbated by a shortage of funding, insufficient teaching materials and inadequate infrastructure. The imposition of reforms, without taking into account the “resources and capacities required to make them work” (Wedekind, 2010a:309), seems to be counter-productive to the explicit aims of the reforms

(Akoojee, 2008:310). A scarcity of classrooms, furniture, textbooks, libraries, computers, printers, photocopiers and other resources is apparent in most campuses.

One lecturer said:

I remember when the NCV started, there were no textbooks, subject guidelines, lecturer guides and assessment guidelines. Some of these arrived a month late. Imagine how frustrated lecturers were as they didn't know what to do but had to make a plan to keep the students busy.

The outcry about the shortage of resources was confirmed by one of the lecturers in Engineering:

Our workshops are ill-equipped, some with outdated instead of state-of-the-art equipment as promised by the government. This will have a negative impact on the quality of students that we produce as industries have new model machines.

A lecturer from a smaller campus in one of the Colleges expressed his concerns thus:

Our campus combines Engineering and Business programmes. As a result there is a shortage of classrooms and furniture. Most of us find ourselves sharing classrooms and we feel that this is affecting optimal and competent execution of our duties.

Another lecturer from a campus in a rural area complained about sanitation challenges:

In this place toilets for students are disgusting. They are never clean and there is no toilet tissue and soap for washing hands. How does

one work under such unhygienic conditions!

Most of the lecturers interviewed mentioned that a shortage of resources hinders progress and contributes to the high student failure rate. One lecturer commented that management was quick to focus blame for poor results on meagre classroom delivery without doing much to minimize the contributory factors. This, one said, was unfair to most lecturers who “do their best with the little they have.”

Such frustrations and job dissatisfaction reportedly have led to large-scale staff ‘flight’ and the exodus of College lecturers either to industries or to the general schooling sector. Robbins *et al* (2003) argue that employee dissatisfaction can be expressed through resignations and seeking new jobs where conditions are better.

As one respondent reported, “unfortunately, a lot of the staff that have been involved with the NCV is now in industry and they, they are in positions whereby they recruit and do the recruiting.” Others have remained in Colleges but some have opted for what Robbins *et al* (2003:78) call ‘neglect’ in which staff members of an organization “passively allow conditions to worsen, including absenteeism, lateness, reduced effort, and increased error rate.”

This view is confirmed by MacLaughlin’s (1997) research in which she argues that lecturers may lose interest and ignore the proposed changes. This she calls non-implementation. She further argues that some of the lecturers resort to co-optation. This is when lecturers seem to be accepting the changes but ‘unconsciously’ avoid implementing them in their classrooms. Lecturers have been explicit about how most of them stay idle in the Colleges, using them as “waiting stations” for better opportunities elsewhere. This raises questions about the success of the envisioned enhanced skills development and better economic productivity that the state aimed to

achieve through restructuring the TVET Colleges.

The experiences of one College manager, recently employed to revive the dysfunctional Electrical division in a College, seem to resonate with MacLaughlin's (1997) and others' positions outlined above. The manager came into a situation where long-serving lecturers had a history of feeling disrespected by senior College management; they were extremely resistant to yet more changes to their working conditions, and to what was expected of them. Consequently, they seemed to be exhibiting what Robbins *et al* (2003) identified as 'neglect'. The College manager describes his initial encounters with his staff as follows:

When I, when I took over, the, the first thing I had to, I had to **really** do was, was, pull in the reins when it came to lecturers doing their own thing. So it was important that, although I was, I was, [pause] extending the olive branch in terms of 'let's communicate', but I could not be seen as allowing them to do their own thing, such as, getting in their car during normal working hours and going **out**; going **home earlier** than normal; leaving their **classroom**; being out of **class** when they should be in class. Um ... disrespecting me by not telling me they not coming in the **next** day ... certain things like that. So, I **clamped** down on that. And certain people can accept things like that, and others, can't, unfortunately [emphasis in the original].

CONCLUSION

Educational reformers in South Africa have focused on the reorganisation of the system of education, including reform of the qualifications and curricula that underpin it. However, like reform elsewhere, the focus on the system failed to take adequate notice of the people that populate the system and are required to make it function. In the domain of vocational education, the reforms have not only changed the 'what' and 'how' that

lecturers are supposed to teach, but the entire nature of the institutions and the students they attract. The lecturers interviewed all described their experiences of these processes as being exclusionary. Moreover, insufficient training coupled with inadequate infrastructure disrupted their existing identities as lecturers. Overall, the lecturers reported being demoralised and disillusioned with the curriculum. Descriptions of the students were often framed in a language of deficit. These factors weaken the foundations upon which the planned expansion of this sector will take place in the next phase of the reform process.

Lessons from curriculum reform in other contexts (both in South Africa and internationally) suggest that the success of the vocational education reforms that have and continue to be underway in South Africa will in large measure succeed or fail dependent on the degree to which the teaching corps invests its identity in the reforms and is sufficiently trained to take on the new developments. On the basis of the research on which this paper is based, there appears to be a significant need for the systematic training and support that addresses the knowledge and pedagogy required. Also, crucially, this training needs to support the lecturers in their development of a strong sense of identity with their professions as educators, rather than as trades-people co-opted into educational institutions.

Measures to counter lecturer dissatisfaction could mitigate against the loss of highly skilled and experienced staff from the TVET system. MacLaughlin (1997) proposes 'mutual adaptation' whereby lecturers adapt classroom practices in line with the proposed curricular changes, and are also given the space to provide feedback. Lecturer needs and concerns must be taken seriously by all stakeholders.

It should, however, be noted, that 'identity work' is always dependent on

context, contingency and ambiguity. It is ultimately a project of the self and cannot therefore be prescribed in a teacher education curriculum. However, what is possible is ensuring that the spaces are created in which lecturers feel that they are included and valued, and where their own development is facilitated.

REFERENCES

Akoojee, S. 2008. Further Education and Training (FET) College lecturers: the 'devolving' link in the South African skills development equation. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 60:3:297-313.

Akoojee, S. and McGrath, S. 2008. The marketing of public Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa: issues for policy and practice. *Journal of Education*, 45:131-154.

Akoojee, S., McGrath, S. and Visser, M. 2008. Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges. In A. Kraak *et al* (Eds.), *Human Resources Development Review: 2007*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Baatjes, I. 2003. The new knowledge-rich society: perpetuating marginalisation and exclusion. *Journal of Education*, 27:179-204.

Badroodien, A. 2004. Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) provision in South Africa from 1920 to 1970. In McGrath, S. *et al* (Eds.). *Shifting understandings of skills in South Africa: overcoming the historical imprint of a low skills regime*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Beijard, D., Meijer, P.C. and Verloop, N. 2004. Reconsidering research on teachers' professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education: An*

International Journal of Research and Studies, 20:2:107-128.

Britzman, D. 1994. *Practice makes practice: a critical study of learning to teach*. Albany, New York: SUNY Press.

Buiskool, B.J., van Lakerveld, J. and Broek, S. 2009. Educators at work in two sectors of adult and vocational education: an overview of two European research projects. *European Journal of Education*, 44:2:145-162

Chappell, C. 2003. Researching Vocational Education and Training (VET): where to from here? *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 55:1:2132.

Chidester, D., Dexter, P. and James, W. (Eds.) 2003. *What holds us together? Social cohesion in South Africa*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Clarke, M. 2007. The ethico-politics of teacher identity. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 41:2:185-200.

Department of Education (DoE). 1998a. Education White Paper 4: A Programme for the Transformation of Further Education and Training (FET): Preparing for the 21st Century through Education, Training and Work. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Department of Labour (DoL). 1995. Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Department of Labour (DoL). 1998. Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Elias, N. 1978. *What is Sociology?* New York: Columbia University Press.
Fullan, M. 2001. *The new meaning of educational change*. New York: Teachers College Press.

- Heikkinen, A. 1997. *Patriotism, technocracy or care? Vocational education and social change in Finland*. Bergen: University of Bergen.
- Kelchtermans, G. 2005. Emotions, teacher identity and change. *Journal of Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21:8:995-1006.
- Kelly, A.V. 1989. *The curriculum: theory and practice*. London: Paul Chapman.
- Livingstone, D.W. 1997. *The education-jobs gap: under-employment or economic democracy?* Colorado: Westview Press.
- MacLaughlin, M. 1997. Implementation as mutual adaptation: change in classroom organization. In Flinders, D. and Thornton, S. (Eds.), *Curriculum Studies Reader*. New York: Routledge.
- McGrath, S. 2004. Reviewing the development of the South African Further Education and Training (FET) sector ten years after the end of *apartheid*. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 56:10:137-160.
- McGrath, S. 2010. Beyond aid effectiveness: the development of the South African Further Education and Training (FET) College sector, 1994-2006. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 30:525-534.
- Moll, I., Steinberg, C. and Broekmann, I. 2005. Being a vocational educator. A guide for lecturers in Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges. Braamfontein: South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE).
- Nias, J. 1996. Thinking about feeling: the emotions in teaching. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 26:3:293-306.
- Papier, J. 2009. Development for vocational and occupational trainers and educators. Unpublished paper accessed at www.uwc.ac.za/usfiles/users/1/College_Lecturer_Qualifications_Symposium_Report.pdf, October 2010.

Powell, L., and Hall, G. 2000. *Quantitative overview of South African Technical Colleges*. Johannesburg: Colleges Collaboration Fund.

Rauner, F. and Maclean, R. 2008. *Handbook of Technical and Vocational Education and Training Research*. Berlin: Springer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1995. Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1998c. Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1998b. Further Education and Training (FET) Act No. 98 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1998c. Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2006. Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges Act No. 16 of 2006. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Robbins, S., Judge, T., Odendaal, A. and Roodt, G. 2004. *Organisational behaviour: global and Southern African perspectives*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.

Sibuqashe, M.R.S. 2005. Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) in Further Education and Training (FET) institutions in Gauteng. Unpublished master's thesis, Tshwane University of Technology, Pretoria, South Africa.

Townsend, T. and Bates, R. 2007. *Handbook of teacher education: globalization, standards and professionalism in times of change*. Amsterdam: Springer.

Wedekind, V. 2002. A figurational analysis of the lives and careers of some South African teachers. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Manchester, England.

Wedekind, V. 2008. Unpublished report on Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa. University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa.

Wedekind, V. 2010a. Chaos or coherence? Further Education and Training (FET) College governance in post-*apartheid* South Africa. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 5:3:302-315.

Wedekind, V. 2010b. Further Education and Training (FET) reform in South Africa: implications for College lecturers. Paper presented at the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Research Seminar Series, 19 May 2010, Pretoria.

Young, M. 2006. Further Education and Training (FET) College teachers: a knowledge-based profession of the future. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:3:153-160.

At the pivot: the classroom experiences of Marketing lecturers in selected TVET Colleges in South Africa

Josephine Towani, Zanele Buthelezi, Volker Wedekind

INTRODUCTION

The Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) sector is seen as a pivotal and diverse segment of the overall education system in South Africa (Minister of Higher Education and Training [MHET], 2013), and is perhaps the most complex of all the sectors. Pivotal, as it is seen not only as bridging the gap between school and university and between education and employment, but also as being a central vehicle through which a range of social problems from skills shortages to youth unemployment are to be addressed. Complex, because it comprises learners completing formal compulsory schooling; older learners returning to study; full and part-time students; those on day-release from training schemes; those in the workplace and those in the classrooms of the various TVET Colleges (Mokgatle, 2003:617).

This paper explores the experiences of three lecturers working in the TVET sector. By focusing in detail on the lecturers in the TVET system, some of the wider systemic tensions confronting the sector are brought into relief.

The paper focuses on one area of the programme offering of the matrix of subjects that make up the NCV qualification and unlike the previous paper, focuses on a non-technical subject. This is the Marketing programme also known as the National Certificate-Marketing or NC-Marketing. The

Marketing programme package consists of English, Mathematical Literacy and Life Orientation as fundamental subjects; Marketing, Advertising and Promotions, and Marketing Communication as vocational subjects, and a choice of any elective subject that particular Colleges have the ability to offer and for which students would like to enrol.

The focal point of the case study on which this paper was based, was on the subject Marketing, within this programme. The purpose of the study was to describe the classroom experiences of the lecturers involved in teaching this new curriculum in respect of the subject Marketing. To this end, the following were the key questions:

- How have lecturers experienced the implementation of the National Certificate–Marketing in their classrooms?
- What factors have influenced the implementation of the National Certificate–Marketing in the classrooms?

METHODOLOGY

The case study on which this paper is based utilised a life history methodology. This method proceeds from the view that “life history is always the history of a life, a single life, told from a particular vantage point ... ” (Hatch and Wisniewski, 1995:115). In this approach, the researcher and the participant construct the identity and point of view of the participants’ unique situation as couched in culture, time and place (*Ibid.*).

Participants

Life-history methodology rarely involves a random sampling of participants (Van Wyk, 2007; Hart, 2002; Balie, 2007; Goodson and Sikes, 2001; Goodson, 1992). It is important that respondents are prepared and able,

both in terms of time and ability to articulate, to engage with the topic (Goodson and Sikes, 2001; Goodson, 1992). In the present case, the respondents had to have the appropriate knowledge and at least two years of experience in teaching the NC-Marketing; teaching experience before the new curriculum was introduced was not a pre-requisite. Selection of the three lecturers was purposive; names have been changed to protect the identities of the respondents. The sample comprised:

- *Zodwa*, a lecturer teaching at NQF Level 4 in TVET College #1, in an urban area, for three years;
- *Trudy*, a lecturer teaching at NQF Level 4 in TVET College #2, in an urban area, for three years, and
- *Roshna*, a lecturer teaching at NQF Level 3 in TVET College #3, in a rural area, for two years.

Data collection strategy

A multi-method data collection plan was used, that included semi-structured in-depth interviews and photo-voice recordings, following Goodson and Sikes (2001). Interviews were recorded and transcribed.

Analysis of data

The process of data analysis involved a rigorous ongoing and iterative process of reading and re-reading the transcripts and constantly making sure that what was reported was actually what was said, to increase the validity of the data. Predominant issues were identified and coded.

The codes developed from individual interview transcripts and photo-voice sessions were juxtaposed and common themes identified. Seven themes were found, and could be clustered into 'lecturer's classroom experiences'

and 'addressing factors influencing implementation of the new curriculum'.

EMERGING THEMES

Theme 1: Lecturers' perceptions and understandings of the curriculum documents

McEwan (2002:106) argues that an effective teacher is one who, "has sound knowledge of content and outcomes ... and this includes knowledge about the ways of representing and presenting content". In order to be an effective teacher, a lecturer needs to understand what the curriculum demands, and to be able to address these demands.

The lecturers interviewed felt that the NCV curriculum documents were well written, unambiguous and well set out. However, in spite of expressing that this curriculum was well understood, the lecturers unanimously reported that numerous challenges had been experienced in translating these documents into practice in the classroom. Zodwa indicated that firstly, it called for "a shift in mind-set from the way the old curriculum worked". The new curriculum requires lecturers to teach from outcomes contained in the Subject and Assessment Guidelines (SAGs). To a lecturer who is new to the programme, this shift is challenging as it is "in the interpretation of the curriculum documents wherein lies the first problem. So when as a new lecturer you need to follow the SAGs, you follow the textbook. And because you as a lecturer is new to this programme, you don't understand or follow the curriculum or know how to implement the SAGs" (Zodwa).

In addition, the curriculum documents were experienced as being pitched at a high level to the extent that "some of the materials that have been prepared for Level 2 and 3 is too high for that level, it is as though it's for University level, you understand?" (Roshna). Navigating and negotiating

the curriculum to the level of the learners was a major source of challenge for these lecturers. They reported that this is sometimes “(sigh) ... tiring and draining” (Zodwa).

Moreover, textbooks are aligned to the SAGs, and learners struggle to understand the content thereof. The lecturers were clearly concerned about the effect that these realities had on the quality of teaching:

[It] is like being on a learning programme where you do through experience ... after doing it for so long and after ... acquiring this experience from entry level National Certificate (NC)-Marketing to exit level, I am able to see what is NC-Marketing (laughs) and how it should be done and it's only after doing it that you know how it should be done ... for those of us who have been around from the inception, we now have knowledge to transfer because we also now know who these people are that are coming in (Zodwa).

These ideas support what Miller (1994, cited in Carl, 1995:2) meant when he cautioned that “a teacher’s whole adaptation and style, *inter alia*, determines the quality and standard of what takes place in the classroom”. The views expressed also underscore the importance of teacher empowerment. Carl (1995) states that because teachers are important curriculum agents, they need to be empowered during initial training so as to ensure buy-in for, and delivery of, the curriculum. In a system without an initial teacher education system for vocational educators, or systematic curriculum-specific in-service professional development programmes, it is unlikely that lecturers will be able to respond to the curriculum in a manner that ensures quality teaching and learning.

Theme 2: Teaching the National Certificate-Marketing in the classroom

TVET Colleges offer the NATED programmes alongside the NCV programmes. All three lecturers in the study on which this paper is based, taught both. The two programmes are significantly different in duration, teaching methodology and pedagogy. The lecturers felt that with the NC-Marketing there is “such a lot of preparation while at the same time you have to prepare new work. You have to mark the assessments, file them, just so many things you have to do for NCV” (Roshna). The NATED is easier to manage because “there are hardly any practicals as it is not stipulated and there is not so much paperwork” (Zodwa).

The demand placed on lecturers to implement the new NCV curriculum and at the same time balance it with teaching the old NATED curriculum was strenuous: the lecturers expressed not having sufficient time to dedicate to either of the programmes. As Roshna put it, “you know for the first year, I wasn’t coping, everybody wasn’t coping. There was just too much stress among the staff members because we had to teach the NATED and at the same time there was this NCV introduced ... it was just too much!” And: “to give something like this specialised curriculum, in which I would say, you just don’t stand in front and deliver, there is a lot of paperwork associated with it ... everything is just different. So, it’s a big problem” (Zodwa).

In addition, the NC-Marketing (NCV) has significant additional administrative duties which take up a lot of teaching preparation time: “These PoEs, and PoAs¹¹. Everything you have to do has to be filed – like the assessments. Although assessments are done on the NATED, for NCV it requires much more paperwork” (Roshna).

11 Portfolios of Evidence and Portfolios of Assessment.

Another challenge that lecturers faced in teaching the NC-Marketing was that of language. Many of the students enrolled for the NC-Marketing programme were predominately English Second Language speakers. The TVET Colleges use English as their medium of instruction. Therefore, “If I ... explain it to them ... others don’t understand because of language barriers” (Roshna). Because of this, “I was pulling my hair out in trying to get the concepts across to them” (Trudy).

It has been noted that the lecturers perceived the new curriculum to be pitched at a high level. When this issue is juxtaposed with that of language, a clear picture of the magnitude of the challenges faced by the three lecturers in implementing the NC-Marketing curriculum becomes more apparent. Negotiating the curriculum and the language barrier were significant issues that may negatively affect the way lecturers experience the TVET curriculum reforms.

Theme 3: Handling assessments

The *Assessment Guide* is a generic document that guides assessment on the NC-Marketing (NCV). It was clear from the interview sessions that the requirements for assessment were interpreted differently by different Colleges. There was no consistency across Colleges as to the appropriate number of internal assessments to give to the students towards their Portfolios of Evidence. In one College, as many as seven assessments were administered whilst in another, as few as two. There was another difference, in the provision for re-assessment, where the number of times that a student could be re-assessed differed across Colleges. However, all three lecturers indicated that in their respective Colleges the setting of assessments and administration thereof were ‘standardised’, and assessments were written at the same time in all campuses.

In addition to Marketing, all three lecturers taught four other NCV classes and at least one NATED class. This load implies that, “if you have five NCV classes to teach, it means that you have five sets of marking to do, five sets of revision, five sets of re-assessment, and marks have to be submitted two days after the writing of each paper” (Trudy). The challenge, as indicated by these lecturers, was that these assessments and re-assessments take up a lot of time. The two-day timeframe allowed for marking assessments was not enough. Not only were the lecturers under a lot of pressure to complete the marking in the given timeframe of two days, they thought that sometimes not enough of the syllabus had been covered in time for the next scheduled assessment.

Pandey (2001) argues that in most places where education has been fundamentally restructured, using assessment as a main form of accountability and control is common. He further argues that assessments have also been used for a variety of other means such as inciting change in the teaching profession and raising standards to “meet global competition” (Ibid.:85). In addition, it is an international trend that role players increasingly seek to justify the payment of education and training, and the benefits that these hold for stakeholders. The best way seen to ensure these benefits is through the monitoring of assessment practice (Vongalis-Macrow, 2008).

Theme 4: Abilities required of lecturers to teach the NC-Marketing curriculum successfully

On the matter of the abilities required for lecturers to teach the NC-Marketing (NCV) curriculum, the respondents indicated that anyone teaching this subject should be able to understand what the *Subject and Assessment Guidelines* (SAGS) require for successful implementation of the curriculum. The curriculum calls for resourcefulness, ingenuity and creativity.

Lecturers also found that knowing the students' backgrounds and being able to handle student diversity was of paramount importance for successful implementation of the NC-Marketing programme in the classroom. As Trudy put it, "lecturers need to teach in a more diverse and ingenious way because you can't stand in front of your class and go through the textbook and think that you will be able to teach it".

The NC-Marketing programme was said to require much more from the lecturer than did that of the NATED. As it requires learning through experience, lecturers need to be well equipped to implement the curriculum. The NC-Marketing also requires that new teaching skills be acquired.

Wilson (2005) concurs with the necessity for these abilities, and succinctly captures the essence of what a global teacher should have in order to survive the tide of change, "the education and training of knowledge workers requires those who facilitate learning' (*Ibid.*:49). Schulte, Slate and Onwuegbuzie (2008) agree, and confirm from their study on effective school teachers, that knowledgeable, passion for teaching, friendliness, involving and caring were among the twenty-four themes that learners felt an effective teacher should possess for the global arena.

