



**ASSESSMENT OF NON-FORMAL ADULT EDUCATION AND
TRAINING CENTRES' ENABLING ENVIRONMENTS FOR
EMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY REDUCTION
IN KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA**

by

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ABSTRACT

ASSESSMENT OF NON-FORMAL ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING CENTRES' ENABLING ENVIRONMENTS FOR EMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY REDUCTION IN KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA

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Non-formal adult education and training (NFET) in South Africa was adopted in 1990 with the aim to respond to the learning needs of adults who do not have access to formal education; to increase their employment opportunities; to reduce the high rates of poverty in the country and to enhance social inclusion (Aitchison, 2007:2-4). The study was informed by a concern that graduates from NFET centres in KwaZulu-Natal continue being unemployed and excluded from the labour market.

The goal of the study was to assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in enabling trainees' employment and poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal. The researcher used the mixed methods research approach in conducting the study. Quantitative data was gathered through a survey and qualitative data by means of multiple-case studies and interviews. A total sample of 472 participants was drawn from 21 centres in four districts of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN).

The study's findings indicate that at micro-level, the internal training delivery environments are significantly effective in contributing to technical and business skills acquisition. At macro-level, the policies, regulations and institutional environments create external enabling environments to foster skills utilisation in the labour market. However, at meso-level (centre

level), the weak institutional centre linkages result in graduates not having access to essential post-training support, community resources, public goods and services which could enable them to access employment in KwaZulu-Natal.

The study concludes that NFET programmes can foster adult trainees' employment if the centres create adequate linkages with external enabling environments for skills utilisation in the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal. Adult centres that focus on self-employment in income-generating activities are more likely to create external enabling environments in terms of formal and informal linkages with other stakeholders who provide post-training support to graduates. The study proposes an integrated framework for NFET centres to create the internal and external enabling environments for wage-employment and/or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal. To ensure that the adult NFET programmes lead to employment, a key recommendation from the study is that centre managers should establish strong institutional linkages with community leaders, public agencies and private sectors from the beginning of the training programmes.

Key words:

Adult non-formal education and training

Enabling and disabling environments

Internal and external environments

Human capital theory

KwaZulu-Natal

Labour market segmentation theory

Poverty reduction

Self-employment

Training delivery approach

Wage-employment

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DEDICATION

I humbly dedicate this work to my spiritual parents Rev. Frank and Bonnie Neuenburg of the USA. Into their old age they toiled for my education and have helped me become who I am today. May the Almighty God richly bless you.

Table of Contents

Declaration.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
Acknowledgement.....	iv
Dedication.....	vi
Table of contents.....	vii
List of tables.....	xiv
List of charts.....	xv
Abbreviations and acronyms.....	xvi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Rationale and problem statement.....	6
1.3 Goal and objectives of the study.....	8
1.4 Significance of the study.....	9
1.5 Research methodology.....	10
1.6 Structure of the thesis.....	11
CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	12
2.1 Introduction.....	12
2.2 Theoretical Perspectives on NFET for Employment.....	13
2.2.1 Human capital theory.....	14
2.2.2 Application of human capital theory to NFET for poverty reduction.....	17
2.2.3 Labour market segmentation theory.....	18
2.2.4 Application of labour market segmentation theory to NFET for poverty reduction.....	20
2.3 Conceptual Framework guiding the study	22
2.3.1 Training delivery environment for skills acquisition.....	23
2.3.2 Transforming environments for skills utilisation for employment.....	23
2.3.2.1 The linkages with public institutions and agencies.....	24
2.3.2.2 The linkages with social networks, associations and employers.....	24
2.3.2.3 Support after the completion of training programmes.....	24

2.3.3 The enabling environment for trainee’s micro-enterprises.....	25
2.3.3.1 The legal and regulatory environments for trainee’s micro-enterprises.....	26
2.3.3.2 The SME promotion policies and institutional environments.....	27
2.3.3.3 Small business registration and licensing.....	27
2.3.3.4 Access to credit and financial services.....	28
2.3.3.5 Access to Business Development Services and to business information.....	28
2.3.3.6 The access to business premises.....	29
2.3.3.7 Participation in business networks and associations.....	30
2.4 Summary.....	30

**CHAPTER THREE: REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON NON-FORMAL ADULT
EDUCATION AND TRAINING.....32**

3.1 Introduction.....	32
3.2 Background to Non-formal Adult Education and Training.....	32
3.2.1 The World Declaration on Education for All (1990).....	33
3.2.2 Dakar Framework for Action (2000).....	35
3.3 Brief perspective on provision of Non-formal Education and Training in selected countries.....	37
3.3.1 Provision of non-formal education and training in Denmark.....	38
3.3.1.1 Policies and legal framework of NFET in Denmark.....	38
3.3.1.2 Conceptualisation of NFET in Denmark.....	40
3.3.1.3 Key providers and financial support for NFET in Denmark.....	41
3.3.1.4 The curricula or programmes offered in Denmark.....	41
3.3.2 Provision of non-formal education and training in Germany.....	42
3.3.2.1 Policies and legal framework of NFET in Germany.....	43
3.3.2.2 Key providers and financial support for NFET in Germany.....	43
3.3.3 Provision of non-formal education and training in Ghana.....	45
3.3.3.1 Policies and legal framework of NFET in Ghana.....	45
3.3.3.2 Conceptualisation of NFET in Ghana.....	46
3.3.3.3 Key providers and financial support for NFET in Ghana.....	47
3.3.3.4 The curricula or programmes offered in Ghana.....	47
3.3.4 Provision of non-formal education and training in Ethiopia.....	48
3.3.4.1 Policies and legal framework of NFET in Ethiopia.....	49

3.3.4.2 Conceptualisation of NFET in Ethiopia.....	50
3.3.4.3 Key providers and financial support for NFET in Ethiopia.....	50
3.3.4.4 The curricula or programmes offered in Ethiopia.....	51
3.4 Review of research on Non-formal Adult Education and Training.....	53
3.5 Research on evaluation of Non-formal Adult Education and Training.....	55
3.6 Summary.....	65

CHAPTER FOUR: NON-FORMAL ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR

POVERTY REDUCTION.....66

4.1 Introduction.....	66
4.2 Conceptualising Non-Formal Education and Training.....	66
4.2.1 Background and development of NFET.....	67
4.2.2 The concept of Non-formal Education and Training.....	68
4.2.2.1 Non-formal Education and Training as a system.....	68
4.2.2.2 Non-formal Education and Training as a process.....	69
4.2.2.3 Non-formal Education and Training as a setting.....	69
4. 2.3 Definitions and approaches of NFET.....	70
4.2.4 Types of non-formal education and training.....	72
4.2.4.1 Complementary or compensatory NFET.....	72
4.2.4.2 Supplementary NFET.....	74
4.2.4.3 Alternative NFET.....	75
4.2.5 Current manifestations of NFET.....	75
4.2.5.1 Para-formal forms of NFET.....	76
4.2.5.2 Popular education forms of NFET.....	76
4.2.5.3 Vocational and professional forms of NFET.....	77
4.2.5.4 Literacy with skills development.....	78
4.3 Non-formal Adult Education and Training in South Africa.....	79
4.3.1 The background for Non-formal Adult Training in South Africa.....	79
4.3.2 Policy framework for Non-formal Adult Training.....	81
4.3.3 The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the formalisation of NFET.....	82
4.4 Understanding the links between NFET and poverty reduction.....	83
4.4.1 Defining poverty.....	84
4.4.2 Different types of poverty.....	85

4.4.2.1 Absolute and relative poverty.....	85
4.4.2.2 Chronic and transitory poverty.....	85
4.4.3 Non-formal Education and Training and poverty reduction.....	86
4.4.4 NFET, poverty reduction and the need for an enabling environment.....	87
4.5 The enabling/disabling environments for graduates entering the labour market.....	88
4.5.1 The legal and regulatory environments for NFET.....	88
4.5.1.1 Skills Development Act, 37 of 2008.....	89
4.5.1.2 Framework for the National Skills Development Strategy III: 2011/2012-2015/16.....	89
4.5.1.3 Education and Training Quality Assurance (ETQA).....	91
4.5.2 SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises.....	92
4.5.2.1 Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act 53 of 2003.....	92
4.5.2.2 Integrated Small Enterprise Development Strategy (ISED) of 2004-2014.....	93
4.5.2.3 Small Business Development Agency.....	94
4.5.2.4 Ithala Development Finance Corporation.....	94
4.5.2.5 KwaZulu-Natal - SMME and Co-operative Strategies.....	95
4.6 Summary.....	96
CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	99
5.1 Introduction.....	99
5.2 Research approach.....	99
5.3 Type of research.....	100
5.4 Research design.....	100
5.5 Research methods.....	103
5.5.1 Study population and sampling.....	104
5.5.1.1 Sampling method for the NFET centres.....	105
5.5.1.2 Sampling method for managers.....	107
5.5.1.3 Sampling method for trainers (instructors).....	107
5.5.1.4 Sampling method for trainees.....	108
5.5.2 Data collection.....	109
5.5.2.1 Quantitative methods of data collection.....	110
5.5.2.2 Qualitative methods of data collection.....	111
5.5.2.2.1 Field observations.....	111
5.5.2.2.2 Document analysis.....	113

5.5.2.2.2 Semi-structured interviews.....	114
5.5.2.3 Pilot Study.....	115
5.6 Data analysis.....	117
5.7 Reliability and trustworthiness of research data.....	119
5.8 Ethical considerations.....	121
5.9 Limitations of the study.....	125
5.10 Summary.....	126

CHAPTER SIX: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS ON NFET CENTRES' INTERNAL

ENABLING ENVIRONMENTS FOR EMPLOYMENT127

6.1 Introduction.....	127
6.2 Profile of NFET centres.....	128
6.2.1 Types and areas of NFET centres.....	128
6.2.2 Types of training programmes offered at the NFET centres.....	130
6.2.2.1 Centres' skills training and duration of training courses.....	132
6.2.2.2 Trainee selection criteria of NFET centres' training programmes.....	134
6.2.2.3 Sources of financial support at the NFET centres.....	136
6.3 Socio-economic characteristics of the trainees.....	138
6.3.1 Demographic characteristics of the sample trainees.....	138
6.3.2 Economic status of trainees.....	142
6.3.3 Trainee's skills training course.....	143
6.4 Skills training and internal enabling environments for skill acquisition.....	145
6.4.1 Access to training programmes.....	145
6.4.1.1 Training needs assessment at the NFET centres.....	146
6.4.1.2 Trainee's main expectations after graduating from training programmes.....	149
6.4.1.3 Training content relevance.....	153
6.4.2 Internal training delivery environment for skills acquisition.....	156
6.4.2.1 Challenges in human and material resources.....	156
6.4.2.2 Mode and approach of internal training delivery for skills acquisition.....	160
6.4.2.3 Assessment and certification.....	172
6.4.3 Effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment.....	173
6.4.3.1 Skills acquisition by the trainees.....	173
6.4.3.2 Business skills and knowledge.....	174