Theme 5: Profile of the students and their ability to engage with the curriculum

The minimum requirement for students to enrol for the NC-Marketing programme is a school Grade 9 pass. However, it was not uncommon to find learners who had completed matric, also enrolling. A typical NC-Marketing class comprised students with a Grade 9 pass, matriculants and in some cases, students with special education needs. Lecturers

believed that these factors in combination contributed to the difficulties they faced in implementing the new curriculum for, “a classroom setting is [ideally] people that are on par with each other, so it’s very difficult to deal with a diverse class” (Zodwa).

The lecturers observed high absenteeism, and lack of enthusiasm and direction, among their students: “they are not focused and don’t have determination” (Roshna) and “the younger students for whom the curriculum is intended, cannot read, concentrate nor participate meaningfully in class” (Zodwa).

A study by Cheung and Wong (2006) revealed that the profile of learners that enrolled for the career-orientated curriculum (a pilot vocational programme in Hong Kong) included those who were academically less able or simply not interested in the mainstream curriculum. This curriculum, like the NC-Marketing (NCV) was designed to provide learners with the necessary skills required for employment in industry. Cheung and Wong (2006:107) concluded that it was not uncommon to see an array of diversity in the learners that opted for vocational education. They also found that most learners lacked interest in participating in learning because they often chose subjects which they were not really interested in. These authors (*Ibid.*) suggest that, “if students had curriculum tailored more to their needs, they might participate more actively” in their learning. Clearly, the issues faced in the South African TVET Colleges are by no means unique.

Theme 6: Lecturer support structures

All three lecturers studied had had an opportunity to attend the very first NCV pre-implementation workshops held by the then-Department of Education. As each lecturer looked in retrospect at the quality of these workshops, each felt that the training did not adequately prepare them for

what they were later to experience in the classroom. The training neither addressed the new terminologies nor the new methodologies that these lecturers were to encounter in the NC-Marketing curriculum. As Roshna expressed it:

Yes. In the beginning it was a bit complicated. The instructions were not clear. It was very ambiguous ... the first year was just terrible because we did not receive textbooks on time and the learners were not co-operating. I even went to Pretoria for that first training but it was a sheer waste of time because we were not given enough information about NCV. So, it had so many problems that I experienced but now it's getting better.

In addition, specialised instructional support from senior lecturers and College management was often lacking and as a result, the lecturers had resorted to informal support structures created amongst themselves.

In a globalised arena, the capacitation of teachers or lecturers is an important aspect of any curriculum innovation. Papier (2008) in her report on the training of TVET College lecturers in South Africa, England and other countries, advances this argument very strongly. As Papier (*Ibid.*:4) suggests, “qualifications and programmes must be designed to suit the needs and context of vocational College lecturers”. The report also reveals that the TVET sector in England, which shares various similarities with its South African counterpart, requires dedicated training to teach vocational qualifications in order to help lecturers to adjust, perform and excel in their tasks as they manoeuvre through new vocational curricula. Young (2006) gives a comprehensive comparative analysis of the parallel changes that have taken place in the TVET arena in South African, and those in the United Kingdom. He strongly recommends that TVET lecturers need to be upskilled in many cases when curriculum has changed, and even more so when it is outcomes-based.

Theme 7: Resource factors impacting on the roll-out of the NC-Marketing

The implementation of the NC-Marketing has been impacted by there being insufficient resources. Lecturers indicated that these shortfalls include insufficient classroom space, computer rooms with internet access, well-resourced libraries, simulation rooms and textbooks. While lecturers acknowledged the efforts and predicament that their Colleges suffered in order to acquire these resources, this lack nonetheless impacted on curriculum delivery at the classroom level.

The photo-voice sessions revealed that even although funding was given to Colleges during the recapitalization phase for the upgrade of infrastructure, such infrastructure was incomplete or lacked vital resources such as computers and books. According to one lecturer, “I took this picture to come and show how ... difficult it is to implement the NC-Marketing from the resource point of view ... it’s a lack of resources where you can say there is a Resource Centre but ... not enough resources as stipulated in the curriculum” (Zodwa), referring to a picture of a basic classroom with insufficient chairs and desks.

Wilson (2005) argues that in a globalised arena educational facilities should be reoriented to better facilitate learning. Bates (2007) also indicates that with the advent of globalisation, there has been a dramatic increase in the use of modern technologies especially the internet, access to which for research purposes cannot be denied. The provision of these resources is a critical factor associated with curriculum innovation.

CONCLUSION

The implementation of the NC-Marketing (NCV) curriculum in the TVET

Colleges where the researched lecturers were based has not been easy. The classroom experiences of the lecturers show that they navigated the curriculum under difficult circumstances. Factors contributing to their stress included lack of proper pre-implementation and on-going lecturer training, insufficient support structures and resources, work overload, great student diversity and under-preparedness, and lack of clarity regarding criteria for student enrolment. These factors have had a significant bearing on how the lecturers experienced the implementation of the NC-Marketing. It is important that the advice offered by Carl (1995) regarding curriculum innovation is heeded – that many a curriculum initiative has been miscarried because curriculum developers have so often underestimated the importance of implementation. To rely on the design and dissemination of new curricula for innovation and change, does not work. Real success could be evaluated rather, by evaluating the extent to which that curriculum innovation is workable in practice.

REFERENCES

Akoojee, S. 2008. Further Education and Training (FET) College lecturers: the 'devolving' link in the South African skills development equation. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 60:3:297-313.

Balie, R.B. 2007. An investigation into the relationship between Lifelong Learning and transformation in an individual's life: a life history study of a 67-year old Black female adult learner from KwaZulu-Natal. Unpublished master's thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa.

Bates, R. 2007. Regulation and autonomy in teacher education: system or democracy? In T. Townsend and R. Bates (Eds.), *Globalisation, standards and professionalism in times of change*. Netherlands: Springer.

Carl, A.E. 1995. *Teacher empowerment through curriculum development*:

theory into practice. Cape Town: Juta Publishers.

Cheung, C.K. and Wong, A.K.C. 2006. Implementation of the career-oriented curriculum (COC) in the Business curriculum for senior secondary schools in Hong Kong: a pilot study. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 58:1:99-114.

Davidson, L. 1992. Developing an empirical-phenomenology approach to schizophrenia research. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, 23:1:3-15.

Department of Education (DoE). 1996. Report of the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE): A framework for transformation. Pretoria: DoE.

Emme, M. and Kirova, A. 2006. Using photography as a means of phenomenological seeing: "doing phenomenology" with immigrant children. *Indo-Pacific Journal of Phenomenology*, 6:1-12.

Gewer, A. 2001. Macro-strategies and micro-realities: evolving policy in Further Education and Training (FET). In A. Kraak and M. Young (Eds.), *Education in retrospect: policy and implementation since 1990*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Goodson, I. 1992. *Studying teachers' lives: an emergent field of inquiry*. In I. Goodson (Ed.), *Studying teachers' lives*. London: Routledge.

Goodson, I. and Sikes, P. 2001. *Life history research in educational settings: learning from lives*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Hall, K.H. 2005. Further Education and Training Certificate (FETC): Vocational – a business perspective. Accessed at <http://www.saqa.org.za/docs/events/fetcCollegequimos/hall.pdf>, January 2009.

Hart, S.N. 2002. An investigation of self and culture through the career narratives of first year university students. Unpublished master's thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa.

Hatch, J.A. and Wisniewski, R. 1995. Life history and narrative: introduction. In J.A. Hatch and R. Wisniewski (Eds.). *Life history and narrative*. London: Falmer Press.

Heidegger, M. 1982. *On the way to language*. San Francisco: Harper and Row.

Hlophe, S. 2000. The Further Education and Training (FET) curriculum transformation: National Institute for Community Education Trust. In *FET Implementation Handbook: From policy to practice*. Landsdown: Juta Publishers.

Hlophe, S. 2003. Further Education and Training (FET) curriculum transformation. In Chisholm, L., Motala, S. and Vally, S. (Eds.), *FET Implementation Handbook: From policy to practice*. Sandown: Heinemann.

Kraak, A. 2001. Rethinking education policy-making in South Africa: symbols of change, signals of conflict. In A. Kraak and M. Young (Eds.), *Education in retrospect: policy and implementation since 1990*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

McEwan, E.K. 2002. *Ten traits of highly effective teachers*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press.

Mills, C.W. 1959. *The sociological imagination*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mokgatle, M. 2003. Defining the Further Education and Training (FET) system: focal points for change. In Chisholm, L., Motala, S. and Vally, S. (Eds.), *FET Implementation Handbook: From policy to practice*. Sandown: Heinemann.

Nieuwenhuis, F. J. 1996. *The development of education systems in postcolonial Africa: a study of selected African countries*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Pandey, V.C. 2001. *Education and globalisation*. Delhi: Kalpaz Publications.

Papier, J. 2008. Report on the training of Further Education and Training (FET) College lecturers in South Africa, the United Kingdom, and other international contexts. Report of the EAP75 Project, 2008.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1996. National Education Policy Act No. 27 of 1996. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1998. Education White Paper 4: A Programme for the Transformation of Further Education and Training (FET). Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1998. Further Education and Training (FET) Act No. 98 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2006. Further Education and Training (FET) Act No. 16 of 2006. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2010. Qualifications Policy Framework for Further Education and Training (FET) Programmes: National Certificate (Vocational). Accessed at www.thutong.doe.gov.za/ResourceDownload.aspx?id=45212, March 2010.

Schulte, D.P., Slate, J.R. and Onwuegbuzie, A.J. 2008. Effective high school teachers: a mixed investigation. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 47:6:351-361.

Sokolwski, R. 2000. *Introduction to Phenomenology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Stevenson, L.F. 1982. *The metaphysics of experience*. London: Clarendon Press.

Van Manen, M. 1997. Phenomenological pedagogy and the question of meaning. In D. Vandenberg (Ed.), *Phenomenology and educational*

discourse. Johannesburg: Heinemann.

Van Wyk, A.M. 2007. Profound understanding of fundamental Mathematics and the Mathematical life histories of some teachers teaching Mathematics in the Intermediate Phase in KwaZulu-Natal. Unpublished master's thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa.

Vongalis-Macrow, A. 2008. *Deployed to deliver: teachers in globalised education systems*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Wilson, D. 2005. The education and training of knowledge workers. In *International handbook on globalisation, education and policy research*. Netherlands: Springer.

Young, M. 2006. Further Education and Training (FET) College teachers: a knowledge-based profession of the future. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:153-160.

Pedagogy in a TVET College: being the visible difference – an analysis of a TVET College lecturer at work

Adrienne Watson and Volker Wedekind

INTRODUCTION

Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges and vocational education more generally are viewed as key levers for addressing a myriad of social ills such as poverty, youth unemployment and skills shortages. This faith in the ability of education and training to change society is encapsulated in the image of the classroom under examination in this paper, where the slogan “Education beats poverty” is displayed at the top of the whiteboard (Figure12).

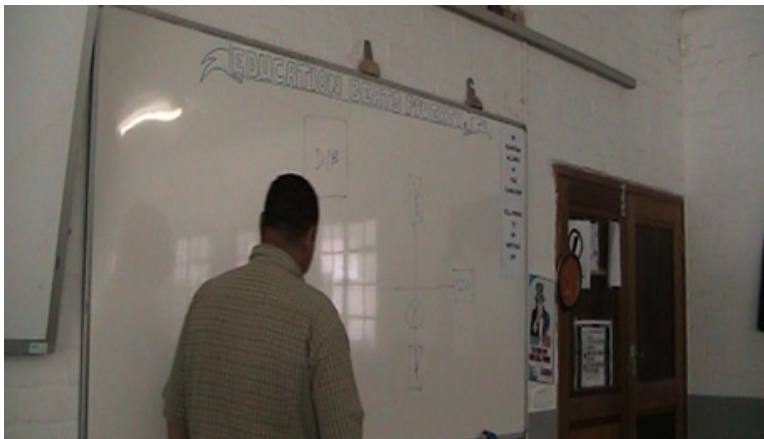


Figure 12: Whiteboard showing the phrase 'Education beats poverty'

Similar views are expressed in the White Paper for Post-School Education

and Training (MHET, 2013), the National Skills Development Strategy III (DHET, 2011) and the Diagnostic Report of the National Planning Commission (NPC, 2011). All of these policy documents emphasise the centrality of vocational education in addressing social challenges.

The White Paper (MHET, 2013) emphasises the need to expand the TVET College system in the country. One of the greatest challenges in addressing this expansion is that little is known about what happens inside the classroom or workshop (Papier, 2011; Wedekind, 2008). Scant attention has been paid to the 'person who gently closes the classroom door and performs the teaching act – the person who puts into place the end-effects of so many policies' (Hattie, 2003:3). This paper attempts to shed some light on what good pedagogy in a TVET College setting may entail, based on a case study of one lecturer's classroom practices.

VOCATIONAL PEDAGOGY

One of the challenges faced by researchers in the field of Vocational Education and Training is that there is no well-developed 'language of description' for vocational teaching in the Anglophone world (Papier, 2009; Young, 2006). As Winch (2010) pointed out, while there has been significant debate about the nature of practical knowledge, the educational implications are poorly understood. It is thus necessary to turn to more general theories of teaching and learning, and to explore the applicability of these theories, in vocational settings.

The work of John Hattie (2003; 2009) has had a significant impact on the general understanding of the roles of teachers in classrooms¹². Hattie (2009:108) argues that, while all teachers make a difference to learning,

12 Hattie's articles and books have been cited in over 500 published studies. There have been some criticisms of Hattie's methodology but his classification of effects and factors is nevertheless useful, even if the relative significance of the different effects and factors may be incorrect.

“the important consideration is the ways [in which] teachers differ in their influence on student achievement – what is it that makes the most difference?” Hattie (2003) and his team provided a meta-analysis of 50,000 studies into learner achievement in educational settings, and developed a methodology to identify factors affecting these achievements. The meta-analysis generated 134 effects on learning achievement. Teaching accounted for approximately 30% of the sources of variance (Hattie, 2003). Five other major factors were identified: the students (50%); students’ home (5-10%); schools (5-10%); principals (a trickle-down effect through leadership style), and peer effects (5-10%).

Hattie (2003:3) concluded that “it is what teachers know, do and care about which is very powerful in [the] learning equation”. In addition, the literature suggests that in low socio-economic educational settings, the difference a particular teacher makes to learner achievement is proportionately greater than that in higher socio-economic settings (Nye *et al*, 2004, cited in Hattie, 2009:254).

The impact a teacher has, coalesces around five “dimensions” (Hattie, 2003:6). Moreover, of the overall 134 effects on learning achievement, those related specifically to the teacher are distributed variously across this set of five dimensions. In this paper, seven of these 134 effects are used as a basis for analysing the practices of one TVET College lecturer studied, whom we have called Stephen. These seven effects are: feedback; teacher-student relations; direct instruction; mastery learning; classroom cohesion; classroom management; and peer tutoring.

The degree to which these general categories might apply in a vocational classroom/workshop setting are explored in the paper. The intention has not been to use Hattie’s analytical categories in a formulaic or prescriptive way; rather it was to demonstrate how an evidence-based ‘language of description’ might contribute towards a conception of ‘expert’ (Hattie, 2003)

TVET College lecturers.

THE CASE STUDY

The case study on which this paper focuses is that of Stephen, an Electrical Skills lecturer at a TVET College in South Africa. Models of 'best practice' were sought when selecting the lecturer to be studied. Stephen was recommended by his immediate superior in the College's Electrical Department, as being a good potential subject for research, based on his reputation as an effective teacher whose students were progressing well. Stephen is a qualified electrician and had run his own business for some years. At the time of data collection, he was not a qualified teacher, although he subsequently enrolled to do his National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE). He had had a previous five-year stint teaching at a College, before returning to business. After his business had run into difficulties, Stephen was contracted, on a temporary basis, to teach unit standard-based Electrical Skills modules to young men who were neither employed nor engaged in education or training (referred to as 'NEETs').

Stephen described himself not only as an artisan and a teacher, but also as a pastor. He was an ardent practising Christian with a strong church affiliation and a sense of calling to mentor young people. In relation to his sense of himself as an agent of change in young people's lives, Stephen described himself as an 'optimist'. He was well acquainted with aspects of most of his students' personal lives, empathising deeply with those in difficult circumstances. He regarded it as being part of his job to ensure that the young people felt free to approach him for help and advice of a personal nature if they so wished.

In a follow-up communication with Stephen regarding the progress of his

students some fifteen months after the initial research observations, he proudly related that:

It is indeed with great pleasure that I can report to you that 11 of the 13 students are currently studying with us at the College, and are doing their second year in the NCV programme. Most of my students were the ones with the highest results for Level 1. The other two received apprenticeships and are apparently doing very well (Personal Communication, 2012).

Stephen himself had not only been retained as a College lecturer, but had been given funding by the College to complete his NPDE. That most of the students in Stephen's class had returned to formal education was significant, and constituted an ideal outcome for a specific learning intervention (Hattie, 2011). The interest of the researchers was in the possible influence Stephen's teaching practice might have had on this outcome.

The data in the case study were drawn from two sources, namely, a video recording of a typical, full day of teaching in both a traditional classroom and in a workshop and secondly, from an interview with Stephen two days after the lesson observation. The classroom and workshop interactions were grouped together and constructed as 'Stephen's teaching' and were analysed as such. Constant comparison of the lesson was used to derive two broad categories: first, overall lesson structure; second, teaching and interaction patterns.

Given that the aim of the data collection was to remain focused on the teacher, further comparisons sought to allow some features of Stephen's layered subjectivity – those of 'Christian mentor'; 'electrician'; 'teacher' – to emerge as singularities (patterns of practice) that are implicated in shaping the specific milieu of his teaching and learning context.

A follow-up, one-on-one interview with Stephen was conducted two days after the observations. Again, constant comparison of the transcript, observation, and interview data was carried out to allow for the emergence of patterns relating to Stephen's rationale for his approach with the particular group of students. The aim of seeking explanatory patterns was to begin to open out the complexity and the conscious 'visibility', to himself, of Stephen's pedagogy.

The patterns that did emerge from the data analysis were then compared against the effects on learner achievement derived from Hattie's (2009) meta-analyses of 800 studies. Where there was a clear correspondence between Stephen's practices and Hattie's (2009) findings in relation to the role of the teacher (as opposed to the effects of the home; school; curriculum, etcetera), these features were elaborated in the discussion. The findings are in no way intended to be a prescriptive 'recipe' for successful teaching; rather, they are offered as part of an evidence-based commentary on those teaching practices and personal attributes, the goal of which is to 'start discussions about the effect of teachers on students' (Hattie, 2011) in a TVET College setting. While working deductively with Hattie's (2009) categories provided a coding scheme, the researchers also worked inductively from their observations. There was a risk associated with using a predetermined coding scheme, namely that the researchers would find 'what they were looking for'. Therefore, an intensifying focus informing the analysis was to try to catch a glimpse of, and tentatively describe, those unquantifiable yet real factors that made the expert teaching an art as well as a science (Eisner, 1991).

Context of the Classroom

Stephen was teaching two Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) modules, namely: 'Design and construct a single phase circuit', and

'Installing Wire-ways'. These were stand-alone skills programmes, accredited by the relevant Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA), and targeted at thirteen young people 'not in education, employment or training' (NEETs) in a traditionally low socio-economic area in a large metropole. The participants varied in age and with respect to the levels of formal education they had experienced. However, most of the participants had left the school system before successfully completing the twelve years required for a school-leaving National Senior Certificate.

The learners in Stephen's class had responded to a community-newspaper advertisement placed by the College, offering a subsidised opportunity to enrol in a six months' basic electrical skills course. The applicants were interviewed by Stephen and other College staff, and were selected for the thirteen places available. At the time of the research observations and interview with Stephen, the course had been running for around three months. By then, Stephen had established a predictable teaching routine which was clearly evident in both the dynamic between him and the students, and also in the selection, sequencing and pacing of the components of the lessons, which appeared to be familiar to the students. Although the lesson was lively and interactive, it was clear that Stephen was in control of the learning environment, and that the students respected and liked him.

Table 5: A breakdown of the observed day's lesson

The day's lesson was structured as follows.

- i. Start of day (8h00): The lesson began with 25 minutes of engagement with the SAQA unit standards, which was always done at the beginning of a new module (see Figure 13).
- ii. Half-hour video-screening of different types of electrical couplings.
- iii. 15 minutes of Stephen giving a practical demonstration to the whole class.
- iv. 45 minutes of selected learners' practice of conduit bending to create 'an offset' in front of the whole class.
- v. 10h00: Tea for twenty-minutes.
- vi. Brief classroom recap of electrical components to be used in the workshop project.
- vii. Whiteboard explanation of the need for an 'offset'.
- viii. Handing out of 'Installing Wire-ways' diagram for workshop project.
- ix. Workshop project: students working in workshop on 'Installing Wire-ways' with 'offset', in line with the diagram provided.
- x. 13h00 – 13h30: Lunch.
- xi. Closure: students returned to the classroom to evaluate and give/receive feedback on the day's practical project.
- xii. Stephen assessed the workshop projects.
- xiii. 14h30: End of day.

Description of Stephen's teaching milieu



Figure 14: Stephen's classroom at tea-time – a view from the rear

The data obtained, supported by affirmation from Stephen's superior, and most significantly by the conduct of the students, suggest that Stephen had succeeded in creating a classroom environment conducive to learning. Moreover, the relationship between learning and life-change was poignantly captured by the slogan written in large letters at the top of Stephen's whiteboard. This motto, "Education beats poverty", was elicited from the students at the start of the course and points to a shared sense of purpose in the educational enterprise.

In its physical arrangement (see Figure 14) the most striking feature of the classroom was the layout of the students' desks which allowed for maximal interaction with each other and with Stephen as he taught and demonstrated. This layout made it possible for Stephen to approach each

student individually, and to maintain close body and eye contact, strategies he employed frequently during the lesson. Stephen was also a tactile person, gently and appropriately affirming learners with the occasional pat on the shoulder.

Although it is not always straightforward to differentiate between the instructional (communications relating to the teaching of the subject) and the regulative (communications relating to maintaining social control) in the classroom (Bernstein, 1990), Stephen clearly maintained a healthy balance between the two discourses. The atmosphere in the classroom could be described as being co-operative; respectful yet relaxed and tolerant, with students addressing Stephen as 'Sir', and him calling them by either their first names, or as 'Mr ...'.

Levels of politeness were high, with Stephen making requests rather than issuing orders: 'please', 'thank you' and 'excuse me' were used often. The students raised their hands when asking questions. Various signs pasted around the classroom drew attention to the need for politeness, for example, one poster explained why it was necessary to turn off cell phones. Figures 15 and 16 show other signs on the outside of the classroom door. These signs were interesting in that they oriented students to ways in which politeness and quality were expected norms. The students were prompted through these displays, to consider the relationship between education, effort and excellence.



Figure 15: A sign on the outside of the classroom door, seen when entering from the workshop

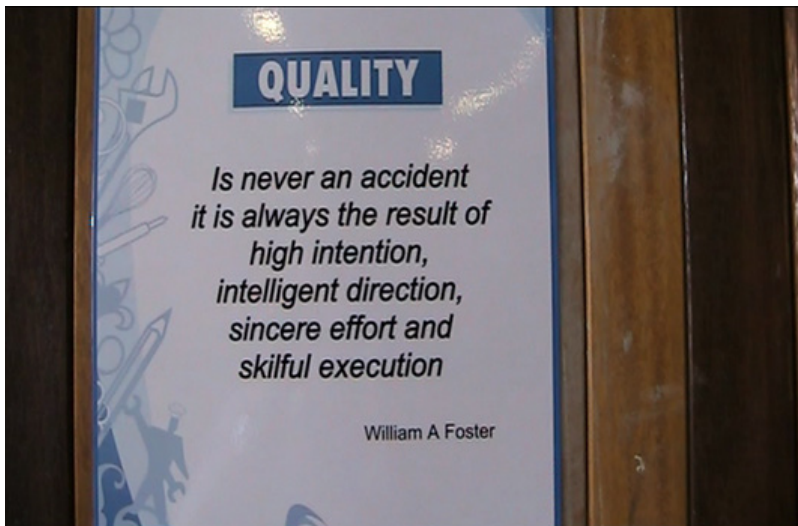


Figure 16: A second sign on the outside of the classroom door, seen when entering from the workshop

Both Stephen and the students laughed a lot: at themselves, at each other and at shared jokes. In one instance during the demonstration of conduit

bending, the humour amongst the students veered off into predictable lewdness with general banter and hilarity. This was mildly negatively sanctioned by Stephen but allowed to play itself out as he discreetly laughed along.

The students were quiet when they were asked to be, yet a dominant feature of the classroom was the high levels of dialogue between Stephen and the students. This dialogue varied between instructional content and related questions, mostly in English, and many micro-dialogues in which elaborations were sought or given - as the students offered insights, asked questions, and related (often humorous) anecdotes - and gentle teasing. The less pedagogically formal interaction occurred mostly in the students' local dialects and seemed to intensify a sense of group belonging in the classroom. The students were co-operative as Stephen engaged them in various tasks throughout the lesson: fetching materials and tools; moving equipment; answering questions, and assisting him in demonstrations.

It appeared that Stephen had succeeded in creating an environment where there might be the 'courage to err'. Two students were individually selected to demonstrate to their peers how to fashion an 'offset' in a Poly Vinyl Chloride (PVC) conduit. They stood at the front of the class and attempted to replicate the process as previously shown to them by Stephen. The second student did not successfully complete the task, battling particularly to bend the conduit in the correct way. Although unequivocal about the student's lack of success, Stephen affirmed him by emphasising that practice would help him to do it correctly. Moreover, Stephen identified with the student's process of repetition to attain mastery by saying 'Let's try again', and directing the student towards a successful second attempt. In the workshop, Stephen also attended to many situations where individual students were making mistakes as they constructed their wire-ways. Although his comments to these students were unambiguous in terms of their errors, Stephen's inputs were delivered in the form of humorous ban-

ter rather than as serious reprimands. At no time were any of the students punished for making a mistake.

In the follow-up interview with Stephen, when questioned about the personal interest which he took in each of his students, he said:

Just by the way they can confide, I know that they, they sort of trust me to a level where ... they have a bit of peace, um ... that I won't let them down in area where I can help them. So, yes, I do feel ... they feel, they feel strong and secure in the classroom, yes.



Figure 17: The workshop 'beginning to install wire-ways with an offset'



Figure 18: A partially completed task, showing one student's work-station number, diagram of wire-way, and the student's work

In the workshop setting, a much riskier environment in which to maintain control, Stephen deployed a number of strategies for enhancing learning. The students were divided into working groups of three, although individual completed their own wire-ways. Stephen explained his rationale for grouping the students as follows:

There'll be others that's helping others, actually assisting them which is good, that's um, interpersonal learning, they help each other instead of coming to me, they will show each other how to do it, which is, which I obviously encourage because I believe that they learn easier with their own 'language' ... if I may call it that.

Throughout the workshop component of the lesson, Stephen constantly moved around to each workstation, talking to students, querying their actions, and checking that they were following the diagram correctly. As in Stephen was frequently approached by the students for help, in one instance, for first-aid, tending to a cut made by one of the students. The most striking feature of Stephen as a lecturer in the workshop session was his use of feedback which is described in more detail below. During the

workshop sessions, Stephen also reminded the students to remember the hand-tool skills they had learnt at the beginning of the course. Significant both in the workshop, and in the classroom, were frequent, often-repeated reminders that practice would lead to mastery.

Another notable feature of the workshop interactions was that during the course of the practical work, Stephen overtly drew the students' attention to two features of their activity. The two features were not directly related to their immediate instructional learning, but to their general demeanour, and to habits specifically linked to their incipient status as artisans. For example, Stephen reminded the students to take their hands out of their pockets, zip up their overalls, tie up their shoelaces, and pull up their pants, and in one case, tie up long hair. He reiterated that they must "remember house-keeping" and "remember safety, the most important thing". His rationale for these comments as later explained to the interviewer, was that many of the students lacked the kinds of social behaviours that would help them to advance in the workplace, and he saw it as part of his role to teach them these things. This focus on wider skills that make people employable is critical for College-work transition (McGrath *et al* 2009).

Having described the general features of the classroom and the teaching milieu created by Stephen, the paper now turns to an analysis of the seven key features of the lesson that aligned to practices identified by Hattie (2009) as making a significant difference to learning.

Giving feedback

Feedback is a complex, multi-layered phenomenon intersecting along a continuum with many aspects of teaching and learning. It is bi-directional: feedback is from lecturer to students and from students to lecturer. It is not within the scope of this paper to attend to these complexities. The paper

points rather, to Stephen's teaching and suggests that this practice has strong elements of different kinds of feedback operating together but in discernible ways. The rationale for focusing on this aspect of Stephen's practice is the emergence of feedback in Hattie's meta-analyses as one of the most powerful influences on learner achievement ranking 10th overall (Hattie, 2009:173).

Feedback that empowers students to attain learning goals answers three questions, namely, 'Where am I going?', 'How am I going', and 'Where to next?' These are labelled respectively as 'feed up', and 'feed forward' questions, and do not necessarily proceed in that sequence (Hattie, 2009).

Throughout the College teaching day in both the classroom and the workshop, six clear examples of these feedback sets were observed. Two of those which occurred in the classroom context are given below (the text provided comprises Stephen's words, addressed to the students). Two of the students were demonstrating how to bend a PVC conduit:

Student 1

- Feed up:** *"Why are you doing that?"*
- Feed forward:** *"This makes you employable!"*
- Feed back:** *"It's in the centre" [Relates to position of PVC bend].*

Student 2

- Feed up:** *"Explain why you are doing that."*
- Feed back:** *"This is how not to do it!"*
- Feed-forward:** *"Let's try again" [Accompanied by demonstration from Stephen]*

In the workshop, much of the feedback was practical, with Stephen pointing out errors and then showing the students how to complete processes correctly. In one instance, the student who had had trouble bending the conduit in the classroom demonstration again bent it incorrectly at the start of his project. His particular problem was that he was pushing the conduit against his knee instead of pulling it, thus creating an inverse bend to that required. Stephen provided the following feedback, in the sequence shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Examples of lecturer-student individual feedback, feed-forward, and feed-up

Student 3

Feed back: *“You bent it the wrong way.”*

Feed up: *(Stephen showed the student repeatedly how to bend the conduit, and gave him the opportunity to re-do it)*

Feed forward: *(Stephen affirmed the student once he had accomplished the bend correctly, indicating that he could proceed with the next steps of the project)*

In a TVET context, such ‘embodied feedback’, in other words non-verbal feedback in the form of physical demonstration, together with an acknowledgement of the need for repeated practice, could be crucial to students’ development of craft-specific skills and knowledge. It is not sufficient to demonstrate theoretical understanding or to demonstrate a skill correctly once: students have to be able to demonstrate competences repeatedly and efficiently, to the point at which these skills become routine. It is only through practice and repetition, with appropriate correction and ‘tips’, that achievement of these competences becomes possible.

Significantly, at no stage were the students criticised. Feedback directed at the level of the individual person, even if positive, was not found in Hattie's (2003, 2009) meta-analyses to have beneficial effects on student achievement. "When feedback draws attention to the self, students try to avoid the risks involved in tackling a challenging assignment, they minimize effort, and they have a high fear of failure" (Black and William, 1998 in Hattie, 2009:177). Clearly, the consequences of negative individual feedback would be detrimental and counter to the goal of creating a learning environment where mistakes are welcomed. Another example of feedback from Stephen occurred at the end of the day (see Table 8).

Table 8: Examples of lecturer-student whole-class feedback, feed-forward, and feed-up, towards the end of the lesson

Student 4

Feedback: *"What did you guys experience on the boards after we left here?" [reference to the beginning of the workshop project after the in-class demonstrations].
"You had problems with bending?"*

Feed-up: *"Get the feel?" [referring to the project as a whole].
"Understand this is a 'first fix'" [Stephen directs the students' attention to the original wiring diagram and refers them to the earlier teaching goals of 'bending', 'marking' and 'measuring'].*

Feed-forward: *[Do you understand] "how it all comes together as a project?"*

In addition, Stephen asked the students, "Who's trying out any wire-ways at their house?" During this time, he engaged and interacted enthusiastically

with the three or four learners who volunteered examples of their attempts. Stephen commented with humour on the cases where students had wired something 'illegally' or done something incorrect, encouraging them to check with him before attempting unfamiliar tasks. Those students who had correctly applied techniques were affirmed. This was a relaxed time at the end of the day, a space for questions, sharing, talking and laughter.

Two other types of feedback observed throughout the day were firstly, 'questioning', or testing for student recall of previous learning, knowledge of terminology, and understanding of the deeper concepts related to the installation of wire-ways. A second additional type of feedback was 'teacher immediacy', a distinct effect identified by Hattie (2009), in which Stephen was attentive and responsive to students' questions and contributions, and also to instances in the workshop where students were, for example, using hacksaws ineffectively.

One incident occurred which demonstrated that Stephen was a lecturer who could accept feedback, a crucial element of the 'feedback dynamic' that Hattie's (2009) meta-analyses found so effective. While Stephen was drawing a diagram on the board, one of the students pointed out an error he had made. His response was, "All right! I see you guys are awake!" This positive acceptance of correction from the student not only mediated learning, but also showed that in his classroom, Stephen welcomed the acknowledgement of mistakes and created a space in which it was safe to be wrong.

Direct Instruction

Another extremely powerful influence on student achievement was 'Direct Instruction' (Hattie, 2009).

Feedback is not ‘the answer’ to effective teaching and learning; rather it is but one powerful answer. With ... learners at the acquisition (not proficiency) phase, it is better for a teacher to provide elaborations through instruction than to provide feedback on poorly understood concepts (*Ibid.*:177).

Given the complex and contested nature of artisanal knowledge and skills, it is with caution that one would label particular practices relative to stages in student development in VET settings. The discussion on feedback is situated within this caveat. However, the purpose of the study on which this paper reports, was to make an initial attempt to unravel some good practices, in terms of Hattie’s (2009) meta-analyses, with the emphasis remaining on the teacher as the single most powerful agent of change in any type of learning environment. Stephen clearly engaged in the seven major steps implicated in Direct Instruction (*Ibid.*):

1. Stephen clearly possessed and communicated a vision of the learning intentions;
2. Stephen knew and communicated the criteria for success in the performance of the learning task;
3. Stephen built commitment and engagement in the learning task;
4. Stephen used different ways of presenting learning goals including giving information via various media, modelling (or demonstrating), checking for understanding, and practising;
5. Stephen facilitated guided practice: the core component of the workshop section of the observed lesson, and to some extent, the bending practice in the classroom was an example; and
6. Stephen had a distinct ‘closure’ section to his lesson at the

end of the day.

The seventh aspect of Direct Instruction is independent practice (Hattie, 2009). This feature was not strongly evident in the data gathered on Stephen's pedagogic practice, although his queries as to whether the students were using their 'wire-ways' skills at home could be construed as a move toward this aspect.

Mastery learning

Stephen's frequently repeated exhortations to 'practise', and his rationale for this as explained in the interview, reveal aspects of a 'mastery learning' approach operating in his observable teaching. Some of these features are: the assumption that learning outcomes are attainable by all; a co-operative classroom dynamic; frequent and specific feedback by the teacher, and feedback that addresses correcting mistakes in particular. In addition, "the important variable in mastery learning is the time required to reach the levels of attainment [needed]" (Hattie, 2009:170).

In response to the interviewer's questions about striking a balance between making mistakes and having time to practise on one hand, and on the other hand the real-world need to be mindful of time constraints, Stephen responded:

The scenario we have over here is more to gain the practical skill, so it wouldn't be for pushing them. That would come after they'd mastered the practical. So in this case it's not about reaching a time limit. It's more about getting it right.

This statement resonates with the assertion that "learning should be held constant and time should be allowed to vary" (Hattie, 2009:170). The

approach fosters the safe learning environment where mistakes are viewed as opportunities to try again, and not as failures.

Lecturer-student relations

Perhaps the most striking aspect of Stephen as a successful TVET College lecturer was his ability to relate to his students. One of his students commented that Stephen was the best teacher he had ever had. In Hattie's (2009:118) ranking of influences on student achievement, teacher-student relationships ranked 11th in the 134 effects measured. This finding was derived from one meta-analysis of 229 studies:

Building relations with students implies agency, efficacy, [and] respect by the teacher for what the child [youth] brings to the class (from home, culture, peers), and allowing the experiences of the child [youth] to be recognized in the classroom. Further, developing relationships requires skill by the teacher – such as the skills of listening, empathy, caring and having positive regard for others (Hattie, 2009:118).

Throughout the observation of Stephen's lesson, both in the classroom and especially in the workshop, it was clear that Stephen was skilled in building positive relationships with his students, demonstrating many of the variables implicated in how this is achieved (Hattie, 2009:119). In the follow-up interview, and in the researcher's discussions with his superior, this feature emerged as a defining characteristic of Stephen's teaching approach that extended beyond the classroom to the everyday worlds of the students. For example, one student, Eric¹³, was having difficulties in his relationship with his girlfriend. In the one-on-one interview with Stephen, his

13 Not the student's real name.

rationale for regularly enquiring about Eric was explained thus:

I said to him, 'Eric, come here. How you doing?' ... he looked at me and said ... 'It's not surprising you asked.' I said, 'What do you mean?' He says, 'It shows you got a interest.' So I said, 'But of course, I mean, you sit here, and if you don't look good to me, you not gonna perform well and it's gonna affect everybody else here' ... So I take it that getting personally involved with them helps me in many ways ... It helps with the discipline in the classroom; it helps me – it helps them to understand me.

The course that Stephen was teaching had as its express purpose effecting a dramatic change in the educational opportunities and future prospects of thirteen of South Africa's most vulnerable youth. It was a teaching intervention that resonated with Stephen's strong sense of himself as an agent of change, this being a highly influential attribute a teacher can bring to the learning environment (Hattie, 2009:243). That such interventions always take place in situations of unequal power demands a moral and ethical dimension in the relationships implicated in the teaching-learning dynamic, and in particular, in the teacher's role in developing relationships:

We should remind ourselves that education is essentially a moral enterprise and in that enterprise the ethical teacher has a central role to play (Snook, 2003:8 in Hattie, 2009:255).

Stephen's perceptions of himself as a relationship-builder, a carer, a pastor, a counsellor, and an agent of change were clearly inextricably linked to his identity, a central tenet of which was his faith and a belief in his responsibility to "make a difference". It seemed that, for this lecturer, the moral and ethical dimensions of his personal belief system had been carried over into his teaching and had a direct bearing on his teacher-student relationships.

Peer tutoring

Stephen implemented a strategy which ranked 36th in Hattie's 134 effects on learner achievement. Although qualified by an acknowledgement of the need for further research in this area, Hattie's (2009) meta-analyses pointed to the fact that "peer tutoring has many academic and social benefits for both those tutoring and those being tutored" (Cook, Scruggs, Mastropieri, and Casto, 1985 in Hattie, 2009:187). This strategy appeared to be particularly helpful in the context of the practical workshop sessions where peer tutoring was observed to create the situation whereby the students received much more individual support than was possible when the teacher tried to provide these inputs on his own.

Classroom cohesion and classroom management

Classroom management and classroom cohesion scored relatively highly in Hattie's (2009) meta-analyses of factors affecting student achievement. Hattie (*Ibid.*:128) notes the need to develop an orderly, regulated "warm socio-emotional climate" within the classroom where respect for all is evident. Most importantly, the classroom should be a place where learners feel safe to make mistakes, these being welcomed as opportunities for developing learning: "We need classes that develop the courage to err" (*Ibid.*:178). It is how these elements combine that determine whether the teacher is successful at achieving the type of climate needed.

The data suggest that Stephen was intuitively highly skilled at maintaining an orderly, structured learning environment where co-operation towards attaining shared learning objectives was evident. His commitment to caring for each individual in his classroom, and his passion to help them to transform their lives through education, seem to have succeeded in creating a conducive learning environment. Stephen's skill in building

relationships with and among his students set him apart as an ‘expert teacher’ (Hattie, 2009).

Identifying essential representations of ‘Installing Wire-ways’

An important aspect for consideration is the integration of strategies that distinguishes experienced and expert teachers respectively. Expert teachers possess “deep representations about teaching and learning” (Hattie, 2003:6). They are able to integrate their specialised knowledge with other types of knowledge and experience, and use this skill to be highly responsive to students. They are able to focus on information that is instructionally significant, have a problem-solving approach to their interactions, and seek and use feedback to improve their teaching. Effective teachers are flexible. Expert teachers adapt the timing, sequencing and pacing of their lessons in response to students’ performance and questions: they manage to sustain a balance between content-centered and student-centered instruction while ensuring that lessons stay on target and teaching goals are achieved.

Stephen demonstrated the ability to teach all three parts of artisanal knowledge – the theory, the practical skills, and the learning appropriate for, and needed in, the workplace (although the latter component could only be effected through simulation and through accounts based on his own industry experience).

The ‘Installing Wire-ways’ module was not theoretically dense, but it contained theoretical components which required subsequent application. The first of these was identified in the unit standards and objectives as set out in the SAQA document on the module. Stephen’s rationale for starting this new section of work by going through the SAQA document was, “[so

that the students could] have an understanding of where we are going ... it's always easier if they know the end result when we start, so they know what to work towards as we go along ... it sort of develops a vision for them". In the lesson, each student had their file in front of them and Stephen explained the relevant unit standards. Part of his goal in this exercise was for the students to understand the process of accreditation.

The next section of the lesson involved a video-recorded explanation of how to bend an electrical conduit. This particular representation of a practical skill was valued by Stephen: "there's a visual explanation on what is expected of them, so already there's a bonus to them when they see it happening in front of them". He recognised that the video "explains this in ... practical terms to them". He followed the video by himself demonstrating how to bend conduit, and reinforced the skill by selecting some students to practise in front of the class. Thus, the students had three consecutive representations of a core elementary electrical skill. Furthermore, Stephen emphasised constantly the need to practise the skills being taught. He also recognised the need for the students to develop their "own style and [your] own practice that will give you pace." In summary, the identification of the 'big picture' vision of what his students had to master; multiple visual representations of a particular skill; practice, and time to fashion their own unique ways of working, with guidance and support, seemed to suggest that Stephen possessed the attributes of an expert teacher.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This paper was intended to be an exemplar of the kind of research that could inform improvements in the quality of learning and teaching in TVET Colleges, and in the training of College lecturers. Hattie (2009) argued that current models of initial teacher training make little difference to the effects on learning, and that:

Teacher education might be more successful if it placed more emphasis on learning and teaching strategies; on developing teachers' conceptions of teaching as an evidence-based profession; creating an appraisal system that involves a high level of trust and dependence on observed or videotaped reflection/evaluation of practice, and providing beginning teachers with a range of different teaching methods to use when current ones do not work (Hattie, 2009:127).

The analysis of one teaching sequence by one lecturer is a small contribution to developing the descriptions and analyses that create the space for vocational teachers, be they in training or already experienced. It is intended that the analysis will assist in beginning conversations around what constitutes effective practice and what makes a difference to learning and teaching in vocational context.

Stephen was clearly a committed teacher, and if his colleagues' and students' testimonies and results are a proxy for measuring effectiveness, he appeared to be highly competent. The analysis presented in this paper suggests that Stephen was implementing a number of practices, deliberately or intuitively, that were found by Hattie (2009) to make a significant difference in student achievement in other contexts.

A critical further dimension of Hattie's (2009) meta-analyses was the emergence of the distinction between experienced and expert teachers. Sixteen attributes across five major categories distinguished these two levels of teaching, with expert teachers having the most profound effects on student achievement. The five attribute categories of expert teachers (Hattie, 2009) are that these teachers can:

1. identify essential representations of their subjects;

2. guide learning through classroom interactions;
3. monitor learning and provide feedback;
4. attend to affective attributes; and
5. influence student outcomes.