6.4.4 Post-training activities of NFET graduates in the labour market.....	175
6.5 Summary.....	180
CHAPTER SEVEN: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS ON THE NFET CENTRES' EXTERNAL ENABLING ENVIRONMENTS FOR EMPLOYMENT.....	183
7.1 Introduction.....	184
7.2 The effectiveness of the external environment in fostering the utilisation of skills into employment.....	184
7.2.1 Wage-employment of the trainees.....	184
7.2.1.1 Types of wage-employment of trainees by centre areas.....	186
7.2.1.2 Means of getting jobs.....	186
7.2.1.3 Post-training support for wage-employment.....	188
7.2.2 Self-employment of the trainees.....	190
7.2.2.1 Types of small businesses and business ownership.....	190
7.2.2.2 Sources of start-up capital.....	191
7.2.2.3 Causes of business failure.....	194
7.2.2.4 Post-training support for micro-enterprise development.....	196
7.3 Transforming external environment fostering the utilisation of skills into employment.....	204
7.4 A comparative analysis of enabling environments of public and private NFET centres.....	207
7.4.1 Public adult education and training centres.....	208
7.4.1.1 Case study A: AET centre in urban area.....	208
7.4.1.2 Case study B: AET centre in peri-urban area.....	210
7.4.2 Private adult education and training centres.....	212
7.4.2.1 Case study C: NGO centre in urban area.....	213
7.4.2.2 Case study D: Faith-based organisation centre in urban area.....	214
7.4.2.3 Case study E: Church-based CBO centre in peri-urban area.....	216
7.4.3 Discussion of the case studies.....	218
7.5 The enabling/disabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market.....	220
7.5.1 SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises.....	221
7.5.1.1 Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act 53 of 2003.....	221

7.5.1.2 Integrated Small Enterprise Development Strategy (ISED) in KZN.....	221
7.5.1.3 Small Business Development Agency (SEDA).....	222
7.5.1.4 Ithala Development Finance Corporation.....	223
7.5.1.5 KwaZulu-Natal SMME and Co-operative Strategies.....	223
7.5.2 Access to credit and financial services.....	224
7.5.2.1 Reasons for not applying for a bank loan.....	225
7.5.2.2 Unsuccessful loan application and challenges in accessing credit.....	227
7.5.3 Small business registration and licensing.....	232
7.5.4 Access to Business Development Services and information.....	235
7.5.5 Access to business premises.....	236
7.6 Case studies of five self-employed trainees.....	240
7.6.1 Case study 1: A sewing graduate in a tailoring micro-enterprise.....	241
7.6.2 Case study 2: A sewing graduate in a tailoring micro-enterprise.....	243
7.6.3 Case study 3: A basic paramedic graduate in ambulance service business.....	244
7.6.4 Case study 4: Agricultural technology and SMME graduates in a co-operative.....	245
7.6.5 Case study 5: A beauty training graduate in a beauty training academy and salon.....	247
7.6.6 Main observations from the case studies of five self-employed trainees.....	248
7.7 Summary.....	252

CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION OF KEY FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	256
8.1 Introduction.....	256
8.2 Discussion of the Key Findings in Relation to Research Questions.....	256
8.2.1 Key findings 1: Internal enabling environments for skills acquisition.....	256
8.2.2 Key findings 2: Internal disabling environments for skills acquisition.....	258
8.2.3 Key findings 3: External enabling environments fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment.....	262
8.2.4 Key findings 4: External disabling environments fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment.....	264
8.2.5 Key findings 5: External enabling environments for graduates entering the labour market.....	267
8.2.6 Key findings 6: External disabling environments for graduates entering the labour market.....	268

8.3 Goal and objectives of the study.....	271
8.3.1 Objective 1.....	272
8.3.2 Objective 2.....	273
8.3.3 Objective 3.....	273
8.3.4 Objective 4.....	274
8.3.5 Objective 5.....	275
8.4 Conclusions.....	275
8.5 Recommendations.....	278
8.5.1 Institutional centre linkages and planning.....	280
8.5.2 Identification of labour market opportunities.....	280
8.5.3 Training needs assessment and trainee selection criteria for training programmes.....	280
8.5.4 Preparing the delivery environment for skills acquisition.....	280
8.5.5 Promoting trainee entrepreneurship.....	281
8.5.6 Providing post-training support.....	281
8.5.7 Utilising SME policies and institutional environments.....	282
8.5.8 Access to credit and financial services.....	282
8.6 Further research.....	282

List of tables

Table 4.1: NFET as a system.....	68
Table 5.1: Summary of population, samples and data instruments.....	109
Table 6.1: Distribution of the type of the NFET centres by districts.....	129
Table 6.2: Types of training programmes according to nature of the centre.....	131
Table 6.3: Training courses offered at the centres by centre areas.....	133
Table 6.4: Marital status of the sample of trainees by age cohorts.....	140
Table 6.5: Distribution of trainees' skills training course by areas of residence.....	144
Table 6.7: Expectations after graduating from training centre by centre type.....	149
Table 6.8: Training relevance according to trainees' expectations after graduation.....	154
Table 6.9: Challenges facing the delivery environment for skills acquisition.....	156
Table 6.10: Approach of training delivery by type of the centres.....	160
Table 6.11: Business skills acquisition by types of the centres.....	174
Table 6.12: The distribution of types of work before training by post-training occupations.....	176

Table 6.13: The post-training occupations by main expectation after graduating.....	177
Table 6.14: The relationship between trainees’ training courses and employability.....	178
Table 7.1: Distribution of types of wage-employment of trainees by centre areas.....	185
Table 7.2: Distribution of means of getting wage-employment types of respondents.....	186
Table 7.3: Post-training support for wage-employment by type of centres.....	189
Table 7.4: The distribution of trainees’ current types of small businesses.....	190
Table 7.5: Sources for start-up capital for small business.....	192
Table 7.6: Themes for small business sustainability.....	195
Table 7.7: Post-training support for self-employment by type of centres.....	196
Table 7.8: Comparative analysis of case study programmes by content.....	219
Table 7.9: Reasons for not applying for a bank loan to start a small business.....	226
Table 7.10: Reasons for unsuccessful loan applications to the banks	227
Table 7.11: Summary of the challenges in accessing credit and the consequences.....	232
Table 7.12: Sources of business information and advice.....	235
Table 7.13: Themes and sub-themes emerging from case studies of self-employed trainees....	249
Table 8.1: The integrated framework of NFET for employment.....	278

List of charts

Chart 6.1: Geographical distribution of the centre areas by type of the NFET centres.....	130
Chart 6.2: Trainee selection criteria of the centre’s training programme.....	135
Chart 6.3: Gender composition of the trainees.....	138
Chart 6.4: Age distribution of the trainees.....	139
Chart 6.5: Highest level of formal schooling of the trainees.....	141
Charts 6.6: Type of work before joining adult training centre.....	143
Chart 6.7: The focus of training needs assessment for trainees by area.....	147
Chart 6.8: The focus of training needs assessment to the trainees by centre type.....	147
Chart 6.9: Major expectations after graduating from training by age cohorts.....	151
Chart 6.10: The wage- and self-employment of the trainees by types of the centres.....	175
Chart 7.1: Business ownership.....	191
Chart 7.2: Causes of business failure by type of centre.....	194
Chart 7.3: A comparative analysis between types of linkages according to type of centres.....	204
Chart 7.4: Is the cost of legal services the main challenge in registering a small business?.....	233

Chart 7.5: The extent of the challenges in accessing business premises.....237

REFERENCES.....283

Annexure

Appendix 1A: Questionnaire for Trainees.....299

Appendix 1B: Interview Schedule for Self-Employed Trainees.....310

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Trainers.....312

Appendix 3A: Questionnaire for Centre Managers.....321

Appendix 3B: Interview Schedule for Centre Managers.....330

Appendix 4A: Informed Consent Form: Trainees/Learners..... 332

Appendix 4B: Informed Consent Form: Trainees/Learners (Zulu).....334

Appendix 5A: Informed Consent Form: Trainers.....336

Appendix 5B: Informed Consent Form: Trainers (Zulu).....338

Appendix 6A: Informed Consent Form: Centre managers.....340

Appendix 6B: Informed Consent Form: Centre managers (Zulu).....342

Appendix 7: Ethical Clearance.....344

Appendix 8A: Permission Letter to Conduct Research in the KZN-DoE Institutions345

Appendix 8B: Permission Letter to Conduct Research-Private Centres.....446

Abbreviations and acronyms

AET	Adult Education and Training
BDS	Business Development Services
CBO	Community-Based Organisation
DFID	Department for International Development
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry (South Africa)
EFA	Education for All
ETQA	Education and Training Quality Assurance (South Africa)
FBO	Faith-based Organisation
FET	Further Education and Training (colleges)
GHK	Goldman Hodgkin Katz
IGAs	Income-generating activities
ILO	International Labour Office

MFI	Micro Finance Institution
NFED	Non-Formal Education Division (Ghana)
NFET	Non-formal Education and Training
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NPOs	Non-profit Organisations
NQF	National Qualifications Framework (South Africa)
SEDA	Small Enterprise Development Agency (South Africa)
SETA	Sectoral Education and Training Authority (South Africa)
SMME	Small, Medium, and Micro-Enterprise
SME	Small Micro-Enterprise
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
TNA	Training Need Assessment
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal Province (South Africa)
KZN-DoE	KZN-Department of Education
RSA	Republic of South Africa
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Science and Cultural Organization

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Of all the problems facing humankind, poverty is among the most persistent and shameful. The poor suffer more from disease, and their hopeless condition leads some of them into lives of crime, drugs and armed conflict (Kutler & Lee, 2009; UNESCO, 2011:160). When describing the living conditions in the rural areas, one of the 40 poor women who participated in the non-formal adult education and training project organised by Reflect Network in Mandene, Northern KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), said: “We are above the dead and below the living” (Reflect Network, 2011). In KwaZulu-Natal many individuals and households can hardly afford three meals a day (Mosoetsa, 2011:25). This is due to absolute poverty caused by limited employable skills among adults on the one hand and on the other, the lack of employment opportunities in the province. As a result, poor people may resent their social exclusion and respond to the apparent injustice through developing coping strategies with negative effects for themselves, their communities and society as a whole.

There is a spatial distribution of poverty according to provinces in South Africa. Different studies on poverty in South Africa (KZN Department of Health, 2010; Provide project, 2009, May, 2010) suggest that three provinces, namely KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo are the poorest among the nine provinces in the country. The households in these three provinces are living on less than R800 per month ranging between 63% and 82% (May, 2010:2). According to May (2010:59), since the inception of the post-apartheid elected government in 1994, poverty reduction has become an increasingly significant developmental concern in South African policies.

Poverty due to unemployment among non-educated and unskilled adults has increased more than was expected in the post-apartheid period (Anderson, 2012; May, 2010; Mosoetsa, 2011; Soobramoney, 2011). A lack of education and training among poor adults is a significant contributor to unemployment and poverty. To address the problem of unemployment due to lack of livelihood skills, the South African government implemented skills training programmes for adults to improve the livelihoods of poor people. Adult Education and Training (AET) is among those programmes. Non-formal adult education and training (NFET) has been formalised with

its inclusion in the Adult Education and Training (AET) Act 25 of 2010 (Adult Education and Training Act 25 of 2010). In addition, the concept non-formal adult education and training (NFET) in South Africa was adopted in 1990 with the aim to respond to the learning needs of adults who did not have access to formal education; to increase their employment opportunities; to reduce the high rates of poverty in South Africa, and to enhance social inclusion (Aitchison, 2007:2-4). Providing NFET to special target groups in South Africa is meant to assist those adults who have no access to formal vocational training systems, like Further Education and Training (FET) colleges (DHET, 2012).