It was clear that the strategies Stephen was using aligned with Hattie's (2009) characteristics for 'expert teaching'. Further research involving observation of a greater number of TVET College lecturers would serve to deepen this discussion. However, what would also be crucial in taking this work forward would be to move beyond the identification of discrete strategies or interventions, to understanding what it is that holds these actions together in creative tension – the craft of teaching – as well as understanding whether there are strategies that are specific to a particular subject or knowledge area, or to a particular group of learners. In this way the research would move beyond individual strategies to making sense of vocational pedagogy more generally, and to the 'signature pedagogies' (Shulman, 1990) associated with particular knowledge domains.

REFERENCES

- Bernstein, B. 1990. *Pedagogy, symbolic control, and identity*. London: Taylor and Francis.
- Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). 2011. National Skills Development Strategy III. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). 2013. White Paper for Post-School Education and Training. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- Eisner, E.W. 1991. *The enlightened eye: qualitative inquiry and the enhancement of educational practice*. New York: MacMillan.

Hattie, J.A.C. 2003. Teachers make a difference: what is the research evidence? Keynote presentation at the Building Teacher Quality Conference, ACER Annual Conference, Melbourne, Australia.

Hattie, J.A.C. 2009. *Visible learning: a synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses related to achievement*. Oxford and New York: Routledge.

Hattie, J.A.C. 2011. *Visible learning for teachers: maximizing impact on learning*. London and New York: Routledge.

McGrath, S., Needham, S., Papier, J. and Wedekind, V. 2010. *Employability in the College sector: a comparative study of England and South Africa*. Manchester: British Council.

National Planning Commission (NPC). 2011. Diagnostic Report. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Papier, J. 2009. Development for vocational and occupational trainers and educators. Presentation at a 2009 National Symposium on Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET), South Africa. Accessed at www.uwc.ac.za/.../College_Lecturer_Qualifications_Symposium_Report.pdf, October 2010.

Papier, J. 2011. Vocational teacher identity: spanning the divide between the academy and the workplace. *Southern African Review of Education*, 17:101-119.

Shulman, L. 2005. Signature pedagogies in the professions. *Daedalus*, 134:3:52-59.

Wedekind, V. 2008. Report: Research on Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa. Unpublished report to the British Council.

Wedekind, V. 2010. Chaos or coherence? Further Education and Training (FET) College governance in post-*apartheid* South Africa. *Comparative and International Education*, 5:3:302-315.

Winch, C. 2010. Vocational education, knowing how and intelligence

concepts. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 44:4:551-567.

Young, M. 2006. Further Education and Training (FET) College teachers: a knowledge-based profession of the future. *Perspectives in Education*, 24:3:153-160.

TVET College lecturers: biography, knowledge, pedagogy – a summary of the key findings of the SAQA-UKZN Partnership Research, and associated policy implications

Volker Wedekind

INTRODUCTION

This paper summarises the key findings from the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)-University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) Partnership Research into Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) College lecturers' biographies and their classroom practices, and associated policy recommendations. The project included a survey of around 2000 College lecturers in the KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng and Eastern Cape¹⁴ provinces. A number of sub-projects explored in more qualitative detail the lives/careers of selected lecturers, as well as analyses of their teaching in classrooms. The findings and policy recommendations are grouped into four sub-sections, namely (1) lecturers; (2) curricula and qualifications; (3) resources; and (4) governance and community.

The South African education and training system, like most educational systems globally, comprises myriad overlapping sub-systems that interact with each other. TVET College lecturers are both actors in, and constituted by, the various figurations (Elias, 1978) or assemblages (De Landa, 2006) that comprise the system.

¹⁴ The survey for the Eastern Cape was conducted in partnership with the Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation (ECCSEC).

In order to develop deep understanding of the South African system, it was necessary at the outset of the research to describe some of its key features as they had developed historically (see Paper 1 in this volume). One of the key points emphasised, was that all aspects of South African society have been shaped by the colonial and *apartheid* history of the country. TVET was profoundly implicated in the colonial imperatives for social control and the *apartheid* job reservation system (Badroodien, 2004). The TVET institutions inherited by the new democratic state in 1994 had served primarily as the site for theoretical training linked to artisan and other vocational training systems, but were strongly divided along racial lines.

After the recession of the mid-1980s Colleges had become increasingly disconnected from the workplace. The new democratic state sought to reform fundamentally, the TVET system, and reconceptualised the Colleges as vocational schools offering full-time study opportunities for both early school leavers (15-19 year-olds) and out-of-school youth (18-25 year olds). Initially the reforms focused largely on governance, with a strong decentralisation imperative (see Paper 3). The changes included the merging of 150 technical Colleges to form 50 new Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges – known as TVET Colleges from 2013 (MHET, 2013). Transformation also included the establishment of College councils that became the employers of College staff. Later, new curricula were introduced to replace the older apprenticeship-based curricula. With the new curriculum came younger learners, often high school drop outs, who required different affective and pedagogical strategies. No sooner had the new curriculum been introduced than elements of the old curriculum were re-introduced. Similarly, governance reforms have also since been reviewed, and recent legislative changes have removed some of the powers of provinces and have centralized the control of the Colleges under the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) (Akoojee, 2008; Kraak and Hall, 1999).

Colleges remain central in South Africa's development agenda. The third National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS III) (DHET, 2011), the National Planning Commission (NPC) report (NPC, 2011) and various economic development strategies highlight the central role that Colleges must play in addressing skills shortages, youth unemployment, alternatives for learners not suited to secondary schooling, and boosting entrepreneurial activity. The expectations of the system are high, but little is known about the lecturers in the system – those at the coal-face of delivery.

Researching the changes

It is in this context that SAQA partnered with the UKZN School of Education to try to understand how the TVET system was addressing the critical social needs identified.

SAQA understood that what was needed was not a simple technical report mapping out the terrain, but a deeper analysis of the system, and a general expansion of the research capacity to do this work on an ongoing basis. In partnering with a university-based team, it was possible to support research that was not immediately policy oriented, but that would ultimately be able to support policy development, and also support the development of capacity through the students that would be involved in the project. SAQA understood that this work could not be achieved in the usual short-term project timeframe, and committed to a three-year initiative.

The central concern that the overall project sought to address was to understand how new qualifications and curricula impact on and are in turn impacted upon, by the people that are the delivery 'vehicle' for the new curriculum in TVET Colleges. The intention of the project was to deepen the understanding of the College lecturers and their work through a number of interconnected questions:

1. What are the biographical profiles of College lecturers?
2. How do these profiles constrain and/or enable the lecturers in their teaching of their subjects?
3. What are the pedagogies that these lecturers use in order to teach their subjects?
4. How do these profiles and pedagogies align or misalign with the assumptions about what lecturers know, that are implicit in the curriculum?

The intention of the initiating research proposal was to create a broad generative framework within which a number of related sub-projects could operate. Later sub-projects in the cycle emerged on the basis of the earlier research, partly as a consequence of the emerging data, partly as a consequence of the shifting TVET terrain, and partly due to the project incorporating students and their specific research interests.

In the initial proposal the broad methodological framework drew on an approach to biographical research developed by Wedekind (2002) in his doctoral thesis on teachers' lives and careers. This approach in turn drew on the theories of Elias (1978) to understand the connections between individual 'agents' and the social figurations that they are constituted by and in turn constitute. The intention was to avoid stories of individual 'heroes or villains', and to locate the individual accounts within a broader set of overlapping networks. As the project evolved, this theoretical framework developed through the involvement of linked sub-projects which drew on systems theory, and the ideas of assemblages (De Landa, 2006) and communities of practice (Wenger, 1998).

Two broad methodological strands were adopted in the research. Firstly, a large scale survey was conducted to provide a base from which the

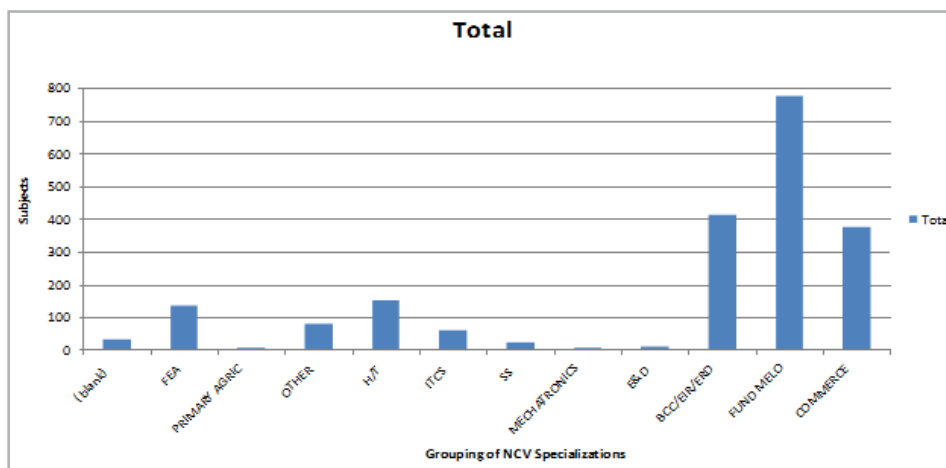
second component, the qualitative case studies, could interrogate the emerging issues in fine-grained detail. The cases focused on different disciplines (Hospitality Studies, Engineering, Business Studies and Agriculture), and have focused variously on the impact of policy change, on the demands of the new TVET qualifications, and the communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) that shaped the identities of the lecturers.

FINDINGS REGARDING TVET COLLEGE LECTURERS

The overall picture emerging from the research is one of significant complexity. Popular perceptions and some studies of College lecturers present a number of stereotypes of lecturers. The danger with stereotypes is that potentially all Colleges and all College lecturers are tarred with the same brush. Frequently-circulated ideas include that College lecturers are disillusioned and demotivated; there is an exodus of skilled personnel from Colleges; lecturers have insufficient educational backgrounds/training and/or work-based experience; or that lecturers are recent graduates from the Colleges. Each of these stereotypes holds true to a degree: both the quantitative and qualitative data confirm these perceptions to an extent. However: these stereotypes do not make up the sum total of the picture. The research suggests that the following are significant sub-sets of College lecturers.

1. Former Technical College staff (generally with trade qualifications and work experience, albeit quite dated in most cases).
2. Qualified school teachers (usually with no other workplace experience).
3. Recent graduates from the Colleges or Universities of Technology (usually with an N6 qualification).
4. Recruits from industry.

The age profile of College lecturers was found to be quite skewed: the majority of the lecturers were in the 24-35 age-group. This profile means that there is not an immediate risk in terms of large numbers of lecturers retiring soon. However, when looking at the age profile in terms of the different sub-sets of lecturers identified, most of the older lecturers fell into Categories 1 and 4, while the newer recruits fell into Categories 2 and 3. There is thus some risk associated with the loss of the technical and vocational expertise in the Colleges.



Key:

FEA=Finance, Economics and Accounting; H/T=Hospitality and Tourism; ITCS=Information Technology and Computer Science; SS=Safety in Society; E&D=Education and Development; BCC/EIR/ERD= Building and Civil Construction, Electrical Infrastructure Construction, and Engineering and Related Design; FUND.MELO=Fundamental Subjects (Mathematics, Mathematical-Literacy, English and Life Orientation)

Figure 19: Numbers of lecturers teaching particular NCV specializations

A sizeable part of the new recruits into Colleges were teaching the fundamental subjects in the National Certificate: Vocational (NCV) curriculum. These subjects were effectively in general fields such as Life Orientation and Communication, and not specific to any specialised occupational stream.

Figure 19 shows the specializations that the sampled lecturers were teaching in NCV programmes. The single largest grouping of subjects taught was the fundamental cluster of subjects. This was not surprising given that these subjects are compulsory in all programmes; it does partly explain however, why so many of the newer recruits to Colleges are teachers without industry experience.

In terms of industry experience, Figure 20 outlines the extent to which College lecturers were found to have industry experience.

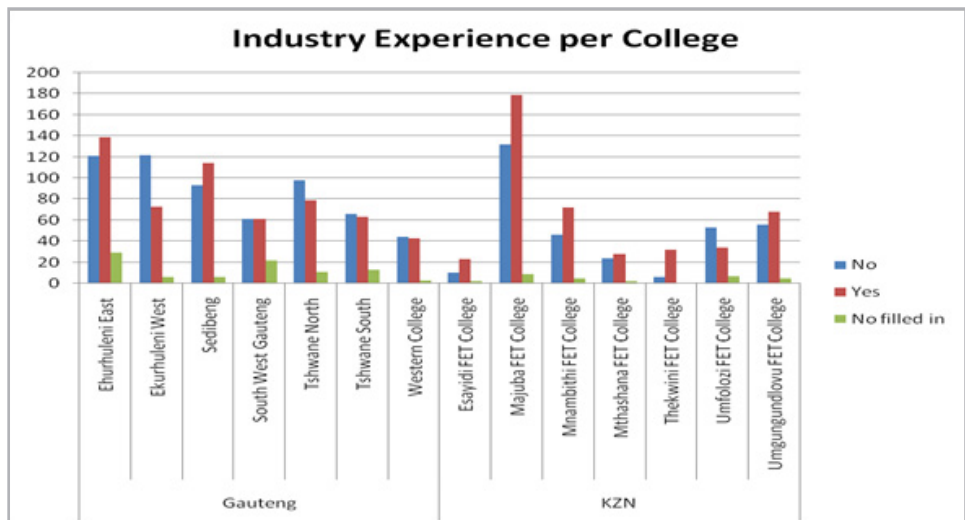


Figure 20: Numbers of lecturers with industry experience

It has been argued elsewhere (McGrath *et al* 2010, McGrath and Wedekind, 2010) that the employability of College graduates is greatly enhanced by lecturers' ability to connect their teaching to the workplace. The NCV curriculum introduced in South African TVET Colleges is premised on a 60:40 practical:theory split. However, with around half the lecturers having no relevant industry experience, the connection to the world of work could be questioned.

When looking at the combination of qualifications that lecturers were found to have, the pattern that emerged was that only 5% of lecturers possessed the combination of academic qualifications, educational qualifications and workplace experience. There were many well-qualified lecturers, but very few who were qualified in the combination that the gazetted Vocational Teacher Qualifications Framework requires.

On the non-formal side or non-qualification side, many of the College lecturers had done various training programmes in the past 10 years, mainly those offered by private providers including:

- assessor, moderator, facilitator training;
- Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) orientation;
- NCV orientation;
- training in systems or management; and
- other short courses.

Qualitative responses in the interviews conducted were universally critical of much of the training offered by the then-Department of Education that was specifically linked to preparing to teach the NCV.

The survey data indicated that only 10% of the lecturers had the combination of relevant disciplinary qualifications, education qualifications and industry experience. This highlights a critical need for professional development. Yet the issues were much more complex than formal qualifications. The life history interviews revealed significant ambivalence amongst lecturers in terms of their identities as artisans or professionals versus their identities as teachers. In many instances the lecturers did not view themselves as teachers. Programmes that address the issue of educational qualifications will need to take cognizance of the competing identities of the lecturers, and

to accommodate these dynamics.

In contrast to the lecturers that had been recruited from industry, a growing proportion of lecturers had been recruited directly out of university or Colleges. These lecturers had no strong work-based identity or community of practice and the development they require will need to address the educational dimensions as well as fostering a sense of connection to the relevant work sector. And the provision of new lecturers will require new qualifications that address the theoretical, practical and educational knowledge mix for those without any prior experience.

A further issue raised by many lecturers was the increasing casualisation of the labour force. There was great concern expressed in interviews that staff who had left had not been replaced, that most staff were on fixed-term contracts, and that there had been a mass exodus of staff who had remained employed with the DoE rather than transferring to the employ of the College Councils. This picture was not borne out entirely in the survey data. For example, in the Eastern Cape (see Figure 21), almost 80% of respondents indicated that they were permanent staff members. Dimba (2012) found in his small survey that more than half of the sampled lecturers were in fact still on the provincial payroll despite the fact that Colleges were supposed to take on the employment of all of their staff. The migration process that has transferred the bulk of the posts to the DHET should have stabilised this picture to a degree, but funding constraints and external income may perpetuate the need for a casualised labour force.

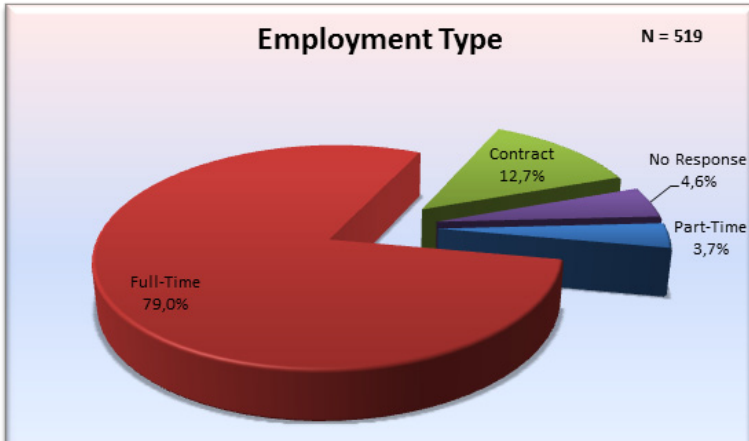


Figure 21: Eastern Cape College lecturers by employment category

POLICY IMPLICATIONS OF THE LECTURER-RELATED FINDINGS

There were three main policy implications of the findings on the College lecturers. Firstly, any policy related to the College sector should take cognizance of the diversity of the teaching staff. A one-size fits all approach would neither be helpful nor workable. Not all lecturers require teaching qualifications, and not all lecturers need access to industry. The nature of the aspects required for current lecturers is quite wide-ranging and needs to be developed progressively.

Secondly, there is an urgent need to bring stability to the sector in regard to employment status. The shift from provincial to College employer, and the recent shift to the DHET as employer has created perceptions that the sector is insecure and unstable. This may have had an adverse impact on the retention of staff and recruitment of appropriate new staff.

Thirdly, once there is stabilisation, there needs to be an active recruitment strategy that targets appropriate expertise in industry, but also recruits students into a few flagship programmes to train vocational teachers from scratch. This will require the setting up of two or three nationally supported centres for teacher education, building on the very limited capacity that already exists at a few universities.

REGARDING CURRICULUM AND QUALIFICATIONS

There has been much debate about the nature of the curriculum changes implemented in the TVET Colleges. In particular, the introduction of the National Certificate: Vocational (NCV) and the initial phasing out of the National Technical Education (NATED) curriculum were widely criticized. Some of the decisions related to curriculum have been reversed and the NCV programme is under review. While the study on which this paper is based was not focused directly on curriculum, the issue of curriculum was connected to the foci of the research closely: to pedagogy on one hand, and to the identity of the lecturers who taught the subjects on the other.

One of the striking features that emerged from the life stories of the lecturers was their strong sense of being alienated from the reform processes. For example, the new NCV curriculum was introduced at short notice and with very little lecturer support.

The life histories revealed the frustrations of the lecturers in dealing with the new curricula, the new complex assessment systems, bureaucratic managers, multi-cultural classrooms, students not interested in the fields in which they were studying, and failure by the authorities to provide clear direction and training.

The research revealed a complex picture. While the majority of lecturers

interviewed and surveyed commented negatively about the NCV, a closer analysis revealed a range of issues. Many of the complaints about the new curriculum were related to the new types of learners who were studying the curriculum, rather than being about the curriculum design or demands. The issues raised included concerns about the age and College-readiness of the students and associated matters of behavioural discipline, as well as the low levels of motivation shown by the students towards their subjects. Where older post-matric students were enrolled, there was concern about the fact that they were 'repeating' levels of study, particularly in relation to the fundamentals which should have been covered at school.

There was a general, but not universal, preference expressed for the retention of the NATED programme. The official re-introduction of this curriculum, which many Colleges had retained, was welcomed. However, the fact that the NATED programme was dated and designed as part of an apprenticeship (and thus has no practical component) was found to pose other challenges.

A key issue that was poorly understood throughout the system was that the two qualifications were designed with different purposes and learners in mind. Both qualifications have value in terms of their own logic. The NCV was designed as a general vocational qualification as an alternative to academic schooling. It was not intended to serve as the theory component of an apprenticeship. The NATED curriculum assumed that the students were gaining other knowledge in the workplace. Neither of these programmes served these narrow purposes and consequently there is often a mismatch between learner expectations and the programmes for which they enroll.

The survey data revealed that just less than 50% of the lecturers in the study had any industry experience, yet the curriculum of the NCV requires 60% practical work. From the biographical interviews it became clear that the lecturers were often ignoring the practical dimensions of the curriculum,

and just teaching the theory. In order to understand what was actually happening in classrooms it was necessary to observe practitioners. The video analysis and debriefing interviews with lecturers revealed both excellent practice (that may form the basis for training other practitioners), and practices that were far from ideal. The lecturers' own backgrounds and training were clearly partly what shaped the teaching practices observed, with many teaching outside their fields of expertise. There were also a range of intervening factors such as high levels of absenteeism and lack of motivation amongst students, poor resources, and lack of support from management, which all clearly impacted on classroom pedagogy.

Concerns are raised about the levels of resources required to deliver the curriculum as envisaged in the policy. These issues are discussed below in a separate section of the paper. The research also revealed that there is indeed a substantial reservoir of teaching expertise that needs to be tapped as part of the upgrading and capacitating of College lecturers. The most likely resource base for knowledge on how to teach vocational subjects lies within the Colleges, rather than in universities.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS OF THE CURRICULUM-RELATED FINDINGS

Any review of qualifications or introduction of new qualifications needs to take account of the programme's intended design and purpose. With the current revitalization of apprenticeships, it may be most appropriate to revamp the NATED programme. However, this does not mean that the NCV does not fill a potentially useful purpose. The issue is whether the TVET Colleges (or all Colleges) are the most appropriate delivery sites.