The provision of educational and training opportunities to adults is rooted in social empowerment and transformation strategies. Central to the provision is ensuring that all unemployed adult citizens of KZN are either wage-employed or self-employed (KZN, 2013:55-59; KZN-DoE, 2011:5, 6). The NFET programme in KZN targets out-of-school and socio-economically vulnerable adults (such as orphans, street youth and domestic workers) from marginalised rural and urban-slum communities. In order to empower vulnerable and marginalised adults, KZN government promotes vocational and livelihood training in different adult education and training centres (KZN-DoE, 2012:13; KZN, 2012:36). All these endeavours aim at:

- Equipping vulnerable youth and adults from marginalised communities with entrepreneurial and related functional literacy skills;
- Creating sustainable learning opportunities that nurture adult empowerment and socio-economic inclusion;
- Providing out-of-school adults from marginalised communities with marketable livelihood/vocational skills in order to enhance their employment (formal and/or informal) opportunities; or venture into business enterprises;
- Empowering poor adults to establish viable income generating projects (poverty reduction) (Aitchison, 2007:2-4; KZN-DoE, 2012:13).

In 2012, there were 55,03848 adults enrolled in 1,094 adult education and training centres (KZN-DoE, 2012:14). According to the Provincial Growth and Development Plan (KZN, 2012:38), by 2020 the target is 69,000 and this should rise to 83,000 by 2030. Other beneficiaries that are circumstantially serviced by the adult centres are orphans who are taking

care of families and cannot therefore attend day school; street youth, and youths born to parents who are street vendors who do not have a fixed income (KZN, 2012:13).

The KZN Department of Education offers two important types of NFET programmes for poor adults. The first type is linked to high school equivalency or ‘second chance’ schooling (KZN-DoE, 2011:36). The programmes provide an educational level equivalent to the Adult Secondary Education Curriculum for Adults (KZN-DoE, 2011:36). Both the KZN Department of Education and NGOs developed high school equivalent programmes specifically tailored for adults and out of school youth (KZN-DoE, 2011:36). Its exams are administered by the Independent Examination Board and officially recognised by the Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training (Umalusi).

The second type is AET level 4 which is linked to livelihood skills. This type of NFET programmes is significant for the focus of this study. It encompasses skills training to be utilised in the workplace or livelihoods and entrepreneurial training for unemployed adults (KZN-DoE, 2012:17). The adult education and training centres involved in this type of adult education and training provide technical and entrepreneurial skills to rural and urban adults to enable them to take up self-employment or wage-employment in the field of agriculture, industry, services and small business activities. The KZN Department of Education and NGOs implementing these NFET programmes aim at preparing adult trainees for employment at semi-skilled levels including programmes starting an own business, or which contribute to the promotion of income-generating activities.

This study has looked at the problem of poverty due to unemployment through the lens of non-formal adult education and training (NFET). The non-formal education and training system has emerged as a very promising alternative to the formal education system in an effort to make educational opportunities available to a larger population (Georgiadou, Kekkeris & Kalantzis, 2009:81). The study was conducted among those community members who have difficulty in generating incomes and have not enough income to become self-sufficient in order to enjoy a reasonable quality of life. The study focused on identifying and assessing the internal and external environments of adult NFET programmes in enabling adult trainees to access employment in KwaZulu-Natal. In order to conclude on the ‘enabling’ environments which lie at the centre of the effectiveness of NFET, the research also had to expose the ‘disabling’

environments underpinning NFET programmes towards this end. The key concepts for the study are defined as follows:

Adult

The study adopted the definition of ‘adult’ in the context of the South African legal age of majority which is 18 years old as stated in the Children’s Act 38 of 2005 (Children’s Act 38 of 2005). At this age a person is considered to have attained physical, mental, emotional and social maturity (Mahery & Proudlock, 2008). In South Africa, a person reaching the age of majority has voting rights; is able to conclude legal contracts without parental assistance (e.g. employment contracts); can sue or be sued in his/her own name; and can acquire a domicile of choice (Mahery & Proudlock, 2008).

Education

The concept ‘education’ refers to those activities that provide the knowledge, skills and moral values that individuals need in daily life in order to participate in the cultural and political life of the community (Singh, 2005:ix; Erasmus, 2010:2).

Training

The term ‘training’ refers to the acquisition of knowledge, practical skills and competencies of an adult to perform a task, job or occupation to a benchmarked level (Erasmus, 2010:2). Contrary to education, training is “task oriented” because it focuses on the work to be performed in an organisation (Singh, 2005:ix). From an adult learning point of view towards self-employment, training in this study also refers to the foundational income-generating or occupational skills that adults require to improve their livelihoods and living conditions (Erasmus, 2010: 2; Singh, 2005:ix).

Non-formal education and training (NFET)

NFET reflects a combination of the terms ‘non-formal’, ‘education’ and ‘training’ and refers to a skills programme carried out outside the framework of the established education system that involves foundational knowledge, technical and manual skills, entrepreneurial skills and competencies tailored to the specific requirements of a gainful employment or self-employment (DVV International, 2011:4; McKay, 2007:291; Erasmus, 2010:2). Furthermore, NFET is linked

to self-employment for people who are currently not self-sufficient and who are at or below the poverty line, and to the informal sector where jobs are scarce (Rogers, 2004:78).

Poverty reduction

This study considered two conditions of poverty; namely absolute and social exclusion (Loewen, 2009:5). Absolute poverty refers to a lack of resources to meet the physical needs for survival; its poverty alleviation goal is to meet basic needs (Loewen, 2009:5). Poverty as social exclusion is a process of deprivation and marginalisation that isolates people from the social and economic activities of a society; its poverty reduction goal is inclusion (Loewen, 2009:5). King and Palmer (2006:7) suggest that poverty reduction, in the true sense, is “reducing the numbers of poor people and/or transforming poor people into non-poor people.” Within the context of this study, poverty reduction is any process which seeks to decrease the level of poverty in a community, or amongst a group of people.

Enabling environments for NFET

Enabling environments refer to internal and external factors to the NFET centre which create conducive conditions for skills acquisition and skills utilisation in the employment or helping NFET graduates start their own small enterprises in a sustained and effective manner (King & Palmer, 2006:19; World Bank, 2004:188). Thus, the NFET centre has both internal and external enabling environments.

Palmer (2007a:74) describes internal enabling environments as consisting of the delivery environment for skills acquisition (the availability and quality of trainers; learning materials, centre management/governance; training contents, school infrastructure and workshops); the promotion of trainees’ entrepreneurship; the post-training support (follow-up, mentorship and technology). The external enabling environments of the NFET centre consist of linkages with other sectors, including community agencies, organisations and institutions for fostering the utilisation of skills learnt from centres; the law and regulations; the access to credit and financial services; access to business development services, to business premises, and access to markets (ILO, 2007:7; Stevenson & St-Onge, 2011:12). If these linkages are not in place, the environments are disabling. Therefore, both the internal and external environments for NFET can be enabling or disabling.

Employment

Employment is the state of having a paid work and encompasses both wage-employment and self-employment aimed at improving trainees' livelihoods and living conditions (Erasmus, 2010: 2; Singh, 2005:ix). Wage-employment refers to a fixed regular payment earned for work or services, typically paid on a daily, weekly or monthly basis (*Oxford Dictionary of English*, 2010). Self-employment refers to trainees who establish their own businesses, work for and rely on themselves for their primary source of income (Gale, 2011: 3).

1.2 Rationale and problem statement

The rationale to conduct this study stems from the fact that firstly, in KwaZulu-Natal 5.3 million people are living in poverty and 1.2 million people can hardly afford three meals a day (May, 2010; Provide Project, 2009). This is due to absolute poverty caused by limited employable skills among adults on the one hand, and on the other, the lack of employment opportunities in the province. Secondly, tackling poverty is a high priority in KZN's Provincial Growth and Development Plan 2011 - 2030 (KZN, 2013). The goal of the socio-economic plan is to improve the economic living standard and social well-being of the citizens (KZN, 2013). Central to this plan is the aim to increase the capacity of people to produce goods and services; that is, to generate income (KZN, 2013:55-59) and hence to reduce poverty.

In order to achieve this aim, one of the outlined strategies is to develop occupational skills and knowledge, and to ensure that these are utilised to generate income (KZN, 2013:55-59). Similarly, the purpose of Adult Education and Training as stated by DVV International (2011:4) is "helping people and giving them opportunities to learn and practice the skills they need to improve the conditions under which they live and shape their own lives." Thus, the achievement of this plan will empower adults in KZN to enjoy a better quality of life.

The Adult Education and Training Act 25 of 2010 is the South African government's response to adult unemployment and poverty due to a lack of education and training. It is also intended to compensate those adults, including parents, who sacrificed their education and training during the struggle against apartheid and who were left without any skills to fend for themselves (Naidoo, 2007:6). Under the said Act, Non-formal Adult Education and Training programmes aim at reducing poverty and social exclusion of adults in South Africa. To this end, the Act

stipulates that NFET centres, in collaboration with government departments, together with agencies concerned, private institutions and various stakeholders should create an enabling environment for the utilisation of the skills learnt from NFET centres in the labour market (Adult Education and Training Act 25 of 2010).

However, as the literature review for this study reveals, the current problem is that there is a missing link between NFET programmes and adult employment and/or the labour market. Adult trainees find it difficult to be integrated in the labour market or participate in the economic activities of KZN (Aitchison, 2007; Mjoli, 2007). As a result, they face double social exclusion, namely a lack of participation in market opportunities and as a consequence chronic poverty due to long-term unemployment. It appears that the knowledge gap is not as much about skills development but about enabling environments for employment. The Green Paper for Post-School Education and Training of 30 April 2012 affirms that a lack of enabling environments impedes the effectiveness of AET including NFET (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012:10, 31). The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) has acknowledged the fact that without tackling the problem of a lack of enabling environments, NFET cannot result in poverty reduction in communities. The Green Paper mentions that “the current system of provision for adult learners and young people who dropped out of school before completing is inadequate” (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012:31). In other words, the exclusive focus in the current AET approach to general education often means that programmes fail to attract large numbers of poor adults interested in entering the labour market.

Against the foregoing background, the concern that underpinned the problem statement for this study is that adults who face long-term unemployment, due to a lack of marketable skills, continue being unemployed after completing NFET programmes. In the context of KZN, research shows that NFET centres and their adult trainees continue to experience challenges due to the insufficiency of enabling environments (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012:10, 32; Aitchison, 2007:7). A study conducted by Mjoli (2007:78) in the KwaZulu-Natal Poultry Institute (KZNPI) also revealed that most trainees in this NFET programme, after having been taught income-generating skills, are left without any post-training assistance and support to get employment or to start their own businesses. In addition to NFET graduates not

being wage-employed in formal or informal sectors, it was also not clear why adult trainees do not enter self-employment after obtaining the required skills.

Despite widespread concerns expressed in the literature about the exclusion of NFET graduates from the labour market, remarkably little attention has been focused on analysing the internal and external enabling environments of NFET centres; attempting to understand the nature of the problem, and what should be done to solve it. Therefore, the study focused on assessing the internal and external enabling environments in relation to the centres for non-formal education and training connecting skills acquisition to labour market success or creating own micro-enterprises for adult trainees.

The main research question was: To what extent do the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres foster trainees' employment in KwaZulu-Natal?

The sub-questions supporting the main question were the following:

- To what extent does the internal/ training delivery environment of the NFET centre contribute to skills acquisition?
- How effective is the external environment in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal?
- To what extent do the external enabling and disabling environments influence the graduates entering the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal?
- How can the disabling environments be improved to contribute to the coordinated efforts for wage- employment and/or self-employment capacity of NFET's graduates?

1.3 Goal and objectives of the study

The goal of the study was to assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in enabling trainees' employment and poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal.

Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were:

- To conceptualise non-formal adult education and training for employment within the context of human capital and labour market segmentation theories;
- To assess the effectiveness of the training delivery internal environment of NFET centres contributing to skills acquisition;
- To assess the effectiveness of the external environment in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal;
- To assess the influence of the external enabling and disabling environments on the graduates entering the labour market, whether in wage- or self-employment in KwaZulu-Natal;
- To propose an integrated framework for NFET programmes that matches adult training and labour market with regard to both wage-employment and self-employment.

1.4 Significance of the study

The study intended to contribute to the knowledge and practice of NFET by understanding how NFET programmes can be constituted for employment within the context of human capital and labour market segmentation theories by recognising relationships and interdependence between micro-, meso- and macro- levels of environments. Furthermore, the study intended to contribute to effective NFET training by demonstrating what constitutes an enabling environment and in addition, how the internal and external disabling environments can be improved to contribute to coordinated efforts for wage- employment and/or self-employment capacity of NFET's graduates.

The study has foreseen the following implications for policy:

- Making the NFET programmes market and demand-oriented in order to provide adults with skills which can be applied to produce goods and services; hence to generate income;
- Linking NFET programmes with supporting institutions in order for graduates to apply the newly acquired skills in employment opportunities in their communities;

- Developing curricula, handbooks and manuals for trainers and coordinators, teaching and learning materials;
- Upgrading and enabling NFET centres in KwaZulu-Natal to become officially recognised providers of demand-oriented training programmes for income-generating activities of adults who are poor.

1.5 Research methodology

The researcher used the mixed methods research approach in conducting the study. According to Creswell (2009:4) mixed methods research is an approach which combines both qualitative and quantitative approaches. This research approach allowed the researcher to view a particular aspect of the internal and external enabling environments of NFET centres from more than one perspective.

The study utilised mixed methods (triangulation) research design. Triangulation consists of combining both quantitative and qualitative research designs (Sarantakos, 2005:46). The type of qualitative design used was multiple-case studies (Kumar, 2011:126) and the quantitative design was a survey (Fouché, Delport & De Vos, 2011:155).

The population for the study comprised all the adult NFET centres, managers, trainers and their adult trainees in KwaZulu-Natal. For the purpose of this study, a mixed stratified and purposive sampling method was used to draw the sample from the KZN's Department of Education districts of Umlazi, Pinetown, ILembe and uMgungundlovu (Msunduzi). Data collection methods consisted of both document analysis and field work (Kumar, 2011:163). The document analysis entailed NFET centre reports, published and unpublished documents related to the purpose of the study (Kumar, 2011:163). The field work or primary data collection involved survey questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and field observations from adult trainees, managers and trainers of the NFET centres. An in-depth discussion of the research methodology and the ethical aspects pertaining to the study is presented in Chapter Five.

1.6 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is organised in eight chapters. Chapter One presents an overview of the study topic, including the problem statement, research questions, goal and objectives, a brief overview of the research methodology and the chapter outline of the thesis. Chapter Two discusses the theoretical framework underpinning the study, namely human capital and labour market segmentation theories. Chapter Three presents a literature review on previous studies and evaluations of NFET. It broadly reviews research in the field of Non-formal Adult Education and Training, then narrows the focus on evaluation of Non-formal Adult Education and Training programmes aiming at providing poor adults from marginalised communities with marketable livelihood/vocational skills in order to enhance their employment opportunities or to establish viable income generating projects.

Chapter Four conceptualises non-formal adult education and training for employment. The chapter provides a detailed overview of the background of NFET and its adoption in South Africa. It also examines the concepts of poverty; and the links between NFET and employment and poverty reduction. Chapter Five focuses on the research approach, type of research, research design and research methods, including the sampling procedure, data collection, data analysis and a discussion on the reliability and trustworthiness of the data. The chapter also includes the ethical considerations of the study and limitations of the study. Chapter Six presents and discusses the empirical findings on the NFET centres' internal enabling environments for employment. Chapter Seven focuses on the external enabling environments in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal at macro-level. Finally, Chapter Eight presents the key findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Introduction

Adult unemployment is a growing concern in South Africa and especially in KwaZulu-Natal Province (Anderson, 2012:1394). This is due to absolute poverty caused by limited employable skills among adults, on one hand; and on the other, the lack of employment opportunities in the province (Soobramoney, 2011:4). Long-term unemployment increases the difficulty to entry into the work force, especially in the formal sector. Non-formal education and training (NFET) is intended to be a strategy to expand opportunities for marginalised groups to bridge unemployment and employment. NFET is perceived as a ‘second chance education’ to those who had been ‘pushed out’ from the formal system (Kedrayate, 2012:12). Most adults who enrol in the NFET for employable skills acquisition are those who had no chance to attend the formal education system or to complete school due to certain circumstances in life.

This chapter discusses the controversy on the assumption that there is or should be a direct link between adult skills training and employment. It examines in detail this assumed link through the lens of the human capital theory and labour market segmentation theory. For this purpose, two basic questions are addressed: What contribution does the human capital theory make in understanding the relationship between adult NFET and employment, and what contribution does the labour market segmentation theory make in understanding the effectiveness of NFET? The discussion starts by analysing both theories, followed by an application of the respective theories to the study.

These two theories will be presented as the conceptual framework of the study which entails two main environments: The training delivery environment for skills acquisition (internal enabling environment); and the transforming environment fostering the utilisation of skills into employment (both internal and external enabling environments). Furthermore, the discussion will focus on the enabling and disabling environments (external to the centre) for trainees who are interested in self-employment by establishing micro-enterprises. Finally, the chapter will be concluded by explaining interdependence between both theories.

2.2. Theoretical perspectives on NFET for employment

Adult education and training programmes present a different aspect from vocational training. When searching for suitable theories guiding the study and writing down the ideas, the researcher was confronted with a challenging question to answer, namely: Is adult education and training for a certificate or for both wage-employment and self-employment? On one side of the coin, a certificate is important because it is a testimonial of a certain knowledge and skills acquisition. On the other, nowadays, training alone is no longer a guarantee for a job. The essence of the latter view is that adults do not need a certificate for prestige, rather a sustainable job to support their families. In some cases, adults with skills can get a sustainable job without a certificate.

Since its inception in the 1960s and 1970s NFET has been perceived to be a remedy in linking unemployable adults to the world of work. It was also perceived to offer a ‘second chance education’ to those who had been ‘pushed out’ from the formal system. It was mentioned in Chapter One (see 1.1), in the context of KZN, a lack of education and training among poor adults is a significant contributor to unemployment and poverty. It has been argued that without education people are frequently constrained to a life of poverty; whereas those who gain education and training are likely to be employed (May & Woolard, 2007:11). The main argument for this view is that providing skills training to adults enhances their employability.

Nevertheless, practitioners in the field of adult education and training cast doubt on the link between adult education and training and employment (Palmer, 2007b:410; Palmer, 2008:42; King, 2011:2). The proponents of the opposing view argue that this link is not automatic because adult skills training for employment does not and cannot exist in a vacuum. Rather, it operates within a political, social and economic context and it is subject to regulatory and institutional constraints (World Bank, 2004:188; Palmer, 2007b:410; Garcia & Fares, 2008:62; Palmer, 2008:42; King, 2011:2).

The two divergent views on the relationship between NFET and employment can be better understood by using appropriate theories to conceptualise the link. This section will address the two opposing views and then reconcile them to argue the link between adult NFET programmes and employment in KwaZulu-Natal. It will be outlined that the human capital and labour market

segmentation theories provide a conceptual framework to develop a better understanding of the potential reasons for failure of trainees to enter into the labour market; thus why adult NFET programmes are not effective in finding or creating a job which, in turn, impacts on poverty reduction. The following discussion will focus on the components of both theories and apply them in the context of non-formal adult education and training in KwaZulu-Natal. Although they apparently are opposing to each other, it will be argued that their application to the study and objectives of NFET, which is to facilitate the integration of poor adults into the labour market, are in fact complementary.

2.2.1. Human capital theory

Human capital theory has been used to explain the relationship between education and training and employment success. Before examining the meaning of human capital theory and its link to the present study, it is pertinent to understand the concept of “human capital”. The concept “human capital” refers to knowledge, skills, attitudes and other acquired traits and developed economic production (Fleischhauer, 2007:4). Fleischhauer (2007:4) further points out that it also refers to “the productive capacities of human beings as income-producing agents in an economy.” This definition is similar to that of the Department for International Development [DFID] (1999:2) which states that, “Human capital represents the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve their livelihood objectives.” From this concept of human capital derived the human capital theory.

The human capital theory was developed by Theodore Schultz in 1960s (Quintini, 2011:8; Desjardins & Rubenson, 2011:15). It was then applied in economics by Becker (in 1962 and 1964) and Mincer (1958, 1962, and 1974). In 1960, Theodore Schultz became the President of the American Economic Association (AEA). In this presidential speech to AEA, Schultz expressed his views on the effect a person’s investment in education and training can have on the potential for productivity in an economic system - the impact of human capital (Fleischhauer, 2007:5). The problem behind the origin of human capital theory is that unemployment rates tend to be inversely related to the level of education and skills (Becker, 1993:30).

Human capital theory suggests that education or training raises the productivity of workers by imparting useful knowledge and skills, hence raising workers' future income by increasing their lifetime earnings (Furia, Castagna, Mattoscio, Scamuffa, 2010:1141). Key to the human capital theory is the concept that acquisition of more knowledge and skills raises the value of a person's human capital, thereby increasing their employability, income potential and productivity (FengLiang, Xiaohao & Morgan, 2009:374). Olaniyan and Okemakinde (2008:158) argue that the human capital theory emphasises the role of education in increasing the productivity and efficiency of workers by increasing the level of cognitive stock of economically productive human capability which is a product of innate abilities and investment in human beings. The human capital theorists argue that an educated or skill trained population is a productive population (Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008:158).

The significant aspect of the human capital theory is that there is a linkage between education or training and job opportunities. FengLiang, et al. (2009:374) point out that, "Human capital theory suggests that education directly augments individual skills and the ability to profit in the labour market." The logic is that individuals who benefited from better education have a higher productivity and the capacity to earn more. In a similar vein, Furia, et al. (2010:1141) argues that there is a large body of empirical evidence indicating that individuals with a high level of education face a relatively low unemployment risk. In the view of human capital theory, it is argued that there is a two-way relationship between schooling and unemployment (Robert, 2008:14-15). On the one hand, education reduces the incidence and the duration of unemployment for an individual (McGrath & Akoojee, 2007:423). On the other hand, unemployment increases the demand for education and training, thus tending to distort the decision of individuals to invest in education and training (Furia, et al., 2010:1141).

Human capital theory proponents assume that there is a single, effective and fair labour market that distributes jobs and pay on the basis of workers' trainings (Desjardins & Rubenson, 2011:15). They further assume that the world of employment is an educational meritocracy in which a person's socio-economic status is limited, presumably, only by his or her educational investment: More educated people are always more productive than less educated people, and this differential productivity is sufficient to explain all social inequities (Furia, et al., 2010:1141). Consequently, knowledge and skills are of pre-eminent importance in the labour market. Therefore, the theory predicts that employers are willing to fully utilise the skills of their

employees by adapting their production process in response to any changes in the relative supply of labour (Quintine, 2011:8). As result, the skills mismatch can only arise in the short run while firms adjust their production processes in order to fully utilise the individuals' human capital.

In connection with human capital theory, empirical studies suggest that investing in education and training reduces unemployment and poverty. Van der Berg (2008:3) argues that, "Better educated people have a greater probability of being employed, are economically more productive, and therefore earn higher incomes." The research reveals that there is a correlation between poverty, unemployment and low level of education (McGrath & Akoojee, 2007:423; Robert, 2008:14-15). In developing countries, it has been argued that adults with low levels of educational and training attainment are much more likely to be poor than well-educated ones. In South Africa, for instance, those formally employed have at least a matriculation level of education (12 years of schooling), comparatively to the number of the total working-age population (McGrath & Akoojee, 2007:423).