An issue worth considering is whether an NCV is not better suited to vocational and technical high schools (and some College campuses which

may be better designated as such), and specifically targeting school-age learners. A variation of the NCV, with credit for fundamentals already achieved in the National Senior Certificate (NSC), could be offered as a flexible part-time post-school qualification by Colleges alongside occupational and skills programmes, and a revamped NATED programme for the post-schooling sector.

REGARDING RESOURCES

The issue of resources for the TVET College lecturers – physical, human and time-related – was a major cross-cutting theme that emerged specifically from the qualitative aspects of the research. The overarching perception was that resources have not been adequately targeted to the priorities of the teaching and learning endeavour and that the whole issue of resourcing was not taken into account when the policy was developed. College lecturers all pointed to the expenditure on central offices as opposed to on teaching facilities as evidence of this view. Part of the difficulty was that the re-capitalisation process preceded the introduction of the new curricula, and that many Colleges did not have a clear set of priorities for capital investment.

The critical problem most Colleges face relates to there being inadequate practical facilities. This situation was heightened by the doubling up of the use of the facilities for both the NATED and NCV programmes (as well as for certain skills programmes). A consequence seems to be that insufficient time is spent on the practical aspects of the curriculum. This is a serious issue given that it is precisely the practical components of the curriculum that are critical for its credibility and success.

However, the issue of time is a broader one, specifically in relation to the NCV, where lecturers spoke of the demands of the curriculum and the

poor levels of general academic skills that most learners had. These realities made it impossible to allocate the required 60% of the teaching time to practical components and thus the NCV is not being implemented as intended.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESOURCE-RELATED FINDINGS

If the intentions expressed in various policies such as NSDS III are to be realised, there needs to be a plan for a major injection of resources, both in terms of infrastructure and staffing, into the TVET College sector. In addition, given the poor level of general literacy and numeracy and the support students require to learn effectively, Colleges need infrastructure for academic and student support, and for student wellness. Consequently, a significant new round of carefully thought-through re-capitalisation is required.

ON GOVERNANCE AND COMMUNITY

The research did not focus directly on governance, but issues clearly emerged, where there were changes in governance, poor governance and where the potential of governance structures to enhance the Colleges' connections to their communities had not been realised. The central concern is the lack of consultation and involvement in the reform processes. This responsibility does not lie so much with the College councils, but rather with the provincial and national authorities. The changes have, as has already been highlighted, created a sense of confusion and insecurity, and there is a low level of trust in College councils. This does not provide a good basis on which to build the sector. The critical role that the councils can play in assisting the Colleges to connect with local industry and business is also

poorly developed.

In that regard, the Colleges need to build closer relationships with the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) to make the connections between the businesses that SETAs are working with on one hand, and on the other hand the Colleges that should be providing the training and supplying the skilled workers for the businesses.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS REGARDING GOVERNANCE AND COMMUNITY

A review of the roles of the College councils within the new framework for TVET Colleges is required. Councils should be conceptualised primarily in terms of their connections to local communities.

CONCLUSIONS

Making sense of the complex and overlapping dynamics at play when various components or assemblages (De Landa, 2006) with their own internal logics collectively constitute the system, requires a methodology that takes into account the workings of these parts, at individual and collective levels. For instance, attempts to understand the apparent shortcomings of a policy process such as the introduction of the new TVET curriculum in South Africa, demands examination of the components at the level of the policy process, at the level of the specific Colleges, and at the level of lecturers in terms of their professional identities (as lecturers, or as professionals with particular work identities). What is required are data that focus on the internal workings of each component, and also on how different components are connected, so that the role that each aspect plays

in the wider system can be understood.

The way in which the eight TVET-related papers in this volume have moved between analysis of individual lecturers' life-histories, historical understandings of lecturer formation, national and global policy processes, and classroom practices has allowed for a much richer understanding of the complexity of the processes than would have been the case if these components had been considered in isolation. There is a need to go beyond surface-level evaluations and policy analyses that view society as a machine which can be manipulated by pulling specific policy levers. The imperative is not to try to eliminate contradictions in policy design and implementation (Emad and Roth, 2009) but rather to recognize the centrality of these contradictions in all social systems and to design policy with addressing the contradictions in mind.

Perhaps most revealing were the unintended consequences of the TVET policies. One example was the decision to transfer the staff from the provincial payrolls to the employ of the College councils. The argument for proposing this transfer was that it had potential to give the Colleges the flexibility to manage their own staff in a way that was not constrained by the conditions of service of province-paid educators. By allowing the Colleges to manage their staffing directly, it was anticipated that more flexible offerings would be possible. Clearly it is possible to critique these policies for their neo-liberal focus on decentralized and casualised economies. However, at the level of the Colleges this policy had a completely different effect: it precipitated a significant loss of experienced personnel. The main reason for the exodus appeared to be that many lecturers did not believe that the Colleges would be able to manage their budgets, and accordingly opted to retain any position in the provincial education department that was available rather than to stay at the Colleges. Thus, while the intention may have been to improve College responsiveness, the consequence was in

fact a reduction in the capacity of the entire system.

This example highlights the complexity of the system under discussion. Policy processes are not linear, and cannot be analysed purely in terms of conventional notions of 'poor policy' or 'poor implementation' when their implementation has short-comings. In the example, the outcomes could perhaps have been anticipated, but even with the best scenario-planning there is no guarantee that there will not be unforeseen consequences. Understanding the perspectives and concerns of the College lecturers in some detail does offer the possibility for interventions that are driven by a different type of evidence than quantitative data on its own.

What emerges from this collection of papers is a better understanding of the central role of the College lecturers in coding and decoding the assemblages which make up the policy context and implementation. Lecturers need to be able to mediate between the codes of the workplace, the College, the national policy, their colleagues and their diverse students. The South African experience reported in the eight TVET papers is that all too often the lecturers in the TVET Colleges do not have the necessary resources to perform this role effectively, and thus the achievement of the policy goals are threatened. Greater ongoing professional support for College lecturers and new training programmes are required if the TVET system in South Africa is to perform the roles expected of it by the South African state.

This paper highlights only the most salient findings and the policy implications that might flow out of the research. It is not comprehensive; each of the eight papers has investigated specific aspects of the TVET curriculum, or has tried to understand classroom practices, and each has its own specific set of findings and implications. At its broadest level the research has shown the complexity and contradictions that underlie the TVET College system and it is argued that within this system the least

understood, yet most critical component must be the College lecturer. The papers have tried to open up this focus and show some of the ways in which lecturers mediate between the codes of the workplace, the College, the national policy, their colleagues and their students. In addition, the lecturers' perspectives on the system raise issues that have wider implications, and the policy considerations discussed are an attempt to highlight these.

REFERENCES

Akoojee, S. 2008. Further Education and Training (FET) College lecturers: the devolving link in the South African skills development equation. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 60:3:297-313.

Badroodien, A. 2004. Technical and Vocational Education provision in South Africa, from 1920 to 1970. In S. McGrath, A. Badroodien, A. Kraak and L. Unwin (Eds.), *Shifting understanding of skills in South Africa – overcoming the historical imprint of a low skills regime*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press: 20-45.

De Landa, M. 2006. *A new philosophy of society: Assemblage Theory and Social Complexity*. New York: Continuum.

Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). 2011. National Skills Development Strategy III (NSDS III). Pretoria: Government Printer.

Dimba, N. 2012. Investigating the organizational culture impacting on lecturers in KwaZulu-Natal Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges. Unpublished master's dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Elias, N. 1978. *What is Sociology?* New York: Columbia University Press.

Emad, G. and Roth, W.M. 2009. Policy as boundary object: a new way

to look at educational policy design and implementation. *Vocations and Learning*, 2:19-35.

Kraak, A. and Hall, G. 1999. *Transforming Further Education and Training (FET) in South Africa: a case study of Technical Colleges in KwaZulu-Natal*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.

McGrath, S. and Wedekind, V. 2010. Employability and Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges: comparisons between South Africa and the United Kingdom. Paper presented at the MerSETA conference 'FET Colleges, Industry and Employability: Emerging perspectives', Johannesburg, March 2010.

McGrath, S., Needham, S., Papier, P. and Wedekind, V. 2010. Reworking employability: reflections from the English and South African public Further Education (and Training) College sectors. Paper presented at the World Congress of Comparative Education Societies, Istanbul, June 2010.

Minister of Higher Education and Training (MHET). 2013. White Paper for Post-School Education and Training. Pretoria: Government Printer.

National Planning Commission (NPC). 2011. Development Indicators. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Shulman, L. 2005. Signature Pedagogies in the professions. *Daedalus*, 134:3:52-59.

Wedekind, V. 2002. A figurational analysis of the lives and careers of some South African teachers. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Manchester, England.

Wedekind, V. 2008. Unpublished report on the research on Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges in South Africa. Pietermaritzburg: University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Wedekind, V. 2010a. Chaos or coherence? Further Education and Training

College governance in post-*apartheid* South Africa. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 5:3:302-315.

Wedekind, V. 2010b. Further Education and Training (FET) College educators: biography, knowledge, pedagogy. South African Qualifications Authority-University of KwaZulu-Natal (SAQA-UKZN) Partnership Research Progress Report 5. Pretoria: SAQA.

Wenger, E. 1998. *Communities of Practice: learning, meaning, identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Referencing of qualifications frameworks: a new mode of recognition to note¹⁵

James Keevy and Coleen Jaftha

ABSTRACT

Qualifications frameworks have increasingly been developed in various parts of the world over the last two decades since first introduced in countries like Scotland, New Zealand, Australia, France, Ireland, England – and South Africa (McBride and Keevy, 2010; Keevy *et al* 2011). As the phenomenon has become more global, an increasing need has arisen to compare qualifications frameworks with each other.

In the European context two similar methodologies have emerged to make the relationship between National Qualifications Frameworks (NQFs) in Europe and the two Regional Qualifications Frameworks (RQFs) more explicit. In the case of the European Qualifications Framework (EQF), which is limited to the 27 European Union (EU) Member States, a ‘referencing’ methodology has been developed to define the correspondence between the eight levels of the meta-framework (the EQF) and NQFs. In the case of the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area

15 An earlier version of this paper was presented at the NQF Research Conference: Building articulation and integration, 4-6 March 2013, Johannesburg. The paper draws on SAQA comments provided for the two referencing processes: the Malta National Qualifications Framework to the European Qualifications Framework (2006-7) and the New Zealand Qualifications Framework to the Chinese Vocational Qualifications System (2012-13). The conceptual framework for the recognition of qualifications (which is further developed in this paper) draws on the contributions of various colleagues at SAQA (including Zola Zuzani, Francois Burger, Nadina Coetzee, Shirley Lloyd and Heidi Bolton) as well as inputs from further afield: Mike Coles (United Kingdom), Stephen Adam (France), and Karen Chalmers and Alastair Johnstone (New Zealand).

(QF-EHEA), which is a product of the Bologna process that involved 47 countries¹⁶, a 'self-certification' methodology has been developed. In many instances countries with NQFs simultaneously reference to the EQF and self-certify to the QF-EHEA as the two methodologies have many similarities.

Another important point to note is that other countries outside Europe have of their own volition started to participate in both referencing and self-certification processes. The European Commission, in 2014, further endorsed the possibility for 'non-European' countries to participate. There are also examples of peer referencing between NQFs, and even between an NQF and an education and training system where no NQF has been developed. Examples include New Zealand and China, New Zealand and Malaysia, New Zealand and Ireland, and Malaysia and Taiwan. With the increasing development of sectoral qualifications frameworks, it is anticipated that referencing between NQFs and sectoral qualifications frameworks may also increase in future.

In this paper a new approach is explored, which enables the comparison of qualifications frameworks in relation to each other. This new approach is referred to as 'referencing'. The authors draw on existing qualifications framework-related literature to develop a conceptual model for referencing as the broader application of referencing is explored. The potential of the approach for contributing to improved recognition of qualifications across borders in other parts of the world, specifically in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region, is considered.

16 The Bologna Process is a voluntary process designed to reinforce the further development of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) by ensuring comparability in standards and quality of Higher Education in Europe.

INTRODUCTION

Since first introduced in a handful of countries at the end of the 20th century, qualifications frameworks are now found in over 140 countries across the world. The so-called 'first generation' frameworks developed in Scotland, New Zealand, Australia, France, Ireland, England, and in South Africa are all still in place, albeit in new forms. Second- and even third-generation frameworks have subsequently been developed in countries and regions across all continents (Keevy, Deij and Chakroun, 2011).

While this increasingly expansive development of qualifications frameworks shares a common origin, notably the introduction of learning outcomes (see Adam, 2013a; Moll, 2008), and common nomenclature, such as levels and credits, many different forms have evolved (see Raffe, 2005, 2009; Isaacs, 2011; Keevy and Bolton, 2012) to suit the specific context of the country or region in which they are being developed. Due to these arguably necessary variations, the articulation between qualifications frameworks, be it between countries, or between a country and a region, cannot be automatic, nor can it be based solely on technical comparisons of levels and credits.

In this paper a new approach, referred to as 'referencing', is explored. It was developed in the European context for the purposes of comparing National Qualifications Frameworks (NQFs) to overarching frameworks like the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) and the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area (QF-EHEA). As part of this investigation, the authors draw on existing literature to develop a conceptual model to understand the different dimensions of referencing as the implications of this methodology are considered for countries and regions beyond Europe, specifically in Southern Africa.

In the authors' view, referencing represents a critically important juncture in the development of qualifications frameworks over the last two or more decades. As 'new style' (Adam, 2013a) and 'third generation' NQFs develop, many questions are being asked about the future of the frameworks. Have they served their purpose? Is it worthwhile investing in NQFs? What has the impact of NQFs been? For how long will NQFs still be required? What comes after NQFs? The South African NQF is a case in point as noted by Coombe (2012:296):

In all likelihood the NQF will be a fixture on the South African scene for a good fifteen years more, despite its travails, controversies and uncertainties. It has framed so many of South Africa's debates on education and training, contributed so much of the vocabulary and syntax of the South African discourse, influenced so much practice, that it is impossible to imagine what South African education and training would have been like without it.

Referencing, in the attempt to compare qualifications frameworks, provides a lens through which qualifications frameworks can be looked at anew, as there are reflections on the impact that this global phenomenon has had since first introduced. There are caveats: referencing is itself not fully developed, and is clearly Eurocentric in origin. For these reasons this paper is exploratory and dualistic in its purpose. As the methodology of referencing is grappled with, in an attempt to contribute to understanding and its broader applications, the authors also reflect critically on the future of qualifications frameworks in general.

LOCATING REFERENCING WITHIN THE BROADER CONTEXT OF THE RECOGNITION OF QUALIFICATIONS

The recognition of qualifications within and across countries can take place

through a variety of methods. Some of these methods have been practised for many years, notably in the field of credential evaluation. Others, such as referencing, have only emerged more recently as new technologies have become available. In general, recognition can be described as (Keevy, 2010:18):

The formal or legal specifications that a qualification must meet in order to be accepted (recognised) as fulfilling the (transparently) set standards, such as are often defined for the professions. Recognition can be unilateral, mutual or based on regional/trade agreements.

In a recent study on the recognition of South African qualifications in Australia (Jaftha, Zuzani and Burger, 2013) a model was developed based on the complementary inter-relationship between applied recognition methodologies and areas of recognition practice. The research found the original distinction between methodologies and areas of recognition useful, but developed it further into '*modes*' and '*purposes*' of recognition to provide a more nuanced understanding of the terrain. In the authors' view, modes (as ways of doing) provide a more encompassing categorisation than methodologies (as bodies of practices and procedures limited to a specific discipline in each instance). Areas of recognition practice, on the other hand, were difficult to distinguish from the methodologies. Considering the comments from external reviewers on the draft report, the authors opted to focus on the *purposes of recognition*.

With regard to *modes of recognition*, the authors identified a range of modes that are used specifically to recognise qualifications. This range included both longstanding methods, such as multi-lateral agreements and the evaluation of foreign credentials, as well as more recent methodologies, such as the comparison of qualifications frameworks through referencing.

In terms of the *purposes of recognition* three main categories were

identified, including (1) to increase transparency, (2) to prove competence, and (3) for the purposes of 'social recognition'. These modes and purposes are briefly elaborated as this conceptual frame locates referencing in relation to the other ways of recognising qualifications, while also providing some insight into the purposes of recognition.

Modes of recognition

At least four modes exist for the recognition of qualifications. These modes are applied in multiple contexts.

Credential evaluation

The first mode identified was that of *credential evaluation*. According to the Alliance of Credential Evaluation Services of Canada (Council of Ministers of Education Canada, 2009) this mode is typically applied in an environment where fairly large numbers of individuals, such as immigrants or visiting students or workers, need to be integrated in a fairly short space of time. The mode relies on in-house expertise and international references and offers a professional opinion, from a generalist perspective, on the comparability of formal education and training acquired from an institution situated abroad.

Importantly, this mode also has very specific limitations (Jaftha *et al* 2013:9). It is not possible to determine the actual skills or knowledge of the specific applicant based solely on the study of a credential. The qualification document rather gives an indication of the knowledge and competencies associated with the outcomes of the qualification.

Recognition by prior agreement

The second mode comprises *recognition by prior agreement*. This is a more common approach to recognition that manifests in unilateral, multilateral and trade/regional agreements (International Labour Organisation, 2007). The main purpose of recognition by prior agreement is to enable the bi- and multi-lateral movement of skilled workers between countries and/or regions. International conventions are included in this approach, such as the Lisbon Convention in Europe (Council of Europe-United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation [UNESCO], 1997), the revised Arusha Convention in Africa (renamed the Addis Convention) (UNESCO, 1981, 2014) and many others.

An important dimension of the Lisbon Convention is the principle of substantial difference. Substantial difference is applied in relation to the function of a qualification and the purpose for which recognition is sought. Importantly, the burden of proof lies with the competent recognition authority to show that the difference between two qualifications (each from a different country) is substantial (see Hunt *et al* 2009).

Benchmarking

A third mode used for the recognition of qualifications is *benchmarking*. The term 'benchmarking' is derived from the fixed marks placed on workbenches which could enable carpenters or dressmakers to make quick measurements (Jaftha *et al* 2013).

This methodology is associated with a wide range of interpretations and is probably best illustrated with an example from the United Kingdom (Lyons, 2011) where benchmarking has been described as a process which

establishes the level of a given qualification by comparing it with an identified benchmark. The identified benchmark can relate to a specific qualification framework level or to an identified benchmark qualification.

Benchmarking is used together with mapping, which Lyons (2011) describes as the process by which the content of a given qualification can be compared in relation to subject content or standards. Where benchmarking is used to determine the level of a qualification, mapping involves the analysis of qualification content to identify subject knowledge, skills and competencies (Jaftha *et al* 2013). A specific form of benchmarking that has emerged in recent years is 'referencing'. This is a relatively new methodology for the recognition of qualifications and is directly associated with the introduction of qualifications frameworks over the last twenty or more years. Referencing is discussed in greater detail in the next section of this paper.

'Social recognition': recognising qualifications for a variety of social purposes

A fourth, and probably least developed and more implicit mode, is the recognition of qualifications for *social uses*. Drawing on Durkheim and Giddens (1972) and Jorgensen (2008), Isaacs and Keevy (2009) argue that social use as a form of recognition focuses on the extent to which qualifications function as effective discriminators of who is eligible for employment, and for prescribed employment benefits. They argue that in this way, qualifications become the arbiter of the 'social goods' for which a person is eligible. Social use is mostly not an explicit manner through which qualifications are recognised, but it nonetheless plays a critically important role in the life of the qualification holder.

Purposes of recognition

The modes of recognition described above are applied in relation to at least four purposes.

Transparency

One purpose of recognition is to *improve transparency*. This focus has emerged directly as a result of the global move towards the use of learning outcomes (Adam, 2013b; European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training [CEDEFOP], 2009c) which allows for a distinction between different levels of transparency:

Transparency is the degree to which the value of qualifications can be identified and compared in education, training, the workplace and more. It is the degree of explicitness about the meaning of a qualification (outcomes, content, levels, standards, awards). It implies the exchange of information about qualifications in an accessible way within and outside the country of award. When transparency is achieved, it is [potentially] possible to compare the value and content of qualifications at national and international level (Keevy and Jansen 2010:18 drawing on Deane, 2005 and European Commission, 2006).

The greater the transparency with which a qualification is presented, the easier it is to compare one qualification with another, and the more reliable the system of recognition by which a qualification can be accepted by the state, professions or an individual.

Demonstration of competence

A second purpose of the recognition of qualifications is to demonstrate competence. In this case the qualification alone is not accepted as an adequate proxy for the competence of the individual, and he or she is required to demonstrate competence, often through some form of assessment. This form of recognition is closely related to the Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL), except that the individual is already in possession of a qualification. In many instances recognition based on proven competence follows an overly behaviourist approach that relies on direct observation of the performance of skills and tasks (see Moll, 2008).

Facilitating cross-border mobility

A third reason for the recognition of qualifications is to *facilitate cross-border mobility*. This is arguably one of the main purposes of most of the modes of recognition already described: credential evaluation has for many years served this purpose, while bi- and multi-lateral agreements have done the same. More recently, and associated with the development of national and regional outcomes-based qualifications frameworks, new possibilities have emerged to facilitate the recognition of qualifications across borders. Referencing is one such example.

Enabling access

The last purpose identified by the authors was *access to social goods*, such as employment benefits and social status. This purpose is closely associated with the mode of 'social uses' described above, but not exclusively so. Social use is an implicit mode through which qualifications are recognised, but all three other modes (credential evaluation, prior agreement and benchmarking) contribute to the ability of the qualifications holder to gain

access to social goods.

Relating the ideas of ‘mode’ and ‘purpose’

Each of the modes of recognition are employed for specific purposes, in some instances explicitly so, and in others, more implicitly. Table 9 shows the relevance of the different purposes in relation to the four modes of recognition.

Table 9: Recognition of qualifications

Mode of recognition	Improve transparency	Demonstrate competence	Facilitate cross-border mobility	Enable access to social goods
Credential evaluation	*	**	***	*
Prior agreement	*	*	***	*
Benchmarking (including referencing)	***	*	***	*
Social uses	*	*	*	***

Key: * some relevance, ** relevant, *** very relevant

The authors recognise that this model is a work-in-progress, and welcome constructive criticism on its design and merits. The next section focuses specifically on referencing, locating this approach within the broader context of the recognition of qualifications.

REFERENCING AS A NEW APPROACH FOR RECOGNISING QUALIFICATIONS ACROSS BORDERS

It has been noted that the referencing of qualifications frameworks is a new approach to recognition, and that it has been used primarily to establish a correlation between the EQF, the EHEA and NQFs in Europe. Examples include referencing between the EQF and the NQFs of the United Kingdom (Council for the Curriculum Examinations and Assessment, 2009; Hart, 2008); Malta (Malta Qualifications Council, 2010); Ireland (National Qualifications Authority of Ireland, 2009); Portugal (National Qualifications Agency Portugal, 2011); and Denmark (Danish Evaluation Institute, 2011). More recently, referencing has also been tested in other parts of the world, such as between the New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF) and the Chinese Vocational Qualifications System.

Referencing involves a comparison in order to improve the correlation between the two frameworks concerned, in terms of levels, credits and qualification types. Referencing in the EQF context is defined as follows (CEDEFOP, 2011:6):

... a process that results in the establishment of a relationship between the levels of the European meta-framework (EQF) and the national qualifications framework (NQF) or system. Through this process, national authorities responsible for qualifications systems, in co-operation with stakeholders responsible for developing and using qualifications, define the correspondence between the national qualifications system and the eight levels of the EQF.

Fundamental to the referencing process is the principle of mutual trust which consists of both technical reliability and consensus amongst stake-

holders and the way in which that consensus is rooted in custom and practice (*Ibid*). The credibility of the consensus is based on agreement between the role-players in charge of qualifications and certification processes, and also those using the qualifications (including employers and learners) (*Ibid*). It is acknowledged that the information available through the referencing process is only partial as many of the European qualifications systems are currently moving towards a learning outcomes-based approach, which is also the basis for the EQF Level Descriptors.

The referencing of qualifications frameworks represents an important point of development, as it entails the practical application of models that up to the point of referencing may have remained abstract and amorphous. It is here that the strengths and weaknesses of the frameworks become more obvious, it is also here that the development of trust between countries and regions is solidified. It is for this reason that referencing should be understood as being beyond a simple technical exercise of matching levels, credits and qualification types. It is a process wherein different stakeholders are able to participate in a social process that allows for objective and external scrutiny of national systems that in the past may have been closely guarded and protected by each country from such scrutiny (Jaftha *et al* 2013).

Directions of referencing

Building on earlier work by the European Training Foundation (Keevy *et al* 2011), the authors propose that referencing takes place in three directions and on two levels.

- **Upward referencing** or referencing between a qualifications framework with more limited scope, to a qualifications framework with a more comprehensive scope (e.g. sectoral to national, or

national to regional referencing).

- **Peer referencing** comprises referencing between two qualifications frameworks with similar scope (e.g. national to national, or regional to regional referencing).
- **Downward referencing** is referencing between a qualifications framework with more comprehensive scope, to a qualifications framework with a more limited scope (e.g. regional to national, or national to sectoral referencing).

Levels of referencing

- **Primary referencing** is the direct cross-referencing of level descriptors and domains, and in some cases, also the treatment of knowledge and management activities of the two qualifications frameworks concerned.
- **Secondary referencing** is referencing through the mapping of specific qualifications to both frameworks concerned, and in some cases, through cross-referencing with third party frameworks.

Table 10 provides an overview of the dimensions of referencing with illustrative examples based on an expansion of the descriptions already given. It must be remembered that referencing is a particular form of *benchmarking*, the purpose of which is mainly the improvement of transparency and the facilitation of the cross-border recognition of qualifications.

Table 10: Dimensions of referencing

		Direction of referencing		
		Upward	Peer	Downward
Level of referencing	Primary (direct cross-referencing of level descriptors and domains)	Most common form of referencing to date (e.g. NQFs in Europe to the EQF)	New area being explored by some countries (e.g. NZQF and Chinese Vocational Qualifications)	Necessary if the lower level framework preceded the broader framework (e.g. an NQF to a technical and vocational framework)
	Secondary referencing through mapping specific qualifications to both frameworks concerned	Qualifications on NQFs are mapped to one or more regional qualifications frameworks	There are several examples of mapping of specific qualifications between countries; this approach can be used to complement the primary referencing	Typically when a sub-framework is developed following an NQF; or an NQF is developed following a Regional Qualifications Framework

UPWARD REFERENCING IN PRACTICE

As an important mode of recognition, *upward referencing* (see tables 9 and 10) results in qualification certificates, diplomas and other documents which are issued by competent authorities, and which contain a clear reference to the level in an overarching or regional framework. Some research has already been conducted in this area and particularly in relation to the

two European overarching frameworks, the EQF and the EHEA (CEDEFOP, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c).

In Europe the practice of *upward referencing* is at an advanced stage, with some countries having already completed their referencing to the EQF and EHEA (see for example the Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework Partnership, 2009). In this regard, *upward referencing*, with an overarching framework as benchmark, is most common.

Trust, confidence and agreement among stakeholders are prerequisites for the success and acceptance of the *upward referencing* process. A country seeking to participate in the referencing process must verify the compatibility of its NQF with an overarching framework. This means that the national frameworks and associated quality assurance arrangements must meet certain benchmarking criteria and procedures for success of the referencing process.

Figure 22 provides an overview of an *upward referencing* process. In this type of referencing, participating countries agree on the overarching framework. They set referencing (benchmarking) criteria, respond by providing evidence in an endorsed report, publish the report and make visible the reference to the specific level of the overarching framework, for all of the qualifications of the participating country. In order to progress from agreeing on an overarching framework to visibility on qualification documents, pre-set benchmarking criteria are applied.

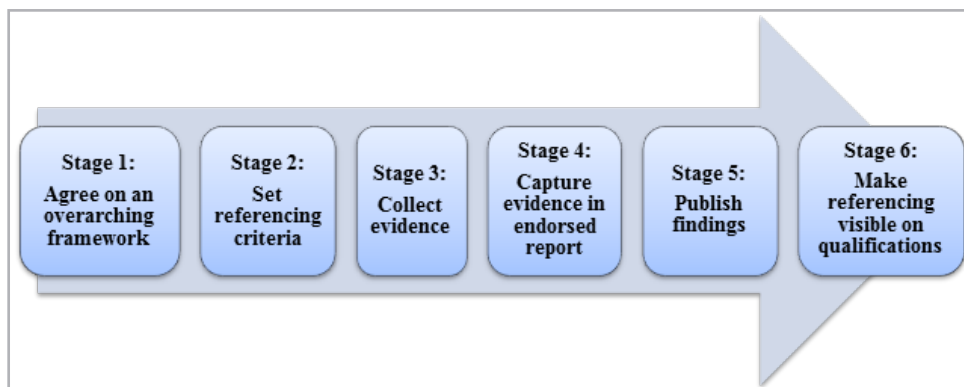


Figure 22: Overview of an *upward* referencing process

Ten referencing criteria were developed by the EQF Advisory Group. These criteria provide guidelines to ensure uniform and comparable referencing processes (European Commission, 2011) which countries could use to benchmark their qualifications frameworks with the EQF. Countries wishing to participate in the referencing process must respond to each criterion and provide evidence in a full report. The EQF referencing criteria are abbreviated to emphasise the generic nature of referencing as follows (*Ibid.*)¹⁷.

Criterion 1: Legal competence – the responsibilities and/or legal competence of all national bodies involved in the referencing process are clearly determined and published by the public authorities concerned.

Criterion 2: Alignment of levels – there is a clearly demonstrable link between the qualifications levels in the NQF and the level descriptors of the overarching framework.

Criterion 3: Learning outcomes, validation of non-formal and informal learning, credit systems – the NQF and its qualifications are based on learning out-

¹⁷ The authors have abbreviated the criteria for the purposes of this paper. In all instances the criteria are applicable to both national qualifications frameworks (NQFs) and qualifications systems. See European Commission (2011:16-24) for the detailed criteria.

comes and linked to arrangements for the validation of non-formal and informal learning and, where these exist, to credit systems.

Criterion 4: Transparency – the procedures for the inclusion of qualifications in the NQF of the country are transparent.

Criterion 5: Consistency of national quality assurance systems – national quality assurance system(s) for education and training refer(s) to the NQF and are consistent with the relevant overarching principles and guidelines.

Criterion 6: Endorsement by quality assurance institutions – stated agreement of the relevant quality assurance bodies is included in the referencing process.

Criterion 7: Review by key players – international experts are involved in the referencing process.

Criterion 8: Endorsement and publication of the referencing report – competent national bodies certify the referencing of the NQF with the overarching framework.

Criterion 9: Maintenance of a referencing report register – the official overarching framework platform provides public listing of member states that have completed the referencing process, including links to completed referencing reports.

Criterion 10: Visibility on certificates, diplomas and degrees – all new qualification certificates, diplomas and Europass documents issued by the competent authorities contain a clear reference to the appropriate overarching framework level.

Benefits of upward referencing

Upward referencing not only offers an opportunity to showcase the strength of a country's qualification policies and procedures, but also allows member states to describe their qualifications systems and make this information available to learners, policy makers, ministries and others. This presentation of transparency encourages trust and public confidence in a country and its qualifications.

In Europe, the EQF portal is the official overarching transparency platform that contains the referencing information of member states. The completed referencing reports available on the EQF portal include the Lithuanian, Estonian, Danish, Latvian, Dutch, Irish, Maltese, and French reports (Aarna, *et al* 2012; Agência Nacional para a Qualificação, 2011; Baiba *et al* 2012; Commission Nationale de la Certification Professionnelle, 2010; Danish Evaluation Institute, 2011; Malta Qualifications Council, 2011; National Qualifications Authority of Ireland, 2009; Qualifications and Vocational Education and Training Development Centre, 2012; Qualifications Frameworks in the United Kingdom, 2010; Van der Sanden *et al* 2012).

These reports provide a platform for governments to communicate with their own country's inhabitants about new qualifications and the potential of existing qualifications.

The upward referencing process increases transparency by making visible the details on qualifications, qualifications frameworks and quality assurance. Information obtained from referencing makes the comparability of qualifications easier, and in turn promotes and facilitates the cross-border mobility of students and workers.

Countries outside Europe are seeing this advantage of linking their qualifications internationally. For example, in the 2011 Caribbean Regional Focal Point Meeting (Commonwealth of Learning, 2011:14) a three-year plan proposed that six states of the Virtual University of the Small States of the Commonwealth (VUSSC) be referenced to the Transnational Qualifications Framework (TQF) by 2015 (Commonwealth of Learning, 2015). In the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the SADC Regional Qualifications Framework (RQF) was approved in 2011 and it was proposed that member states be referenced by 2014 (SADC, 2011, 2011b). As part of the approval of the SADC's RQF, it was deemed necessary to initiate a referencing process. Progress in the SADC context has however been slow, and the referencing has not yet been initiated.

PEER REFERENCING IN PRACTICE

Peer referencing, involving two countries wishing to link their qualifications frameworks, has also had some success. The recognition of Bachelor degrees between the New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF) and the Malaysian Qualifications Framework (New Zealand Qualifications Authority and Malaysian Qualifications Agency, 2010) is an example of how benchmarking can be facilitated through the existence of qualifications frameworks.

In the absence of an overarching framework, participating countries decide on suitable criteria which would advance the referencing of the two systems involved. The countries agree on suitable criteria, a process which usually involves some re-contextualisation of the generic referencing criteria. A good example of this type of referencing is the process between the NZQF and China's vocational qualifications system. Besides having the challenge of translation, these countries experienced particular challenges as New Zealand has an established NQF and China does not. Although not

without its difficulties, this scenario reflects the realities of referencing for the recognition of qualifications. The successes of this type of peer referencing enable cross-border mobility.

Australia provides another useful example of *peer referencing*. Using the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF) as the benchmark, Australia has contextualised the generic referencing criteria in its principles and processes for aligning the AQF with other international qualifications frameworks (AQF Council, 2011). These alignment principles are used to guide the international recognition of qualifications in relation to Australian qualifications (Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, 2012). Mapping studies show that Australia has considerable potential as a referencing partner (Asia-Pacific Economic Co-operation [APEC] Human Resources Development Working Group, 2009; National Qualifications Authority of Ireland, 2010; European Commission and Australian Department of Education, 2011). Jaftha *et al* (2013) demonstrated that the policies underlying the Australian qualification standards are in alignment with those in South Africa.

DOWNWARD REFERENCING IN PRACTICE

The South African NQF has been in place since 1995. As one of the 'first generation' frameworks, it has evolved over the years to its current form. It comprises three Sub-Frameworks: the General and Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub-Framework (GFETQSF), the Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework (HEQSF), and the Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework (OQSF) – coordinated by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). This structuring opens the way for *downward referencing*.

SAQA also fulfils the role of the evaluation of foreign qualifications.

REFERENCING IN SOUTH AFRICA

No formal benchmarking has been completed between the South African NQF and other qualifications frameworks although some specific related studies have been conducted. One such study is the comparison currently underway, of the Malaysian Qualifications Framework with the South African NQF (SAQA, 2016). A second project comprises the Jaftha *et al* (2013) investigation into the recognition of South African qualifications in Australia. A third initiative was a self-referencing exercise to evaluate the South African National Senior Certificate (NSC) in relation to selected international qualifications (Umalusi and Higher Education South Africa, 2008).

GENERAL GAINS AND CHALLENGES REGARDING REFERENCING

The referencing approach has weaknesses. Some EQF referencing reports have been severely criticised (Adam, 2013c) for example, and the methodology remains unfamiliar in many constituencies (European Commission, 2011b).

Despite its weaknesses, referencing criteria can be used to guide agreements between countries. Example include such as the concluded Russia-South Africa agreement on the mutual recognition of educational qualifications and academic degrees (Government of the Russian Federation and Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2013), and the anticipated China-South Africa and Cuba-South Africa agreements.

With the extended information on qualifications, and the alignment of

levels and other quality assurance procedures, credential evaluation agencies can update their methodologies to include the benchmarking of learning outcomes. Doing so has potential to enable these agencies to make sound decisions around the comparability of qualifications internationally.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This paper has provided an overview of referencing as a relatively new mode of recognition that has been, and continues to be used in Europe and further afield. It has been argued that referencing based on the comparison of qualifications frameworks aims to improve transparency and to facilitate the cross-border recognition of qualifications.

By locating referencing within the broader context of other modes of recognition, it has been shown that this form of benchmarking is relatively undeveloped, and that it has potential to enhance mobility in learning and work pathways. South and Southern Africa would benefit from such an approach. Given the state of development of its NQF, South Africa in particular, would be well-placed to contextualise referencing for wide use within the country, and to produce a set of principles to guide referencing with other countries.

In closing, a comment needs to be made on the future of qualifications frameworks in general. It is the view of the authors, as noted by Coombe (2012), that qualifications frameworks are a phenomenon that will prevail. Indeed, qualifications frameworks are still relatively under-developed (Coles *et al* 2014). The development of new approaches, such as referencing, is a case in point.

While several modes of recognising qualifications have been in place for many decades, outcomes-based qualifications frameworks make it possi-

ble to take recognition to a higher level, to greater degrees of transparency, to even more fair ways of recognising competence, to improved cross-border mobility, and to enhanced forms of social recognition. Qualifications frameworks are not a panacea for all education and training challenges, but there is no doubt that they have become a global phenomenon with great potential for many years to come.

REFERENCES

Aarna, O., Pilli, E., Granstrom, S., All, K., Toom, K., Valk, A., Udam, M., Kerem, M. and Merirand, M. 2012. Referencing of the Estonian Qualifications and Qualifications Framework to the European Qualifications Framework. Accessed at <http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/eqf>, February 2016.

Adam, S. 2013a. What might be the significance for South and Southern Africa of the Bologna process, the creation of the European Higher Education Area and the global internationalisation of Higher Education? Paper commissioned by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), and presented at the Higher Education South Africa/South Africa-European Union Strategic Partnership Quality Assurance Colloquium, Stellenbosch, 2-5 April 2013. *SAQA Bulletin*, 13(1).

Adam, S. 2013b. The central role of learning outcomes in the completion of the European Higher Education Area 2013-2020. Forthcoming, *Journal of the European Higher Education Area*.

Adam, S. 2013c. Personal communication, 2 June 2013.

Agência Nacional para a Qualificação. 2011. Report on the Referencing of the [Portuguese] NQF to the European Qualification Framework (EQF). Accessed at <http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/eqf>, February 2016.

Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Human Resources Development

Working Group (APEC-HRDWG). 2009. Mapping Qualifications Frameworks across APEC Economies. Singapore: APEC Secretariat.

Australian Government. 2012. Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations. Trades Recognition Australia Migration Points Advice Applicant Guidelines. 24 February 2012.

Australian Qualifications Framework Council. 2011. Australian Qualifications Framework. First Edition, July 2011. South Australia: Australian Qualifications Framework Council for the Ministerial Council for Tertiary Education and Employment.

Baiba, R., Kujšs., D., Kinta, G., Strūbenga, A. and Senberga, A. 2012. Referencing of the Latvian Education System to the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning and the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). Self-Assessment Report. Accessed at <http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/eqf>, February 2016.

CEDEFOP. 2009a. The development of national qualifications frameworks in Europe. Thessalonica: CEDEFOP.

CEDEFOP.2009b. Criteria and procedures for referencing national qualifications levels to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). Thessalonica: CEDEFOP.

CEDEFOP. 2009c. The shift to learning outcomes – policies and practices in Europe. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

CEDEFOP. 2011. Referencing national qualifications levels to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). Thessalonica: CEDEFOP.

Coles, M., Keevy, J., Bateman and Keating J. 2014. Flying blind with policy on national qualifications frameworks (NQFs) – rationales for NQFs and how they tend to evolve. *International Journal of Continuing Education and*

Lifelong Learning, 7:1:17- 46.

Commission Nationale de la Certification Professionnelle (CACP). 2010. Référencement du cadre national de certification français vers le cadre européen de certification pour la formation tout au long de la vie. Accessed at <http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/eqf>, February 2016.

Commonwealth of Learning. 2011. Report on the Regional Focal Point Meeting Caribbean, Port of Spain, Trinidad and Tobago, March 28-30, 2011. Unpublished report.

Commonwealth of Learning. 2015. Transnational Qualifications Framework for the Virtual University for Small States of the Commonwealth (VUSSC). Procedures and Guidelines, revised April 2015.

Coombe, T. 2012. End Note. *SAQA Bulletin*, 12:2:295-298.

Council of Europe-United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). 1997. Convention on the recognition of qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European region. European Treaty Series No. 165. Lisbon, 11 April 1997.

Council of Ministers of Education Canada. 2009. Pan-Canadian Quality Standards for International Credential Evaluation. Ontario: Council of Ministers.

Danish Evaluation Institute (DEI). 2011. *Referencing the Danish Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF)*. Denmark: DEI.

Deane. C. 2005. Transparency of qualifications: are we there yet? *European Journal of Education*, 40:3:279-293.

Durkheim, E. and Giddens, A. 1972. *Selected writings*. Cambridge University Press.

European Commission. 2006. Guide for users of the general system for the recognition of professional qualifications. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

European Commission. 2011. Referencing national qualifications levels to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). *European Qualifications Framework Series: Note 3*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

European Commission. 2011b. European Qualifications Framework (EQF) Referencing Process and Report. Vienna: European Commission.

European Commission and Australian Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR). 2011. *Study on the (potential) role of qualifications frameworks in supporting mobility of workers and learners*. Brussels: DEEWR and Directorate-General for Education and Culture (DG EAC).

Government of the Russian Federation and Government of the Republic of South Africa. 2013. Agreement on the mutual recognition of educational qualifications and academic degrees. Signed in Durban, 25 March 2013.

Hart, J. 2008. Report on the referencing of the Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). Unpublished report.

Hunt, E., Beaudin, Y. and Malfroy, E. 2009. Substantial difference: implementing a concept. Presentation made at the European Association for International Education (EAIE), 2009, Madrid.

International Labour Organisation (ILO) Committee on Employment and Social Policy. 2007. Portability of skills. Note for debate and guidance.

Isaacs, S. and Keevy, J. 2009. Managing the migration of teachers through the recognition of qualifications. Paper presented at the 6th Researching Work and Learning (RWL) Conference, Denmark, 28 June to 1 July 2009.

Isaacs, S.B.A. 2011. Presentation made at the seminar on contemporary developments within the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) held at the Division for Lifelong Learning, University of Western Cape, South Africa, 4 April 2011.

Jaftha, C., Zuzani, Z. and Burger, F. 2013. The recognition of South African qualifications in Australia. Pretoria: South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). Research report.

Jorgensen, C.H. 2008. Paper for seminar on trans-nationalisation of qualifications. Inter-disciplinary seminar, University of Tampere, December 2008.

Keevy, J. 2010. Positioning credential evaluation practices. Paper presented at the United Kingdom National Academic Recognition Information Centre (UK-NARIC) Annual Conference, 8-9 November 2010, London.

Keevy, J. and Bolton, H. 2012. What is the South African National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and how could its impact be measured? Paper presented at the International NQF Symposium hosted jointly by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO), 8-9 September 2011. *SAQA Bulletin*, 12:1:1-18.

Keevy, J. and Jansen, J. 2010. *Fair trade for teachers: the transferability of teacher qualifications in the Commonwealth*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.

Keevy, J., Deij, A. and Chakroun, B. 2011. *Transnational qualifications frameworks*. Turin: European Training Foundation (ETF).

Lyons, C. 2011. Benchmarking and mapping studies. Presentation at the United Kingdom National Academic Recognition Information Centre (UK-NARIC) Annual Conference, 1-2 November 2011, London.

Malta Qualifications Council (MQC). 2011. Referencing of the Malta Qualifications Framework to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) and the Qualifications Framework of the European Higher Education Area

(EHEA). Document for further consultation and implementation. Malta: MQC.