However, there are different views from economists which cast doubts on the values of human capital theory. Critiques of human capital theory argue that education and training have failed to deliver their promised 'cure' to poverty (Cain, 2009:1218-19). Firstly, economists like Strivik and Hammer (2000) and Furia, et al. (2010) argue that education and training instead reflect only a screening device or a certificate of a set of attitudes and traits that employers find attractive (Cain, 2009:1219). Secondly, it is significant to note that the human capital theory is criticised for focusing only on the long run supply side of the labour market and paying no attention to variables structuring the demand side such as the individual's occupation, job or job tasks (Desjardins & Rubenson, 2011:15).

Thirdly, the theory is criticised that qualifications carry probabilistic information to observe characteristics which are relevant to job performance including cognitive and non-cognitive skills (Desjardins & Rubenson, 2011:17). According to this critique, qualifications are merely signals which suggest that the holder is more likely to be more productive; a more efficient trainee and thus less costly to train, and more likely to adjust efficiently to unforeseen change. Fourthly, the human capital theory does overlook the role of education in the matching function according to skill-demand and environment (Desjardins & Rubenson, 2011:18). Fifthly, in the

context of South Africa, a main problem in the application of the human capital theory is its failure to consider the growing gap between people's increasing education and training efforts, and the diminishing number of corresponding jobs where this increasing skills investment could be applied.

Olaniyan and Okemakinde's (2008:158) critique is upfront in arguing that it is risky to view education and training as a remedy for the attainment of employment and poverty reduction. Thus, education in general and skills training for poor adults in particular, cannot on its own achieve the desired outcomes without supportive environments. In relation to the study, this implies that the human capital theory offers a conceptual basis for a relationship between NFET and poverty reduction, however, this assumption cannot be taken for granted, particularly in the South African context. NFET cannot provide adults with access to employment if there are impediments in the labour market related to law, regulations, policies, institutions, technology and the economic situation.

2.2.2 Application of the human capital theory to NFET for poverty reduction

Despite the critique against human capital theory, it has some benefits for adults in KZN. A lack of or limited education and training is directly linked to unemployment and hence is a significant contributor to poverty. In relation to the human capital theory, Furia, et al. (2010:1141) argue that education and training expand employment opportunities since educated and skilled adults can be productive in the society whereas unskilled adults find it difficult to be integrated in the labour market. In view of NFET for poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal, a significant aspect of this theory is that providing knowledge and employable skills may benefit individual, poor adults to get jobs and, as a result, increase the human capital resource pool and potential productivity in South Africa.

The benefit of the human capital theory is that an educated and skills trained adult is a productive adult. Considering the cause of adult unemployment in KZN, it can, within the context of human capital theory, be argued that NFET is a tool to fight unemployment and poverty amongst adults. The research findings on the relationship between poverty and education in KZN suggest that the unemployed number of adults is composed by those who may either have no formal basic education or individuals who dropped out of school due to

circumstances (McGrath & Akoojee, 2007:423; Robert, 2008:14-15). The unemployed adults are seeking both compensatory education and training, and employment (KZN-DoE, 2011:21). This implies that the acquisition of knowledge and skills can help them compete with others in the labour market.

Education and training improve other areas of life than having work. Loewen (2009:17) argues that education and training interventions are linked to almost all of the other categories of intervention, amongst others, physical, psychological and social. In this vein, adult NFET is such an area of activity, and so commonly seen as a powerful intervention for addressing not only unemployment but it can enhance health, social inclusion, community participation, access and participation to public goods and services (Bhalla & Lapreyre, 2004:20). It is in this context that NFET tends to increase participants' sense of control over their life circumstances. Therefore, adult NFET has a key role to play in the fight against poverty and social exclusion.

2.2.3 Labour market segmentation theory

The labour market segmentation theory has been identified by a group of economists who challenged human capital theory because it failed to explain the unemployment and discrimination in the labour market. Unlike the human capital theory arguing that there is a single consistent labour market, the labour market segmentation theory premises is that different labour markets operate under different environments such as regulations, policy, demand and supply conditions (Cain, 2009:1219). The origin of this theory dates back to the end of the 1960s and primarily stems from the American economists Peter B. Doeringer and Michael J. Piore (Desjardins & Rubenson, 2011:19; Furia, et al., 2010:1141).

The labour market segmentation theory sheds more light on the problem this study aims to address. The difference between the two theories first and foremost exists on their focuses. While the human capital theory focuses on the labour supply side, the labour segmentation theory explains the problem of unemployment from the labour demand side and its characteristics of jobs and job markets, rather than the characteristics of individuals in explaining labour market outcomes (Cain, 2009:1216). Another aspect of difference between both theories is that, while the human capital theory primarily looks at the individualistic view of how to improve employability, the labour market segmentation theorists view that labour

market opportunities and restrictions are key in determining an individual's employability (Berntson, Sverke & Marklund, 2006:226).

In view of the labour segmentation theory, a major influence on the adult trainee's employment is the extent of job demand (availability) and the nature of that employment (the types of jobs available (Mlatsheni, 2012:32). These two factors concern the demand-side constraints. With regard to the job demand, Mlatsheni (2012:32) convincingly points out that, "One could argue that inadequate aggregate demand is as much an obstacle to adult employment because a fall in aggregate demand would lead to a general increase in the number of lays-offs and a fall in the hiring of new individuals." Therefore, the employability of a new graduate will depend on the demand in the community of such education and training he/she has obtained.

Besides the extent of job demand or availability, the nature of labour demand can also contribute to the adult trainee's unemployment. Adults may acquire skills that are not in demand in the labour market. Similarly, McGrath and Akoojee (2009:152) share the same view by pointing out that the nature of unemployment in South Africa is widely caused by a mismatch between the available skills and the nature of skills demand by the employers. In South Africa, the labour market has failed to absorb hundreds of graduates from universities and FET colleges (Department of Labour, 2012:5). According to the Labour Force Survey data, of quarter 4, 2012 (Stats SA, 2012:8) the rate of unemployment was 24,9%. Nevertheless, there is a skills shortage in South Africa. The Department of Labour (2012:5) identified 33 government sectors, including project management, accountancy, computer programming, financial services, management and engineering which require skilled labour. The labour demand-supply mismatch in South Africa is explained by a situation of high demand of skilled and experienced labour against an oversupply of unskilled labour, and this has resulted in an unbalanced labour demand and supply in the country (Department of Labour, 2012:2).

The labour market is complex in terms of its characteristics. Pagés and Stampini (2009:388) point out that key to this theory is that labour market segmentation is a result of labour market policies and regulations, and labour market institutions in the sectors. Yet, regulations, policy, technology and institutions impact the unskilled and skilled labour markets differently. In this connection, the proponents of the labour segmentation theory argue that there are various barriers which constrain flexibility between segments (Cain, 2009:1245). Since there are

structures surrounding and influencing the labour market, this theory put more emphasis on the demand side rather than the supply side of the equation (Desjardins & Rubenson, 2011:22).

In summary, in view of the labour market segmentation theory, the characteristics of the labour market determine the value of a person's employability. The contribution that the labour market segmentation theory makes to an understanding of the relationship between adult NFET and employment is that combating unemployment does not just depend on producing a highly skilled labour force, but also depends on the extent of employment availability and the nature of the available jobs.

2.2.4 Application of the labour market segmentation theory to NFET for poverty reduction

The labour market segmentation theory may help one to understand the potential reasons for skills mismatch and failure of NFET graduates to be integrated in the labour market. Presenting a counter argument against the human capital theory, Cain (2009:1245) states that education and training serve as “screening”, “signalling” or “certification” devices, which allow a favoured class of people to get best jobs. In view of the labour market segmentation theory, this implies that there is no automatic relationship between skills acquisition from NFET centres and the labour market outcomes. Connecting the labour market segmentation theory to this study, it can be argued that NFET in KZN alone, cannot result in increased productive capacity of poor adults in the form of employment and poverty reduction.

In the context of KZN, studies reveal that adults who have graduated from NFET programmes face the challenge of labour market entry (see Chapter Three). Firstly, among the demand-side constraints, the challenge of demand (availability) is the main constraint, followed by the nature of the labour demand (the types of jobs available) (Mlatsheni, 2012:32). Secondly, on the supply side, adult labour-market success is influenced by capability such as education and training levels, capacity-based training provided and the accreditation of the NFET centre by Education and Training Quality Assurance Bodies (ETQAs) (Mlatsheni, 2012:31-32). The consequences of an unsuccessful transition from NFET centre to work may lead to a long duration of unemployment, which in turn may cause discouragement and depression.

Because of the presence of structures in the labour market, it is noteworthy to mention that there is a difference between skills acquisition by adults (the capacities acquired) and skills utilisation. The NFET programmes aim at promoting both wage-employment and self-employment or entrepreneurship in the informal sector by creating a system of well-coordinated support. Through the lens of the labour market segmentation theory, it is crucial to note that NFET goes far beyond traditional training provision. Not only do the skills acquired have to be of good quality, they also have to be produced in an enabling environment - both internal and external - to ensure the effectiveness of NFET (King, 2011:2; Palmer, 2007b:410; Palmer, 2008:42). There is a need for factors that could facilitate the transformation of skills acquired from NFET into skills utilisation in the labour market. Therefore, NFET programmes have to be implemented within the existing environments such as the available labour market, institutions and private sector.

The other implication of the theory is that the after-training support is very crucial. In the context of KZN, many adults who are poor have been unemployed for a long period of time. They are marginalised and have a specific context within the society. Thus, they lack social capital to help them connect to labour market opportunities. Similarly, Dunkley (2008:10) argues that most of the poor lack social capital. Since the labour market segmentation is a result of labour market policies and regulations, and labour market institutions as constraints to the effectiveness of adult NFET, the NFET centres need to cooperate with other government institutions, churches, NGOs, and the private sectors (Kweka & Fox, 2011:38). For example in KZN, Municipal Councils, government agencies as well as self-help organisations offer a large physical network for adult training and entrepreneurship promotion. Linkages with other sectors and coordination of these institutions and organisations could complement their activities (Department of Trade and Industry [DTI], 2010: 5-7).

It can be concluded from the discussion that the two theories are mutually dependent. This view is also supported by Georgiadou, et al. (2009:81) who state that non-formal education and training can enhance the chances of poor adults to participate in the processes of socio-economic development and by doing so gain or upgrade their livelihood skills for the expansion of their employment opportunities (human capital theory). On the other side, the policies and structures in the labour market determine the utilisation of the skills acquired from NFET centres (labour market segmentation theory). Therefore, human capital theory and labour market segmentation

theory are appropriate theories in the assessment of the enabling environment of NFET centres for employment.

This section has dealt with two theories that are important to understand the functioning of NFET in KwaZulu-Natal. From the discussion on the human capital, labour market segmentation theories and their application to the present study, it is significant to indicate that they are mutually complementary to each other. Their integration in the study occurs at three-level interventions (micro-level, meso-level and macro-level) which are interrelated. It is useful to view these three levels as different levels of enabling environments for employment. The human capital theory is significant at the micro- and meso-level environments during the training delivery at the NFET centre. The labour market segmentation theory finds its role in the macro-level environments where NFET graduates need post-training support and favourable policies, regulation, institutions and social network to utilise the skills in wage-employment or self-employment.