McBride, V. and Keevy, J. 2010. Is the national qualifications framework a broken promise? A dialogue. *Journal of Educational Change*, 11:193-203.

Moll, I. 2008. Understanding learning, assessment and the quality of judgements. Paper developed for the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) as part of the SAQA-University of the Witwatersrand (WITS) Research Partnership.

National Qualifications Authority of Ireland (NQAI). 2009. Referencing of the Irish National Framework for Qualifications (NFQ) to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). Dublin: NQAI.

New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) and Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MOA). 2010. Joint Statement on the Recognition of Bachelor Degrees.

Qualifications and Vocational Education and Training Development Centre. 2012. Referencing the Lithuanian Qualifications Framework to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) for Lifelong Learning and the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). National report. Accessed at <http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/eqf>, February 2016.

Qualifications Frameworks in the United Kingdom (QFUK). 2010. Referencing the qualifications frameworks of the United Kingdom to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). London: QFUK.

Raffe, D. 2005. National qualifications frameworks as integrated qualifications frameworks. *SAQA Bulletin*, 12:2:135-154.

Raffe, D. 2009. Towards a dynamic model of national qualifications frameworks. International Labour Organisation (ILO) discussion document.

Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework (SCQF) Partnership, Welsh Assembly Government, Council for Curriculum Examinations and Assessment, and Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. 2009. In *Qualifications Frameworks in the United Kingdom (QFUK)*. 2010. Referencing the qualifications frameworks of the United Kingdom to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). London: QFUK.

Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2011a. Concept Paper and Implementation Plan for the SADC Regional Qualifications Framework (RQF). Updated and amended version. Original document developed by the SADC Technical Committee on Certification and Accreditation in Maseru, 2005.

Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2011b. Record of Meeting of Ministers responsible for Education and Training, 22-23 September 2011, Windhoek, Namibia.

Umalusi and Higher Education South Africa (HESA). 2008. Evaluating the South African National Senior Certificate (NSC) in relation to selected international qualifications: a self-referencing exercise to determine the standing of the NSC. Pretoria: Umalusi.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). 1981. Regional convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other academic qualifications in Higher Education in the African States. Adopted at Arusha on 5 December 1981, revised at Cape Town on 12 June, 2002.

Van der Sanden, K., Smit, W. and Dashorst, M. 2012. The referencing document of the Dutch National Qualifications Framework to the European Qualification Framework.

Recognition of South African qualifications in Australia¹⁸

Coleen Jafftha, Zola Zuzani and Francois Burger

INTRODUCTION

It is important for a country to have an internationally recognised qualifications system so that learners qualifying in that system are able to access work and study opportunities in foreign countries. It is equally important to be able to examine how qualifications are recognised in other countries so that the learning is valued (Burquel and Van Vught, 2010; Keevy *et al* 2010). Yildiz (2010) reports that the contribution of skilled immigrants to an economy is not fully realised because firstly, foreign credentials are undervalued, not fairly evaluated, or too difficult to assess; and secondly, knowledge of credential evaluation services is limited.

Research into the methods used to compare and recognise South African qualifications is part of the work of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). Such research contributes directly to the implementation and further development of the South African National Qualifications Framework (NQF) as an internationally recognised system. It supports work on the development of new qualifications, and on the review of existing qualifications, and optimises the national and international mobility of the students

18 This paper reports on an ongoing project on the recognition of South African qualifications in other countries. The paper is an abridged version of a longer, more complete report on the findings of the pilot phase of this work which draws on the extensive expertise of SAQA's Australia counterparts involved in the recognition of foreign qualifications. This research would not have been possible, without the extensive contributions and editorial support of the SAQA staff, in particular, Dr Heidi Bolton, Ms Nadina Coetzee, Mr Navin Vasudev, and Mr Joe Samuels.

and the workers who use this system.

Recent related research commenced with the identification of a 'recognition research' framework within which to conduct a study on the recognition of South African qualifications in other countries. Since this work was piloted in the Australian context, a description of the Australian qualifications and recognition model is provided. The findings reported in this paper cover the recognition of qualifications in both academic and professional contexts and include comments from South Africans who had moved to Australia. The paper concludes by sketching some of the implications of this research for SAQA and the NQF.

A RECOGNITION RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

Before embarking on the research, a desk-top survey of the 'recognition literature' revealed that various forms and methods of recognition are used in the international environment. Some of the first research questions raised were the following:

- Where can evidence of the recognition of South African qualifications be found?
- What are the different forms of recognition that exist?
- What methods are being used to recognise South African qualifications?

Why Australia?

The methodologies of the research reviewed suggest that the conceptualisations of a recognition research framework be tested through a pilot study (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001). The criteria for selecting a pilot country

for recognition work could include amongst others the accessibility of data; common language; the components of the research framework, and migration patterns. Australia has many skills-assessing authorities; is an English-speaking country and like South Africa, is a signatory to both the Washington and Sydney Accords. Further, Australia has a comprehensive ten-level qualifications framework, similar to that in South Africa. Finally, many South Africans seek to study or work in Australia. Based on these criteria, Australia was selected for piloting the research reported in this paper.

Research process

Social media were used to find a sample of South Africans living in Australia, and to explore their experiences. At least six social networking sites were found, created by South Africans living in Australia, which promote dialogues with other South Africans in Australia. A total of 49 respondents were randomly selected from this group, and were asked to reflect on their South African qualifications and relate how their credentials had either helped or hindered their moves to Australia. The respondents gave permission for their responses to be included in a report. Individual names have not been recorded but responses relevant to the project are reflected in the text-boxes throughout this paper.

As a result of the desk-top survey, the key recognition concepts identified for the study were:

- What forms of recognition emerged?
- What recognition methods emerged?

Forms of recognition that emerged

The forms of recognition identified through the desk-top survey and the experiences that the respondents reported were as follows.

- **Comparability versus equivalence**, where in the former qualifications are comparable based only on an analysis of their components (European Training Foundation Report, 2010). Equivalence is often accompanied by formal acknowledgement by a Competent Recognition Authority (CRA) (SAQA and Commonwealth Secretariat, 2006). Keevy and Jansen (2010) suggest that comparability links with minimum criteria and implies less transparency whereas equivalence, with its emphasis on detailed criteria, increases transparency.
- **Recognition agreements**, where formal agreements are set up between specific countries, or across regions or continents, or within particular sectors across countries, regions, or continents, (International Labour Organisation [ILO], 2007; GHK Consulting, 2011).
- **Recognition by proven competency**, where in any set context, academic or professional, there are pre-set expectations and standards against which to measure performance and provide proof of competence (Surveying and Spatial Sciences Institute, undated; Eraut, 1994; Tromp *et al* 2007; Alison Evans Consulting, 2008; Burke *et al* 2008; International Engineering Alliance (IEA), 2009; Policy+, 2009).
- **Social uses**, where qualifications are used in different ways in practice, in the different sectors in society (Isaacs, 2001). The term 'social uses' in this paper refers to differences in the social attractiveness

of qualifications as they are used by different role-players in the education, training, development and work fields, including but not limited to the learners, the providers, the education and training system, the labour market, and the employment system (Isaacs, 2001; Jorgensen, 2008; Isaacs and Keevy, 2009).

The quotations in text-boxes are excerpts from the dialogues between the researchers and a random selection of South Africans living in Australia. The conversations were located in six social networking sites initiated to assist South Africans who had moved to Australia. The responses provide examples of what these South Africans thought about how their qualifications had helped or hindered their moves to Australia.

“ ... I had to have my qualifications re-assessed including an electrical trade test ... ”

Electrical Engineer with Government Certificate of Competence (GCC)

“ ... I had to do a bridging course in order to practise ... ”

Physiotherapist in Western Australia

“ ... I had to do a registration exam in order to practise ... ”

Dentist

Recognition methods that emerged

The recognition methods identified through the desk-top survey and an analysis of the responses were as follows.

- **Credential evaluation**, where the process focuses on a fact-finding review of documents from an applicant from a foreign country seeking recognition in the receiving country (Alliance of Credential Evaluation Services of Canada [ACESC]), 2008; Republic of South Africa [RSA], 2012). The text-box that follows is an example of respondents' experiences.

“ ... Both our qualifications were on the list of critical skills and were recognised once we could provide the necessary documents. We found work easily. We are valued in the workplace as highly skilled. It seems that SA qualifications are well within, if not above, Australian qualifications ... ”

Occupational Therapist and Special Education Teacher (Tasmania)

- **Benchmarking**, where the credential evaluators in the receiving country use the qualifications framework of that country as a benchmarking instrument to assist with measuring and evaluating foreign qualifications (Lyons, 2011). More detailed benchmarking involves comparing the content of a given qualification in relation to the subject content and/or standards in the corresponding receiving country qualification (Umalusi, 2007a, 2007b, 2010).
- **Assessment**, which can include tests, examinations, practicals,

interviews, portfolios of evidence, and other items (Eraut, 1994; Alison Evans Consulting, 2008; International Engineering Alliance [IEA], 2009; Policy+, 2009), as tools with which to establish competence for entry into a profession. The excerpt in the text-box below shows one respondent's experience of this kind of assessment.

“ ... I already had an assessment and a technical interview in East London ... already cost R20k waiting on the outcome of the assessment ... ”

South African applicant for immigration to Australia (living in Gauteng)

- **Referencing**, which is a formalised process of recognising the link between a qualifications framework (CEDEFOP, 2009a, 2009b, 2011; Hart, 2009; Luomi-Messerer, 2009; National Qualifications Authority Ireland [NQA], 2009; Keevy *et al* 2010; Malta Qualifications Council, 2010; Qualifications Frameworks in the United Kingdom [QFUK], 2010; Agência Nacional para a Qualificação, 2011; Southern African Development Community [SADC], 2011b; Secretariat of the Pacific Community, 2011).

THE AUSTRALIAN QUALIFICATIONS CONTEXT

The Australian education and training system is represented in the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF, see Figure 23), Australia's national qualifications policy for regulated qualifications. The AQF was introduced in 1995, fully implemented in 2000 and revised in 2011. All requirements for the revised AQF (Australian Qualifications Framework Council [AQFC], 2011) were met in 2015.

The Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF)



Figure 23: Australian Qualifications Framework¹⁹

The AQF is a 10-level comprehensive system that links schooling, Vocational Education and Training (VET), and Higher Education. The 10 levels – where Level 1 has the lowest complexity and Level 10 the highest – are defined by criteria expressed as learning outcomes. The outcomes describe what learners are expected to know, understand and do, as a result of learning.

The publication *Australian Qualifications Framework First Edition 2011*

¹⁹ Permission was obtained to use this AQF logo.

provides the complete set of AQF policies, objectives and information about AQF governance and monitoring arrangements. The Australian qualification standards and alignment principles are important features in the qualifications-recognition process where foreign qualifications are evaluated, and their comparability to Australian qualifications determined.

Australian quality/qualification standards

The quality standards for Australian qualifications include:

- learning outcomes for each AQF level and qualification type;
- specifications for AQF application in accreditation and the development of qualifications;
- policy requirements for issuing AQF qualifications;
- policy requirements for qualification linkages and student pathways;
- policy requirements for registers of:
 - organisations with the authority to accredit AQF qualifications;
 - organisations with the authority to issue AQF qualifications;
- AQF qualifications and qualification pathways, and
- policy requirements for adding or removing AQF qualification types from the AQF.

Australian alignment principles

Australia has prepared its system for future alignment with other countries by inclusion of the alignment principles in the *AQF First Edition* (Australian Qualifications Framework Council [AQFC], 2011).

Alignment carried out by the AQFC first considers the national qualifications frameworks of other countries, or the regional qualifications framework involved, where appropriate. The alignment process is only undertaken if it is expected to eventuate in an economic advantage for Australia and further, does not automatically lead to recognition. The alignment principles stipulate the quality standards; policies; comparability of learning outcomes, qualification levels and credit systems, and responsibilities of aligning countries. These principles are similar to the formalised processes used in referencing a qualifications framework to an overarching or regional framework. However, Australia has contextualised 'referencing' for its country context, and refers to it as 'alignment'.

Alignment of South African qualifications with Australian qualifications

A comparison of the Australian quality standards with those in the South African NQF, under both the SAQA Act 58 of 1995 and the NQF Act 67 of 2008 which replaced it, indicated that SAQA has matching policies for each of the Australian quality standards (see Table 11 below).

Table 11: Alignment: South Africa to Australia

Australian qualifications standards (AQF Council, 2011:9)	Assessing alignment	NQF specifications under the NQF Act 67 of 2008
AQF		NQF Act
Learning outcomes for each of the 10 AQF levels and qualification type	Aligned	Learning outcomes for each of the 10 NQF levels and qualification

Australian qualifications standards (AQF Council, 2011:9)	Assessing alignment	NQF specifications under the NQF Act 67 of 2008
AQF		NQF Act
Specifications for AQF application in accreditation and development of qualifications	Aligned	Quality Councils' policies on standards development and accreditation; Policy for determination of the NQF Sub-Frameworks
Policy requirements for issuing AQF qualifications	Aligned	SAQA policies for registering qualifications and part-qualifications on the NQF; Quality Councils' policies on the development and submission of qualifications, and accreditation of providers
Policy requirements for qualification linkages and student pathways	Aligned	SAQA policies for registering qualifications and part-qualifications on the NQF; Quality Councils' policies on the development and submission of qualifications, and accreditation of providers; Determination of NQF Sub-Framework policy

Australian qualifications standards (AQF Council, 2011:9)	Assessing alignment	NQF specifications under the NQF Act 67 of 2008
AQF		NQF Act
<p>Policy requirements for the registers of:</p> <p>1. Organisations with authority to accredit AQF qualifications;</p> <p>2. Organisations with authority to issue AQF qualifications; and</p> <p>3. AQF qualifications and qualification pathways</p>	<p>Aligned</p> <p>Aligned</p> <p>Aligned</p>	<p>NQF Act; Determination of Sub-Frameworks; Quality Council policies for accreditation and standards development;</p> <p>NQF Act; Determination of Sub-Frameworks; Quality Councils' policies on standards development and accreditation;</p> <p>NQF Act and related NQF Sub-Framework policies; SAQA policy for registering qualifications and part-qualifications on the NQF; Quality Councils' policies on standards development and quality assurance; Quality Council policies on developing qualifications and accreditation; Determination of Sub-Frameworks policy</p>

Australian qualifications standards (AQF Council, 2011:9)	Assessing alignment	NQF specifications under the NQF Act 67 of 2008
AQF		NQF Act
Policy requirements for the addition or removal of qualification types in the AQF	Aligned	NQF Act and related policies; SAQA policy for registering qualifications and part-qualifications on the NQF

It was found that South African qualifications were well-positioned to align with Australian qualifications.

Australia as signatory to recognition agreements

Australia is part of treaty-level United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (1997) conventions on the mutual recognition of Higher Education namely the Lisbon Recognition Convention and the Asia-Pacific regional convention. Australia signed the Lisbon Recognition Convention in order to:

- ensure that transparent, coherent and reliable criteria are used in the assessment and recognition of qualifications;
- encourage Australian Higher Education Institutions to recognise Higher Education qualifications obtained elsewhere unless a substantial difference can be shown between the qualification conferred and the corresponding qualification in Australia, and
- ensure that all parties to the Convention can obtain an assessment of qualifications upon request.

Other obligations include:

- encouraging education institutions to have available, the required information on qualifications earned at that institution, and
- ensuring that adequate information is provided for assessment purposes (UNESCO, 2007).

Motivation for AEI-NOOSR

Signing the Lisbon Convention compelled Australia to have a National Information Centre (NIC) to provide information and advice to facilitate the recognition of foreign credentials in Australia. In 1989, the Council on Overseas Professional Qualifications became the National Office on Overseas Skills Recognition (NOOSR), later known as Australian Education International (AEI-NOOSR). In the 1990s, NOOSR was particularly involved in assisting the development of competency-based assessment processes by professional bodies.

Australia's recognition model (in five parts)

According to UNESCO (2007) there are no procedures in Australian law whereby an overseas qualification can be formally recognised in educational terms. Australia's recognition emphasises five categories of recognition decisions as outlined in Table 12.

Table 11: Australia's recognition model

	Recognition level	Provided by	Functions
Compulsory	1. Information and Advice	AEI-NOOSR	To facilitate and support recognition decisions made by other bodies
Equivalence -setting	2. Academic purposes	Individual education institutions	To determine whether the holder of an international qualification:
	3. Employment purposes	Professional bodies and individual employers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • has a qualification that can be compared to an AQF qualification, and/or • has appropriate professional skills and competencies, and/or
	4. Migration purposes	Gazetted assessing authorities and Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • demonstrates an appropriate level of education/academic skills and achievement
	5. Registration/licensing purposes	State/territory registration boards	

KEY FINDINGS

Skills assessment and NOOSR'S role

The research found that after checking that the skilled occupation

possessed by an applicant is needed in Australia, applicants must select the relevant Skills Assessing Authority (SAA) and arrange assessment. There are 33 SAAs in Australia and each has different recognition methods which include credential evaluation, written and oral examinations, evidence of employment, and mutual recognition agreements.

NOOSR, one of Australia's SAAs, researches country profiles and develops guidelines for the evaluation of qualifications. Only the Certified Practising Accountants require a NOOSR evaluation. Of the 33 SAAs in the country, 18% assess qualifications according to NOOSR guidelines.

NOOSRs evaluation of qualifications from South Africa

The processes followed by NOOSR were investigated. It was found that firstly, the South African Country Education Profile (CEP) is examined to determine the recognition status of the institution(s) which award(s) the South African qualifications. If the qualification is covered by 'CEP Online', further assessment is straight-forward. The qualification is then compared to an education level on the AQF and a certificate is issued.

If the qualification is not however covered by CEP Online, assessment takes approximately three months as it involves in-depth research and analysis of the country, the awarding institution, and the qualification.

In addition, all of this research and analysis is recorded on NOOSR's online assessment database, and the outcome is verified by senior staff.

As shown in Table 13, NOOSR's recommendation for the AQF qualifications and South African NQF qualifications was fairly similar to how South Africa viewed Australian qualifications. Some differences were found in the comparability of the Australian Advanced Diploma and the South African

Advanced Diploma²⁰ .

Table 13: NOOSR's comparability table for qualifications from Australia and South Africa

Australia	South Africa
Senior Secondary Certificate of Education	National Senior Certificate (NQF Level 4)
Certificate I-IV	National Certificate Vocational (NQF Level 4) National Senior Certificate (NQF Level 4) National N4 and N5 Certificates
Advanced Diploma ²¹	Advanced Certificate (NQF level 6) Diploma (NQF level 6) Advanced Diploma (NQF level 7)
Bachelor Degree	Bachelor's Degree
Bachelor Honours Degree	Bachelor Honours Degree
Graduate Diploma	Postgraduate Diploma Graduate Diploma in Education
Master's Degree	Master's Degree
Doctoral Degree	Doctoral Degree

Table 13 only applies to authentic South African qualifications which are registered on the South African NQF, and to authentic Australian qualifications registered on the AQF.

²⁰ The Australian Level 6 Advanced Diploma is a pathway into a first national degree in Australia just as the Level 6 Diploma is a pathway into a first national degree in South Africa. In the context of the South African NQF, the Australian Advanced Diploma Level 6 is recommended as being comparable to the South African Level 6 Diploma, and as not necessarily being comparable to the South African Advanced Diploma at NQF Level 7.

²¹ See Footnote 19.

South African qualifications in the Australian academic context

Students from South Africa can learn about admission procedures for South Africans seeking access to Australian universities by scanning each of the institutions' websites. Australia has 39 universities and five University Assessment Centres (UACs). UACs evaluate credentials, assess prospective students and advise universities but cannot make admission decisions. Universities, as competent recognition authorities (CRAs), set the admission criteria and subsequent tests of academic competence. These tests are generally applied to all students seeking admission to Australian universities.

The excerpt in the text-box below shows a respondent's experience of Australian university admission.

“ ... I had to re-do my Masters in Business Administration in Australia... I was given credit for one year of the South African studies ... ”

Post-graduate student living in Australia

The South African National Senior Certificate (NSC) and access to Australian universities

In general, specific National Senior Certificate (NSC) scores theoretically enable access to Australian universities (Department of Basic Education, 2009) but in practice do not necessarily guarantee access. Admission is determined through the NSC scores as well as individual university-specific and discipline-specific requirements. The excerpt in the text-box below shows the experience of a respondent in this regard.

“...I had to redo Year 12 English, Maths and Chemistry...”

Student on a student visa, studying Veterinary Science in Perth

Most Australian universities provide a comparability table of country qualifications which they consider to be comparable to the Australian School Year 12. At the time at which the research was conducted (2013), the South African school-leaving qualification was included in the comparability Tables of 17 of the 39 universities. However, most of the information about the South African qualification was found to be outdated, and did not include information on the National Senior Certificate (NSC) which became the official school-leaving qualification in South Africa in 2008. Of the 17 universities which had information on South African qualifications, eight had accurate information on the NSC and its scoring system. Greater engagement with Australian universities is required to ensure that more of these institutions use accurate information on qualifications in South Africa.

Where a country's school-leaving qualification is not in the comparability table, applicants are referred to the University Assessment Centres (UACs) for assessment of their qualifications. This service is generally available for all qualifications from countries outside Australia.

Admission to Australian universities

Both credential evaluation and assessments are used to determine admission to Australian universities. Each university has different admission requirements. The Australian Tertiary Admission Rank (ATAR) is the official admission requirement for students who have written the Australian Year 12 examination (Universities Admission Centre, 2012).

The Australian university websites provide information on academic assessments for non-Australian applicants. At the time of the research, the website of the University of Western Australia provided clear information for example, on the comparability of the South African National Senior Certificate point-ratings and the ATAR equivalents, in order to assist South African students with their admission applications.

Each university determines its own admission requirements which can include general admission tests such as the Special Tertiary Admissions Test (STAT); discipline-specific admission tests such as the Australian Law Schools Entrance Test (ALSET) and a range of country-specific English Proficiency tests such as the Pearson Test of English (PTE). As the Australian English test score requirements differ for different countries, the English scores required for South African students could differ from those required for students from other countries.

More in-depth research is required to ascertain the overall academic throughput of South African students at Australian universities.

Skills assessments for Trades and Migration

Trades Recognition Australia (TRA) is one of Australia's 33 SAAs that assesses trade occupations for migration. Applicants have to choose the skills assessment paths most suitable for themselves and for the skills needs in Australia. For example, South Africa is a nominated country for temporary and permanent migration, for all occupations in the Offshore Skills field.

South African applicants have to do a self-evaluation to check with the Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC) that they have chosen a suitable occupation and that the particular occupation selected, is in demand in Australia. The TRA uses registered training organisations

(RTOs) to conduct the assessments required, and the arrangements for migration are done through the DIAC. There are however, trade qualification assessment outcomes which do not lead to the granting of access, because of the further training that is required when the applicant arrives in Australia, as shown in the text box.

“ ... I had a refrigeration/air conditioning qualification. It was not recognised. I had to convert it to a trainee licence and could work under a supervisor ... ”

Refrigeration/air conditioning qualification

According to Trades Recognition Australia (TRA) and Workplace Relations (Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relation [AG-DEE-WR] 2011, 2012), a qualification is recognised as being comparable to an Australian qualification if TRA is able to verify that it is:

- at a level comparable to an Australian qualification for that occupation;
- at a quality standard-level comparable to those in Australian qualifications, and
- relevant to the nominated occupation.

In determining the comparability of the levels and quality standards of qualifications, the alignment principles already discussed, are applied.

Are South African qualifications assessed more than once?

There is clarity about how NOOSR determines comparability, around how universities recognise qualifications for academic purposes, and around the recognition of occupational qualifications. However, the recognition processes available for the different purposes of (1) migration, (2) employment, (3) registration/certification, and (4) admission to university often cause confusion as applicants often do not understand that these different purposes require four separate processes.

In practice, an applicant from any country could be assessed more than once. This re-assessment is not unique to applicants from the South African context. Some respondent experiences are shown in the text boxes.

“ ... I first had to have an assessment for visa application, and then I had a written and practical trade test at the Energy Safety Board, and then only was my engineering qualification assessed by Engineers Australia, a lengthy and costly process ... ”

South African engineer living and working in Australia

“ ... I had to confirm my electrical knowledge through a test to obtain a restricted electrical licence (REL). Then I had to apply for an Australian trade certificate ... ”

Electrician working in Australia

The Skilled Occupations List

To qualify for 'skilled migration' to Australia an applicant must have an occupation on the Skilled Occupations List. If the qualification is listed, and the necessary documents are provided, recognition is simpler and quicker. Responses from both sides of this 'demand listing' were received by the researchers.

“ ... I had a Degree with English and History majors. It was not recognised because it was not in demand ... ”

South African wanting to immigrate

“ ... If you have a trade or other scarce skill qualification then the quickest route is work sponsorship – we got here within eight weeks of an interview ... ”

Engineer working in Australia

Awarding points for qualifications

Applications to enter Australia in order to work there include a point-scoring system. The nominated occupation for a 'points advice application' must be:

- listed on the Australian Skills Recognition Information (ASRI) website with Trades Recognition Australia (TRA) as the relevant assessing authority;
- relevant to the qualification, and
- relevant to the type of employment sought.

An applicant scores more points for the highly skilled occupations where training and/or qualifications specific to the nominated occupations are

required. More generalist degree-level occupations score fewer points. Points can also be awarded for other criteria such as age (younger applicants score at higher levels than their older counterparts), English language ability, and whether or not the applicant is 'nominated' by the State or Territory governments.

Emphasis on qualifications

The 33 SAAs in Australia differ in their evaluation of, and emphasis on, qualifications only. Some examples of these variations are illustrated in the text boxes.

“ ... I had no degree but many years' experience in telecommunications and was accepted ... ”

South African employed in telecommunications in Australia

“ ... TRA contacted me and interviewed me on the phone. They felt that, because I qualified as an electrician, but worked as a technician my experience was not relevant to my qualification. I was assessed as instruments technician but I applied as electrician...

In Australia, they have a regulator where all electrical and gas tradesmen must be registered. They are separate from TRA and differ from state to state so I had to follow two processes to prove the same thing ... ”

Electrical qualification with work experience as technician

“ ... Under the 457 (working) visa, the company you work for sponsors you and in most cases are more interested in work experience than qualifications. I think if I had matric alone, they would have hired me because it was my experience that they were interested in.

On this visa, you get in quickly but then you are bound to the company sponsoring you and your visa needs to be renewed every four years unless you get permanent residency ... ”

South African engineer working in Sydney

The desk-top survey conducted as part of the research reported in this paper showed that only a few of the 33 SAAs rely on qualifications only for the assessment of applicants. Assessments of work experience and relevant employment are very important in the recognition of applicants' occupations as being comparable to Australian occupations. Assessments include practical tests, exams, and/or verification of work experience.

English language competency

It was found that English language proficiency is a sought-after competency in Australia. The most common English language tests are the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and Occupational English Test (OET).

English language competency is a prerequisite in 24 of the 33 Skills Assessing Authorities. Three of these authorities exempt (with conditions), South Africans from the English Language proficiency tests; the three were the:

- Dieticians Association of Australia;
- Australian Council of Physiotherapy Regulating Authorities, and the
- Australasian Veterinary Board.

Recognition agreements between South Africa and Australia

At the time of the research reported in this paper, mutual agreements between South Africa and Australia existed for professionals in five fields, namely for:

1. accountants registered with the South African Institute of Chartered Accountants, who received blanket acceptance;
2. those in approved engineering programmes in South Africa, which permitted access to the second phase of registration in Australia (Australia is a signatory to the Washington Accord for Professional Engineers and the Sydney Accord for Engineering Technologists);
4. those with certain South African qualifications in optometry, who were accepted for direct registration;
5. members of the Association of South African Quantity Surveyors (ASAQS), amongst others, which has a reciprocal entry agreement with the Institutions of Surveyors Australia, were exempted from Australian entry requirements, and
6. candidates registered with the Civil Aviation Authority in South Africa were exempted from skills assessments in Australia.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study focussed on the roles and uses of qualifications in general and did not consider the impact that demographics may have on the recognition of qualifications. The demographic categories that emerged in the course of the data collection included age, ethnicity, type of awarding institution/

university, detailed descriptions of types of qualifications and occupations, numbers of years of experience, and different state/ territory regulations. Integration of this kind of information in the analyses may have revealed nuanced patterns worth noting, but was beyond the scope of the study.

The study did not include any in-depth investigation of the throughput of the South African students studying at Australian universities. While these data were well beyond the scope of the study, such trends would have potential to shed further insights into the quality of South African qualifications.

CONCLUSIONS

Using the two-component research framework of forms of recognition, and recognition methods, the study reported in this paper explored how South African qualifications were recognised in Australia.

The findings indicated that Australia's recognition model includes recognition in four contexts plus one which provides recommendations only. The four recognition contexts were firstly, academic recognition by individual universities; secondly, migration recognition by Department of Immigration and Citizenship; thirdly, employment recognition by professional bodies and workplaces, and fourth, registration or licensing recognition by the State and Territory boards.

Entrance requirements in the four recognition contexts are set by the competent recognition authorities that employ a range of recognition methods and forms of recognition. Consequently, a South African applicant, like migrants from other countries, would need to go through more than one recognition process when seeking to immigrate to Australia. Since recognition authorities determine their own admission criteria and assessment methods, the competence of an applicant from any country is likely to be assessed more than once.

The AQF with its policies and quality standards is the benchmarking tool against which South African qualifications are measured. The South African NQF provides the quality standards for the South African qualifications and places these credentials in a favourable position to provide a referencing link and to align to the AQF. Since South Africa has an NQF, Australia is willing to align its AQF to it, in order to determine the comparability of a South African qualification with its apparent counterpart on the AQF.

Australia considers aligning its qualifications with those of other countries if it considers applications as carrying potential economic advantage for Australia. The occupations of applicants for 'skilled migration' must be on the Skilled Occupations List. Further, the nominated occupation must be relevant to the qualification and experience of applicants. 'Recognition by proven competency' can be granted through an evaluation of employment credentials as well as through other assessments. In this context, the social uses of qualifications manifest in the economic attractiveness of the qualifications, and their links with skilled occupations and work experience.

Australian Education International-National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition (AEI-NOOSR) is the National Information Centre in Australia which researches country profiles; provides information on the evaluation of qualifications and provides credential evaluation services. NOOSR recommends the comparability status of the majority of the South African qualifications registered on the South African National Qualifications Framework (NQF), in relation to qualifications registered on the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF). NOOSR is not a statutory body and therefore its decisions provide recommendations only and are not binding.

The Australian universities use credential evaluation and assessments to determine comparability, equivalence and competence, for the purposes of admission, for foreign applicants. Analysis of the social uses of the South African school-leaving qualifications on the websites of the 39 Australian

universities showed that these qualifications were not well researched in Australia at the time of this study: much of the South African information was outdated.

Recognition agreements between South Africa and Australia were found to occur in five professional fields which mean that, within these five fields, South African applicants could be accepted directly. There were 33 Skills Assessing Authorities in Australia which used credential evaluation and a range of assessments to prove competency. Most of the assessments required proven competency in the English language; South African applicants were exempted (with conditions) from some of these tests.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SAQA AND THE SOUTH AFRICAN NQF, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The research reported in this paper covers the pilot phase of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) project on the recognition of South African qualifications in other countries. Australia was selected for the pilot for a range of reasons. Its education and training system – its national qualifications framework – is comparable to that in South Africa. The official use of English is similar in both countries. The Australian data were accessible. Both South Africa and Australia are signatories to the Washington and Sydney Accords, in other words, there was already some mutual recognition. Finally, many South Africans seek to study or work in Australia.

In order to enhance the implementation of the South African National Qualifications Framework (NQF) as an internationally recognised system, and to further its development, it is suggested that:

- the pilot project is followed by full-scale research into the recognition and uses of South African qualifications in the 'top 10' countries to

which most South Africans emigrate, and also the 'top 10' countries from which applicants seek to enter South Africa. This research could deepen the understandings and development of the South African recognition processes, and provide insights for work relating to the recognition of South African qualifications in other countries;

- the pilot and further related research be used actively to develop further, South Africa's recognition model for effectiveness and efficiency, including for avoiding the duplication of assessments amongst the various recognition partners, in order to streamline process;
- South Africa considers alignment/ referencing/ comparison with other countries to improve the comparability of South African qualifications;
- the research be used as one of the tools to enhance international liaison between SAQA and its counterparts in other countries to ensure that accurate information on South African qualifications is available in these countries; and
- information on the profiles of other countries' qualifications be developed, published, and made widely available in South Africa.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to acknowledge the South Africans living in Australia who were willing to take part in the discussions needed for the research reported here, on social media, and to have their responses published. No names of the individual respondents are mentioned in this paper.

REFERENCES

Agência Nacional para a Qualificação (ANQ). 2011. Referencing of the Portuguese Qualifications Framework to the European Qualifications Framework.

Alison Evans Consulting. 2008. Competency assessment in nursing. A summary of literature published since 2000. Australia: National Education Framework Cancer Nursing (EdCan).

Alliance of Credential Evaluation Services of Canada (ACESC). 2008. Pan-Canadian Quality Standards for International Credential Evaluation.

Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (AG-DEEWR). 2011. Trades Recognition Australia (TRA) Migration Skills Assessment. Applicant Guidelines.

Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (AG DEEWR). 2012. Trades Recognition Australia (TRA) Migration Points Advice. Applicant Guidelines

Australian Qualifications Framework Council (AQFC). 2011. Australian Qualifications Framework. First Edition, July 2011. South Australia: Australian Qualifications Framework Council for the Ministerial Council for Tertiary Education and Employment.

Burke, J.M., Miller, W.A., Spencer, A.P., Crank, C.W., Adkins, L., Bertch, K.E., Ragucci, D.P., Smith, W.E. and Valley, A.W. 2008. Australian Council for Clinical Pharmacists (ACCP) White Paper: Clinical Pharmacist Competencies. *Pharmacotherapy*, 28:6.

Burquel, N. and Van Vught, F. 2010. Benchmarking in European Higher Education: a step beyond current quality models, *Tertiary Education and Management*, 16:3.

CEDEFOP. 2009a. The development of national qualifications frameworks

in Europe. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

CEDEFOP. 2009b. Criteria and procedures for referencing national qualifications levels to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

CEDEFOP. 2011. Referencing national qualifications levels to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). CEDEFOP Note 3, 2011. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

Department of Basic Education (DBE). 2009. The National Senior Certificate (NSC): a qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). Government Notice No. 744 in Government Gazette, Vol. 481, No. 27819. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Eraut, M. 1994. *Developing professional knowledge and competence*. London: Falmer Press.

European Training Foundation (ETF). 2010. Inventory of recent national qualifications framework (NQF) developments in the ETF's partner countries. Turin: ETF.

GHK Consulting. 2011. Study on the (potential) role of qualifications frameworks in supporting the mobility of workers and learners. European Commission and Australian Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations. Joint European Union (EU)-Australian study. Brussels: DEEWR and Directorate-General for Education and Culture (DG EAC).

Hart, J. 2009. Cross-referencing qualifications. Centre for Educational Sociology (CES) Briefings, No. 49, June 2009. Accessed at <http://www.ces.ed.ac.uk/index>, February 2016.

International Engineering Alliance (IEA). 2009. Graduate attributes and professional competencies. Version 2, 18 June 2009. Accessed at: <http://www.ieagrements.org/>, February 2016.

International Labour Organisation (ILO). 2007. *Portability of skills*. Geneva: International Labour Office Governing Body.

Isaacs, S. 2001. Making the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) road by walking reflectively, accountably and boldly. In Sayed, Y. and Jansen, J. (Eds.), *Implementing education policies: the South African experience*, 124-139. Lansdowne: University of Cape Town (UCT) Press.

Isaacs, S. and Keevy, J. 2009. Managing the migration of teachers through the recognition of qualifications. Paper presented at the Sixth Researching Work and Learning Conference (RWL6), Denmark, December 2009.

Jorgensen, C.H. 2008. Paper for the seminar on the trans-nationalisation of qualifications. Interdisciplinary seminar, University of Tampere, December 2008.

Keevy, J. and Jansen, J. 2010. *Fair trade for teachers: the transferability of teacher qualifications in the Commonwealth*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.

Keevy, J., Chakroun, B. and Deij, A. 2010. *European Training Foundation (ETF) Transnational Qualifications Frameworks (TQFs)*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Leedy, P.D. and Ormrod, J.E. 2001. *Practical research: planning and design*. Seventh Edition. New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Luomi-Messerer, K. 2009. Using the 'VQTS' model for mobility and permeability. Results of the Lifelong Learning project VQTS II. Vienna: 3s Research Laboratory VQNet – Towards a European Workspace.

Lyons, C. 2011. Benchmarking and mapping studies. Presentation made at the United Kingdom National Academic Recognition Information Centre (UK-NARIC) Annual Conference, 1-2 November 2011, London.

Malta Qualifications Council (MQC). 2011. Referencing of the Malta

Qualifications Framework (MQF) to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) and the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). Document for further consultation and implementation. Malta: MQC.

National Qualifications Authority of Ireland (NQAI). 2009. Referencing of the Irish National Framework for Qualifications (NFQ) to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). Dublin: NQAI.

Policy+. 2009. Nursing competence: what are we assessing and how should it be measured? London: King's College, National Nursing Research Unit.

Qualifications Frameworks in the United Kingdom (QFUK). 2010. Referencing the qualifications frameworks of the United Kingdom to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). London: QFUK.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1995. South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act No. 58 of 1995. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2008. National Qualifications Framework (NQF) Act No. 67 of 2008. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2012. South African Qualifications Authority Criteria and Guidelines for the Evaluation of Foreign Qualifications. Discussion document for public comment, Government Gazette. Vol. 559, No. 34919. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Secretariat of the Pacific Community (SPC). 2011. The Pacific Register of Qualifications and Standards. Fiji Islands: Government Building.

Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2011. Record of meeting of ministers responsible for education and training, 22-23 September 2011, Windhoek Namibia.

South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and Commonwealth Secretariat. 2006. The recognition of teacher qualifications and professional

registration status across Commonwealth Member States. Pretoria: SAQA.

Surveying and Spatial Sciences Institute (SSSI). Undated. Professional Qualifications Assessment for Migration Policy. Deakin, Australia: SSSI National Office.

Tromp, F., Rademakers, J.J.D.J.M. and Ten Cate, T.J. 2007. Development of an instrument to assess the professional behaviour of foreign medical graduates. *Medical Teacher*, 29:150-155.

Umalusi, Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training. 2007a. Learning from Africa: comparing syllabuses and examinations in South Africa with those in Ghana, Kenya, and Zambia. Pretoria, South Africa: Umalusi.

Umalusi, Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training. 2007b. Making educational judgments: reflections on judging the standards of intended and examined curricula. Pretoria, South Africa: Umalusi.

Umalusi, Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training. 2010. Evaluating the South African National Senior Certificate (NSC) in relation to selected international qualifications: a self-referencing exercise to determine the standing of the NSC. Pretoria, South Africa: Umalusi.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). 2007. The regional convention on the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific. Seoul, Republic of Korea, May 2007.

University Admissions Centre- New South Wales and Australia Capital Territory. 2012. Accessed at <http://www.uac.edu.au/>, February 2016.

Yildiz, N. 2010. *Reducing brain waste: skilled immigrants and the recognition of foreign credentials in the United States*. Canada: World Education Services.

Acronyms and abbreviations

ABET	Adult Basic Education and Training
AEI	Australian Education International
AG-DEEWR	Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations
ALSET	Australian Law School Entrance Test
ANC	African National Congress
APEC	Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation
AQF	Australian Qualifications Framework
AQFC	Australian Qualifications Framework Council
ASAQS	Association of South African Quantity Surveyors
ASRI	Australian Skills Recognition Information
ATAR	Australian Tertiary Admission Rank
BIBB	Bundes Institut für Berufsbildung
CEDEFOP	European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CEP	Country Education Profile
CIPSET	Centre for Integrated Post-School Education and Training
CRA	Competent Recognition Authority (Australia)
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DDG	Deputy Director General
DEEWR	Department of Education, Employment, and Workplace Relations (Australia)
DFID	Department for International Development
DFQEAS	Directorate: Foreign Qualifications Evaluation and Advisory Services
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training

DIAC	Department of Immigration and Citizenship
DoE	Department of Education
DoL	Department of Labour
ECCSEC	Eastern Cape Consortium for Socio-Economic Cooperation
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
EMIS	Education Management Information System
EPU	Education Policy Unit
EQF	European Qualifications Framework
ESASS	External Summative Assessment (South Africa)
ETF	European Training Foundation
FET	Further Education and Training
FETC	Further Education and Training Certificate
FETI	Further Education and Training institute
FETMIS	Further Education and Training Management Information System
GCC	Government Certificate of Competence
GET	General Education and Training
GFETQSF	General and Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub-Framework
GTZ	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
HDE	Higher Diploma in Education
HE	Higher Education
HED	Higher Education Diploma
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Council
HEQSF	Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework
HRD	Human Resource Development
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
ICASS	Internal Continuous Assessment (South Africa)
IEA	International Engineering Alliance
IELTS	International English Language Testing System

ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPSS	Institute for Post-School Studies
ISAT	Integrated Summative Assessment Task
LMIP	Labour Market Intelligence Project
JET	Joint Education Trust
JIPSA	Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition
MHET	Minister of Higher Education and Training
NATED	National Technical Education
NBI	National Business Initiative
NCOFE	National Commission on Further Education
NCV	National Certificate: Vocational
NCVER	National Centre for Vocational Education Research
NEET	Not in Employment Education or Training
NFQ	National Framework of Qualifications
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NIC	National Information Centre
NMMU	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
NPC	National Planning Commission
NPDE	National Professional Diploma in Education
NPDE:VT	National Professional Diploma in Education for Vocational Teachers
NOOSR	National Office on Overseas Skills Recognition (Australia)
NQAI	National Qualifications Authority of Ireland
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NRCCTE	National Research Centre for Career and Technical Education
NRF	National Research Foundation
NSC	National Senior Certificate
NSDS	National Skills Development Strategy
NWU	North West University
NZQF	New Zealand Qualifications Framework

OBE	Outcomes-Based Education
OET	Occupational English Test
OFO	Organising Framework for Occupations
OQSF	Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework
PoA	Portfolio of Assessment
PoE	Portfolio of Evidence
PSET	Post-School Education and Training
PTE	Pearson Test of English
QCTO	Quality Council for Trades and Occupations
QF-EHEA	Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area
QFUK	Qualifications Framework of the United Kingdom
REAL	Research into Education and Labour, Centre for
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
RQF	Regional Qualifications Framework
RSA	Republic of South Africa
RTO	Registered Training Organisation
SAA	Skills Assessing Authority (Australia)
SAAAD	South African Academy of Aesthetic Dentistry
SAARDHE	South African Association for Research and Development in Higher Education
SACPO	South African College Principals Organisation
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAERA	South African Education Research Association
SAGs	Subject and Assessment Guidelines
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SETA	Sector Education and Training Authority
SIG	Special Interest Group
SSACI	Swiss-South African Cooperation Initiative
STAT	Special Tertiary Admissions Test (Australia)

TAFE	Technical and Further Education
TRA	Trades Recognition Authority (Australia)
TUT	Tshwane University of Technology
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UAC	University Assessment Centre (Australia)
UCT	University of Cape Town
UED	University Education Diploma (Australia)
UFS	University of the Free State
UJ	University of Johannesburg
UK NARIC	United Kingdom National Academic Recognition Information Centre
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNISA	University of South Africa
UP	University of Pretoria
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UWC	University of the Western Cape
VEOP	Vocational Educators Orientation Programme
VET	Vocational Education and Training
VUSSC	Virtual University of Small States of the Commonwealth