In connection with the human capital, labour market segmentation theories underpinning the study, this section focuses on the conceptual framework which guided the research activities or process of data collection, analysis, interpretation and research conclusion. It has also guided the researcher in determining what kind of variables to measure, and what type of statistical relationships to look out for (Srivastava & Hopwood, 2009:78). In addition, the researcher used the conceptual framework to refine the focus of the study and to formulate explicit substantive research questions.

2.3 Conceptual Framework guiding the study

The scope of study was demarcated to mainly examine NFET centres that provide technical and entrepreneurial skills to adults in order to enable them to take up self- or wage-employment services and small business activities. The conceptual framework guided the researcher to collect, analyse and interpret data at three-level interventions of NFET (micro-level, meso-level and macro-level). Therefore, it consists of three main components namely: training delivery environment for skill acquisition; transforming environment for skills utilisation for employment and the enabling environment for trainee's micro-enterprises. The three components of the conceptual framework are discussed in this section.

2.3.1 Training delivery environment for skills acquisition

Training delivery environment for skills acquisition refers to the internal enabling environments in which skills are acquired in the context of non-formal adult education and training. It entails three distinct delivery environments, namely material resources, human resources and enabling NFET centre governance. Firstly, the skills delivery environment of NFET is affected by material resources such as: availability of textbooks and other learning materials, tools, classroom infrastructures (including workshops), centre facilities and curriculum contents (Palmer, 2007a:73; UNESCO, 2005:37). Secondly, the availability of human resources is an important input for an effective NFET training delivery. Human resources include centre managers, administrators, other support staff, supervisors, inspectors and, most importantly qualified instructors or trainers with experience in adult education and training for income-generating activities (Dunkley, 2008:41).

Thirdly, the enabling centre governance concerns the ways in which the NFET is organised and managed. For instance, it plays a crucial role on setting of training curricula and contents, on having good linkages with public institutions and agencies, linkages with social networks, associations and employers. It also impacts on support after the completion of training programmes (UNESCO, 2005:37). These delivery environments affect the effectiveness of other environments such as transforming environments for skills utilisation for employment and the enabling environments for the trainee's micro-enterprises.

2.3.2 Transforming environments for skills utilisation for employment

For skills learnt to be transformed into employment outcomes, there is a need for other factors, external to adult NFET centres. The development of a supportive enabling environment will influence the skills learnt through adult NFET centres to contribute to the poverty reduction of a given target group. This is because a supportive enabling environment allows skills to be utilised productively (Palmer, 2007a: 75; Palmer et al., 2007:19). Similarly, Adams (2007:4) argues that skills training alone is unlikely to address the problems of unemployment or meeting all the needs of disadvantaged adults. Without enabling environments, skills training for adults may lead to higher educational attainment that has to be valued for its own benefits apart from those of immediate employment (Adams, 2007:4).

At meso-level (in relation to the centre), among the critical factors external to the adult centres that foster the utilisation of skills in employment are: the linkages with public institutions and agencies, the linkages with social networks, associations and employers, and support after the completion of training programmes (Dunkley, 2008:52-60; White & Kenyon, 2005:11-20). These factors are explained in detail below.

2.3.2.1 The linkages with public institutions and agencies

The linkages of the NFET centre to other sectors are crucial and key to success in skills utilisation in the world of work. An adult NFET centre does not operate in a vacuum, but in a given community with social and political entities. Therefore, a quality NFET programme is aware of the resources and needs of the community in which it is located (World Bank, 2005:38). It establishes and maintains links with various referral sources and community agencies as well as other relevant educational programmes and organisations. It regularly reviews its community, sectoral and organisational relationships (Freedman, 2008:21). According to Freedman (2008:21), the collaboration should be between the NFET centre and the agencies at local and national levels, and keen involvement of social partners.

2.3.2.2 The linkages with social networks, associations and employers

On this type of enabling environment, Axmann (2004:12) argues that the main objective of NFET centres' cooperation with key actors in the labour market is dividing responsibilities and sharing ownership of the training. Another reason for the NFET centre to link with employers is, according to Axmann (2004:12), that there are frequent complaints that the skills taught in many adult skills training centres do not sufficiently correspond to employers' needs. Therefore, the linkages would help trainees meet company requirements and offer opportunities to select the best adult trainees.

2.3.2.3 Support after the completion of training programmes

The adult NFET is only one part of an employment promotion strategy. Indeed, NFET might have limited effectiveness unless other supporting mechanisms exist to foster skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of graduates (Haan, 2006:240). Firstly, the post-training

support for trainees who are interested in wage-employment include any linkages with employers for trainee's job placement, arrangement of opportunities for them to gain work experience, exploration of the job market, preparation of a list of prospective employers and follow-up advisory services of the employed trainees (Dunkley, 2008:52).

Secondly, for those interested in self-employment in micro-enterprise, the post-training service may range from support to trainees in small business; support to accessing credit; support in accessing suitable premises for production purposes; accessing equipment and tools; marketing support; support in formalising and awareness of legal and regulatory requirements; support for the formation of groups or forming enterprises/co-operatives; follow-up advisory services or technical assistance; support to access business networks/ business development services, and grants or financial assistance to trainees after they complete skills and entrepreneurial training (Dunkley, 2008:52; Haan, 2006:244; White & Kenyon, 2005:22-23).

2.3.3 The enabling environment for trainees' micro-enterprises

Successful entry into self-employment and establishment of a micro-enterprise requires much more than delivering skills training to adults. The support for micro-enterprise development stems from both meso- and macro-levels. There are factors external to adult centres that can enable or disable the utilisation of skills in self-employment. In this connection, Stevenson and St-Onge (2005:19) point out that to foster the growth and development of trainee's small businesses, many interventions are needed. In the context of this study, firstly, adult trainees have to be more aware of the entrepreneurship option and motivated to explore it; have access to opportunities to gain adequate knowledge and skills to start and grow a sustainable micro-enterprise; be exposed to networks of other micro-entrepreneurs in order to learn from their experience and gain moral support and encouragement; have access to information and professional business development services to help develop their management and production capacity; and be recognised for their achievements, both individually and collectively (Hasanov, Biybosunova & Hasanova, 2009:17; Stevenson & St-Onge, 2005:19).

Secondly, new entrants into micro-enterprise need support from both the NFET centre and other stakeholders in the public and private sectors. The support will help overcome the disabling environments outside of the NFET system at macro-level. Among the enabling and disabling

environments are: the legal and regulatory environment for NFET and entrepreneurship development; the SME promotion policies and institutional environment; small business registration and licensing; finance and credit policies; labour laws and regulations; the access to business development services; the access to business premises; access to information; participation in business networks, associations and employers' organisations (Hasanov, et al. 2009:17; Stevenson & St-Onge, 2005:19; Stevenson & St-Onge, 2011:12-31).

The respective enabling environments for trainees' micro-enterprises are discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.3.3.1 The legal and regulatory environments for trainees' micro-enterprises

These environments for trainees' micro-enterprises can both be enabling or disabling factors (or constraints) for the effectiveness of NFET. In support of Stevenson and St-Onge's (2011:1) view, the proposition underlying this conceptual framework is that in order for adult trainees from NFET programmes to have an equal opportunity to start and grow successful small scale businesses, they must not only have equal access to non-formal education and training, livelihood skills, credit, information, business advisory services, business networks, markets and property ownership, but be subject to the equitable administration of laws, regulations, and procedures pertaining to micro-enterprises, including laws such as those related to business entry, employment and labour, and property rights.

The legal and regulatory environments can positively or negatively impact on NFET trainees entering self-employment in terms of starting a micro-enterprise. If a regulation is generally good in terms of permitting creation of micro-enterprises, but certain aspects of it can influence significantly the capacity of disadvantaged adult trainees to start, formalise and grow sustainable micro-enterprises. In the context of the study, the aspects pertaining to the degree of complexity in registering an SME are determined by how much money does it cost, how much time, cost and complexity is involved (ILO, 2007a:23). Many adults fail to opt for self-employment in small businesses because of barriers (actual and perceived) to the business registration and licensing processes, which are likely to hinder them in formalising and growing their enterprises (ILO, 2007a:23; Stevenson & St-Onge, 2011:18).

2.3.3.2 The SME promotion policies and institutional environments

The promotion of trainee SMEs is influenced by key policies and strategies of the national and local governments. Although NFET centres can motivate trainees to be self-employed in the SME, there is still a need for policies to be in place which enable and promote the self-employment option. In this connection, White and Kenyon (2005:11) argue that the design of micro-enterprise policies, strategies and programmes should recognise the various entry points or pathways into enterprise. Thus, the most popular motivation for self-employment is to “make my own job” (White & Kenyon, 2005:11).

The SME promotion policies go hand-in-hand with the institutional environment. In a given community there are a number of government and private institutions that serve to create an enabling environment for SMEs (Hasanov, et al., 2009:27). These policies provide financial and non-financial support to the micro-entrepreneurs. The SME promotion policies and institutions are crucial to the effectiveness of NFET in the sense that they help avoid unemployment and poverty (White & Kenyon, 2005:11). They can also motivate NFET graduates to experience being “my own boss”; to create “my own lifestyle”; to make money through business profits.

2.3.3.3 Small business registration and licensing

Registration and licencing processes of small businesses of graduate trainees may be an impediment with regard to procedure and other requirements. In support of Stevenson and St-Onge’s (2011:47) view, the fact that many NFET graduates remain in the informal sector of the economy, predominantly as sole traders, may indicate a lack of knowledge about the requirements and procedures for registration and the benefits. On the other hand, a lack of business premises can be a challenging requirement to register and get a permit or certificate of a small enterprise according to some regulations (Kweka & Fox, 2011:41). Likewise, the lack of business registration and business premises can result in failure to access and obtain credit and financial services as discussed below.

2.3.3.4 Access to credit and financial services

It is widely agreed that lack of, or difficulty in obtaining, credit is a main problem to small enterprise development in Africa. White and Kenyon (2005:20) point out that usually, difficulties that poor women and men face in obtaining finance for their small business is due to their lack of previous business experience, the absence of sufficient collateral upon which the loan can be secured, or the result of a general bias against them taking such initiatives. In the same vein ILO (2007:27) mentions that, “In many parts of the world access to financing and capital markets is consistently reported as a major obstacle to the growth of women-owned firms.” Studies reveal that self-employed people from poor communities tend to finance their small enterprises mainly through their own or their relative’s savings (ILO, 2007b:27; White & Kenyon, 2005:21). In the context of NFET, this implies that adult graduates may find it difficult to start a small business because they are from poor families.

It is crucial to have a good understanding of poor adults’ impediments in accessing finances so that applicable recommendations can be formulated after data analysis. According to White and Kenyon (2005:20), limited access to finance can have two results. First, it may prevent NFET graduates from initiating the micro-enterprises idea that they had when starting the skills training. The second result is that adults who start a small business do so with inadequate capital. Therefore, micro-enterprise viability is threatened as a result of limited access to credit and financial services.

2.3.3.5 Access to Business Development Services and to business information

The access to affordable Business Development Services (BDS) can be a major enabling environment for those with growth potential, since this support is essential at all stages of the micro-enterprise cycle (ILO,2007b:29). Business Development Services entail further training, consultancy and advisory services, marketing assistance, information, technology development and transfer, and business linkage promotion from public or private agencies (Langwenya, Mabuza & Tshabalala, 2011:36). According to ILO (2007b:29), these small business support services can make a substantial and positive impact on a trainee’s SME performance.

There are two types of support that a micro-entrepreneur can benefit from BDS. Firstly, the operational services which consist of those needed for day-to-day operations, such as information and communications, management of accounts and tax records, and compliance with labour laws and other regulations (Langwenya, et al., 2011:36). Secondly, strategic services which include the issues that help the enterprise to address medium- and long-term issues in order to improve the performance of the micro-enterprise, its access to markets, and its ability to compete such as identifying and servicing markets, designing products, set up facilities, and seek financing (ILO, 2007b:29; Langwenya, et al., 2011:36).

Access to information plays a significant role in the development of micro-enterprise. It is argued that lack of information or access to information has been frequently identified as one of the hindrances of entrepreneurial activity in South Africa (SEDA, 2010:6). That is why Stevenson and St-Onge (2011:30) suggest that the micro-entrepreneurs may benefit from access to different types of information available to them in the local communities, including information on government actions and programmes, business and market/trade opportunities, supplier, technology and financing sources, and how to start a small business and manage its operations (for example business planning, marketing, record-keeping).

2.3.3.6 The access to business premises

As it is discussed above (see section 2.3.3.3), in some countries, having fixed premises for conducting a business is a requirement to being formally registered or granted a business license (ILO, 2007b:31). Besides that, without suitable premises, production facilities are often inadequate for meeting market demands and production requirements, and there is the additional risk of poor and unsafe working conditions (ILO, 2007b:31; White & Kenyon, 2005:21). Studies by ILO (2007b) in many African countries reveal that access to safe, secure and suitable small business premises may be restricted for a range of socio-cultural and economic reasons, and premises appear to be very costly in many African countries.

Having business premises is also a requirement for accessing credit and financial services in some countries (White & Kenyon, 2005:21). Donors in micro-enterprise development are also focusing on the issues pertaining to premises prior to support with start-up capital. Yet, as White and Kenyon (2005:21) point out, “finding a secure place to work- one that is affordable, well-

located and with flexibility to accommodate business expansion - is a requirement of many women and men who are establishing their own business.” Finding business premises can be a major challenge to adults who freshly exit from NFET programmes.

2.3.3.7 Participation in business networks and associations

Adult trainees interested in self-employment in micro-enterprises often lack the resources to start independently. To some extent, they resort to post-training support services which consist of organising adult trainees themselves in the form of self-help groups, cooperatives, associations and mutual support networks (Dunkley, 2008:52). They can also join other associations in the community with similar objectives. According to ILO (2007b:30), other networks of micro-entrepreneurs can also include, for instance, savings and credit groups, economic empowerment groups and a membership outreach. Networks and associations can play a major role in further creating an enabling environment for the development of small business awareness. Among the roles are fostering the effectiveness in advocacy and the networking within national umbrella organisations.

This section has discussed the conceptual framework through which research data for this study was collected and interpreted. It aimed to operationalise the way human capital and labour market segmentation theories are significantly used and can be integrated to facilitate adult employability. For this purpose, in view of human capital theory, an effective training delivery environment for skill acquisition is needed. The labour market segmentation theory helps understand that for the skills to be utilised for purposes of employment, there is a need for transformative environments at both meso- and macro-levels. At meso-level, the enabling environments include the linkages with public institutions and agencies, the linkages with social networks, associations and employers and supports after the completion of training programmes.

2.4 Summary

The link between a lack of education and training, unemployment and poverty among adults in KwaZulu-Natal informed the search for a conceptual framework for this study. Connecting the cause of unemployment to the human capital theory, NFET appears to be a significant remedy. However, labour market segmentation theorists argue that there is no automatic link between

skills training and employment which leads to employment and in turn, to poverty reduction. They argue that the labour market consists of structures linked to diverse factors. Adult education and training are only one component of the employment process. The implication of both theories is that, firstly, while it is important to support adult NFET programmes as a specific intervention for employment and poverty, it is equally vital to look at the internal and external environments in which they operate. Secondly, for NFET to facilitate employment and reduce poverty, one should consider the supply and demand sides.

For the adult NFET to be effective in fostering employment, the interventions should focus at three levels of enabling environments. Nevertheless, the emphasis is on meso- and macro-levels. The enabling environments at meso-level facilitate an effective training delivery for skills acquisition and foster the utilisation of skills into the labour market; whether in wage-employment or self-employment. The enabling environments at macro-level also play a major role in providing an opportunity for adult trainees to get employment by removing all impediments for employment. These enabling environments of the NFET centre consist of laws and regulations, SME promotion policies and institutions and the access to business development services. It is through this conceptual framework that the data was collected and interpreted (see Chapters six and seven).

The next chapter presents a literature review on previous studies and evaluations of NFET. It firstly reviews research in the field of Non-formal Adult Education and Training, then narrows the focus on evaluation of Non-formal Adult Education and Training programmes aiming at providing poor adults with marketable livelihood/vocational skills in order to improve their employment opportunities or to establish income-generating activities.

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON NON-FORMAL ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING

3.1 Introduction

The concept of adult non-formal education and training (NFET) has a long history since the 1960s when the aim was documented as increasing employment opportunities and reducing poverty among poor and marginalised communities (Kedrayate, 2012:11). Nevertheless, there is an abundance of literature on formal vocational training programmes, but little on non-formal adult education and training programmes specifically. Given the significance of NFET to reduce unemployment and poverty in South Africa and elsewhere, the study investigated the studies on NFET programmes linking to the post-training employment of adult trainees.

The purpose of this chapter is twofold: firstly, to examine the factors that enhance the utilisation of skills acquired from NFET centres in the labour market, and to explore how the NFET centres help their ex-trainees to become employed or self-employed. To this end, the chapter consists of four sections. It starts with the background to Non-formal Adult Education and Training, then moves to a brief perspective on the provision of NFET in some selected countries and the review of research on NEFT, which deals with NFET in a general perspective. The final section discusses research on evaluation of NFET dealing specifically with those studies focusing on assessing NFET centres linked to helping their ex-trainees to become employed or self-employed. The conclusion wraps up the chapter.

3.2 Background to Non-formal Adult Education and Training

Non-formal education became part of the international discourse on education policy in the late 1960s and the early 1970s (Rogers, 2004:42-48). It can be seen as being related to the concepts of recurrent and lifelong learning. Scholars in the field (Kamil, 2007; Kedrayate, 2012; Jjuuko & Kwiri, 2010; Ololube & Egbzor, 2012) suggest that whereas recurrent and lifelong learning have to do with the extension of education and learning throughout life, non-formal education and training is about acknowledging the importance of education, learning and training which takes place outside recognised educational institutions.

From its inception, NFET differs from formal education system by its characteristics. Taking the debate on the genesis of non-formal education further, Rogers (2004:45) suggests that in the 1970s, four characteristics came to be associated with non-formal education and training:

- Relevance to the needs of disadvantaged groups;
- Concern with a specific category of people;
- A focus on clearly defined purposes;
- Flexibility in organisation and methods.

The role of NFET in disadvantaged communities stimulated stakeholders in education to call for adult education conferences. This is the case of The World Declaration on Education for All and The Dakar Framework for education Action. These two conferences are discussed in detail below.

3.2.1 The World Declaration on Education for All (1990)

Non-formal Education and Training has become a significant developmental agenda after the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA in 1990). This important conference was organised in Jomtien, Thailand by the World Bank, UNESCO, UNICEF and UNDP from 5 to 9 March, 1990 (UNESCO, 2011:26). The conference was attended by some 1500 members representing 155 governments, 33 intergovernmental organisations, and 125 non-governmental organisations (NGOs), institutes, and foundations (UNESCO, 2000:74). The main reason for the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) was to bring together all the main stakeholders in education to discuss the widespread concern over the deterioration of education systems throughout the world during the 1980s (UNESCO, 2011:26).

Focusing on adult education and training, adults were the most affected by the education system crisis. The deterioration of education systems has led to major challenging barriers in adult basic education in the 1980s in many of the developing countries (UNESCO, 2000:74). In some other countries, economic development created a policy window to finance formal and non-formal education expansion, but even though this was the case, many millions remained in absolute poverty and illiterate. During the World Conference on Education for All, the following education crisis indicators were revealed (UNESCO, 2000:74):

- More than 960 million adults, two-thirds of whom were women, were illiterate, and basic skills training was identified as problem in all countries, industrialised and developing;
- More than one-third of the world's adults had no access to printed knowledge, new skills and technologies that could foster their employability in the labour market and improve the quality of their lives;
- More than 100 million children at school age and numerous adults did not complete formal basic education; and
- Millions more adults completed a formal basic education system but could not acquire knowledge and sustainable livelihood skills.

The participants to the WCEFA recognised that education and training are an important strategy for mitigating vulnerability among adults in the poor communities. They recalled that education is a fundamental right for all people, women and men of all ages (UNESCO, 2000:75). In other words, adult education and training programmes should be considered as a right, not a privilege since it benefits both the state and its citizens by improving opportunities for employment. The end result of adult education and training is the increase of employment and income-generation activities (Ololube & Egbzor, 2012:76). The conference again acknowledged that the contemporary provision of education and training in many communities was very deficient and that it was not relevant to the socio-economic needs of the target population (UNESCO, 2000:75).

The outcome of the conference was an anonymous adoption of the “World Declaration on Education for All” (UNESCO, 2000:75). In addition, the conference endorsed a “Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs” (UNESCO, 2000:75). By means of this declaration, the conference participants renewed their commitment to ensure the right of all people to education and knowledge. In the first article of the declaration, it is mentioned that its purpose is to meet basic learning needs. This means that every person (child, youth and adult) must be “able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs” (UNESCO, 2000:75). In this context, the basic learning needs entail both vital learning tools (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem solving) and the basic learning content (such as knowledge, skills, and attitudes) required by a person to be able to survive, to

develop his/her full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development and to improve the quality of his/her life (UNESCO, 2000:75).

In 2000, there was a need to review the achievement so far of Education for All in every country (UNESCO, 2011:29). The assessment of the implementation of Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs agreed in Jomtien in 1990 was the reason for the World Education Forum known as Dakar Framework for Action in 2000.

3.2.2 Dakar Framework for Action (2000)

Ten years after the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) in Jomtien, Thailand, a World Education Forum was convened in Dakar, Senegal, from 26-28 April 2000. The forum brought together governments, organizations, agencies, groups and associations (UNESCO, 2000:8). The Dakar Framework for Action is a World Education Forum committing to the achievement of Education for All goals and targets for every citizen in every society (UNESCO, 2011:29). In other words, the Dakar Framework for Action is a collective commitment of governments to action. Dakar Framework for Action in 2000 was a review of the World Declaration on Education for All and had two main objectives.

Firstly, the forum aimed at re-affirming the vision of the World Declaration on Education for All (according to Jomtien 1990) that every child, youth and adult has the human right to benefit from an education that will meet their basic learning needs (UNESCO, 2011:29). Secondly, it aimed at assessing the achievements of the goals of the World Declaration on Education for All by examining good practices and failures of the implementation of the Declaration since 1990 (UNESCO, 2011:29). To this end, the forum was titled “the Dakar Framework for Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments” (UNESCO, 2011:29). The forum concluded by setting six main EFA goals and proposed twelve major strategies to achieve them. The twelve major strategies derived from the experiences of the past decade since 1990, the local context and the challenges of the globalisation context (UNESCO, 2000:14).

The Dakar Framework for Education for all is a collective commitment to action. Governments, organisations, agencies, groups and associations represented at the World Education Forum in

Dakar had to implement six main Educations for All (EFA) goals. Six goals which were reaffirmed are the following (UNESCO, 2011:38-104):

- Goal 1:** *Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.*
- Goal 2:** *Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to completely free and compulsory primary education of good quality.*
- Goal 3:** *Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes.*
- Goal 4:** *Achieving a 50 percent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.*
- Goal 5:** *Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.*
- Goal 6:** *Improving every aspect of the quality of education, and ensuring their excellence so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills (UNESCO, 2011:38-104).*

The focus of the present study relates to goals three and four of the EFA goals which deal with the learning needs of the youth and adults. Firstly, on goal three, the World Education Forum stressed the importance of “ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes” (UNESCO, 2011:54). The essence of this goal is that all youth and adults are entitled to get the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and employable skills that will enable them to develop their capabilities to find jobs in the labour market. It also consists of finding mechanisms to help adults to participate fully in socio-economic activities of their society. Above all, the skills programmes should enable youth and adults to take control of their own lives and to earn a better living.

Secondly, on goal four, the World Education Forum stressed the importance of “Achieving a 50 percent improvement” in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women. There should be an equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults (UNESCO, 2011:65). The

goal states that all adult education and training programmes must be expanded and diversified according to the participants' needs and local communities, and incorporated into the mainstream of national education and poverty reduction strategies (UNESCO, 2011:65). In this vein, the adult education and training plays a vital role in sustainable livelihoods, good health, active citizenship and the enhanced quality of life for individuals and communities (UNESCO, 2000:16; UNESCO, 2011:65).

These two conferences remain relevant to the present study in that the signatory countries have committed to reduce the suffering of adult people through NFET. On one hand, the WCEFA (1990) commits the signatory countries to meet basic learning needs of poor adults (UNESCO, 2011:65). On the other hand, the Dakar Forum on Education for All (2000) reaffirmed countries' commitment to implement formal and non-formal education by targeting those adults excluded from a basic education and training, whether for social, economic or geographic reasons (UNESCO, 2011:65). The next section briefly reviews the implementation progress towards the Education for All (EFA) as agreed in both world conferences with regard to the provision of adult NFET.

3.3 Brief perspective on provision of Non-formal Education and Training in selected countries

Adult Non-formal Education and Training became a public policy agenda following the World Conference on Education for All (EFA) in 1990 and the World Education Forum on Education in 2000. Before examining the provisions of NFET in selected countries in relation to EFA, it is significant to note that the World Conference on Education for All in Jomthien commits the governments to the goals of achieving the vision of "Education for All," whereas the Dakar Framework affirms "that every child, youth and adult has the human right to benefit from an education that includes learning to know, to do, to live together and to be" (UNESCO, 2011:38-104).

This section looks at the implementation of goals three and four of the EFA goals as outlined above and in UNESCO (2011:38-104) through the lens of NFET programmes in selected developed and developing countries. The aim is to identify and examine innovative aspects of NFET linked to fostering employment and poverty reduction. The researcher selected these countries because they are representative of NFET aspects responding to problems of adult

unemployment and poverty. The discussion will be based on an analysis of the respective countries' NFET focuses in accordance with the following four key points: Policies and legal framework of NFET; conceptualisation of NFET; key providers and financial support for NFET; and the curricula/programmes offered. The analysis starts with some developed countries and then shifts to developing countries. However, the discussion of South African NFET provision will be discussed in Chapter Four (see section 4.3).

3.3.1 Provision of non-formal education and training in Denmark

The Danish system of adult education and training can mainly be divided into two aspects, namely 'formal' and 'non-formal'. The non-formal system is embedded in the principles of self-governing institutions, and life-long learning without the need for formal examinations (EAEA, 2011a:4). This system also entails the recognition of prior learning (RPL) and validation of this learning in the labour market. The Danish NFET is guided by the principle that "Adults have the right to have their real knowledge and skills documented and recognised, independently of the way these have been acquired" (Nuffic, 2008:29).

3.3.1.1 Policies and legal framework of NFET in Denmark

In Denmark, the adult NFET policies and strategies derived from the "Strategy for Denmark in the Global Economy" in April 2006 (Goldman Hodgkin Katz [GHK], 2011a:5). The intent of these policies was to develop human capital of the unskilled citizens through the broad-based investment in the area of adult education and continuing training in order to contribute to an overall improvement of education and skills for everyone in Danish society. In connection with the challenges of globalisation and technological development, the Danish Government issued its strategy for NFET in August 2007 as a contribution to the achievement of the common EU objectives of Lisbon (GHK, 2011a:6). The goal of adult education policies was to develop the ability of enterprises and individuals to adapt to changes in the labour market and to ensure that an adult individual acquires relevant skills and knowledge throughout his or her working life (GHK, 2011a:6). Pursuing this goal, the strategy places specific emphasis on the need for skills-upgrading among those adults with the lowest levels of education.

The goal of the policies and strategies for NFET is to facilitate the inclusion of every adult who competes in the labour market (Danish Ministry of Education, 2007:23). To reach this goal, the strategies recommend a partnership between all stakeholders in the Danish society in order to promote adult NFET and continuing training (GHK, 2011a:7). The specific objectives of the policies have been laid down to achieve the following outcomes (Danish Ministry of Education, 2007:23; Danish Ministry of Education, 2008:5; GHK, 2011a:7):

- Every adult shall participate in lifelong learning;
- Adult education and training efforts must be effective and flexible;
- Adult education and training must provide everyone with opportunities to improve their competencies;
- Adult education and training must bring changes in the qualification requirements and needs of the labour market.

Each form of adult education has its own specific objectives, which are regulated by law. The legal framework of NFET in Denmark is guided by 11 Acts related to adult learning each of which deals with a specific area of adult education and training (GHK, 2011a:7-8). The legal framework includes legal plans to help unemployed adult trainees to acquire livelihood skills and to use them in the labour market (GHK, 2011a:8). For instance, Act 556 of 6 June 2007 of General Adult Education (AVU) aims at making general adult education possible for adults to develop or supplement their general knowledge and skills; to increase their prerequisites for active participation in a democratic society; and enabling adults to acquire general prerequisites for continued education, and general knowledge and skills relevant to working life (GHK, 2011a:8). This Act works together with a special Act concerning preparatory adult education (LBK no. 16 of 2003) and another one on special education for adults (LBK no. 658 of 2003).

The Act on Adult Vocational Training programme (LBK no. 190) of 2003, amended in 2009 plays an important role in empowering poor adults with skills. Its aim is to build competencies of adults in accordance with the needs of the labour market (GHK, 2011a:8). The amended Act establishes community adult education and training centres. The aim of the LBK no. 190 is to ensure linkages and partnership among the providers of adult vocational training and adult general education (GHK, 2011a:9). In connection with the Adult Vocational Training programme within the field of non-formal education, there is one Act on folk high schools,

continuing schools, home economics schools, and art and craft schools (LBK no. 785 of 18/07/2008) (GHK, 2011a:9). In addition, there are other 21 relative Acts that create conducive factors for adult learning programmes in the private and public sectors. These include financial arrangements for adult learning, reimbursements of travel costs, amongst others (Danish Ministry of Education, 2007:23; Danish Ministry of Education, 2008:5; GHK, 2011a:9).

3.3.1.2 Conceptualisation of NFET in Denmark

The concept of adult NFET in the Danish education system has diverse forms. It is associated with the Danish philosopher, poet, educational thinker and clergyman, N.F.S. Grundtvig, and his thoughts concerning free educational opportunities to poor people (Danish Ministry of Education, 2012). Danish NFET is also called liberal adult education and the NFET activities are often based on private initiatives by NGOs. According to the Danish Ministry of Education (2008:40), the non-formal adult education and training comprises four categories or forms listed, namely:

- Independent non-formal educational activity which includes voluntary non-formal adult education and voluntary adult learning in associations;
- University extension courses;
- Day folk high schools;
- Private independent boarding schools (folk high schools, home economics schools, arts and crafts schools, and continuation schools).

Each category of NFET has specific objectives to the target beneficiaries (Danish Ministry of Education, 2008:40; Danish Ministry of Education, 2012; EAEA, 2011a: 8-10). However, the main goal of NFET in Denmark is twofold. By enrolling into the course and activities, the programme seeks firstly, to increase the individual's general and academic insight, livelihood skills and enhance the ability and desire to take responsibility for their own life; and secondly, to enable participants to take an active and engaged part in society (Danish Ministry of Education, 2008:40). The NFET in Denmark is also structured or organised in four abovementioned categories or forms to respond to the need of beneficiaries. These categories of adult education and learning supplement the formal and public educational system (Danish Ministry of Education, 2008:40).

3.3.1.3 Key providers and financial support for NFET in Denmark

The educational programme under NFET is financed either by the government, local authorities or participants (Danish Ministry of Education, 2008:9). Folk schools, for example, are independent boarding education centres, partly financed by the State. The centres receive grants for each full-time equivalent adult trainee and trainees also pay a tuition fee to cover some of the management costs (Danish Ministry of Education, 2008:20). In general, the government and municipalities are responsible for collecting taxes and financing adult NFET within their respective skills training field. In the same way, the private institutions and NGO partners contribute to the financial frameworks of NFET in Denmark by paying their share of the costs of adult education and training (GHK, 2011a:13).

Most of the independent non-formal adult education activities are financed by local organisers. A local authority sets the financial framework and the policies for how it is to be administered (GHK, 2011a:13). In this case the concerned local authority can appoint a non-formal adult education committee consisting of a minority of elected office bearers by the local authority from among its members of the municipal council. The NFET committee carries out administrative tasks such as making financial decisions in relation to the cost of non-formal adult education and training (GHK, 2011a:13).

3.3.1.4 The curricula or programmes offered in Denmark

Each NFET programme is organised as a competence-based training course taken from the mainstream vocational education and training programme (GHK, 2011a:11). This means that each joint education and training course relates to one job area for low-skilled and unskilled learners. In this case, the curriculum consists of identifying typical workplaces, tasks of relevant competencies within the job types, and a list of adult training programmes and allied single-subject courses from formal vocational education and training programmes leading to those competencies (GHK, 2011a:11).

The NFET programmes last between one and 36 weeks and do not lead to examinations. However, for training longer than four weeks, a certificate is usually issued (GHK, 2011a:13).

The specific content of the curriculum within the adult NFET is divided into three main aspects, as outlined by the Danish Ministry of Education (2008:15):

- Specific job- /sector-related skills and competences, such as crafts, technical insight and knowledge of materials;
- General skills and competences, such as ICT and job relevant mathematics;
- Labour management skills and competences, such as social communication, organisation and management.

From the review above, it can be concluded that Denmark is among the countries with a high level of participation in adult education and training. Denmark sets an example of implementing the Framework for Action in meeting basic learning needs as adopted at the World Conference on Education for All. The partnership between public and private role-players emerged as a significant component in the achieving of Education for All. In Denmark, the adult population participates in both formal and non-formal education and training which is a job-oriented programme.

3.3.2 Provision of non-formal education and training in Germany

The system of the German non-formal adult education and training is different from other countries. Legally, the recognition of proficiencies acquired from non-formal education and training programmes is not accepted. Furthermore, the NFET is widely viewed as less significant by those involved in educational policy and practice (Hippach-Schneider &Toth, 2009:43). As a result, the labour market uses little competencies acquired in the NFET centres. Unlike Danish non-formal adult education and training, the question resides on non-formal recognition of the skills gained from the NFET centres, yet German government funds many NFET programmes in developing countries (EAEA, 2011b:10).

Despite the fact that the NFET competencies are not widely accepted by employers, institutions and organisations receive public funds to provide NFET to uneducated and unskilled adults (GHK, 2011b:3). Those institutions and organisations entail community education centres (Volkshochschulen/VHS), churches, unions, political foundations and adult education initiatives. The motivation of those institutions and organisations to establish NFET

programmes was because the German Educational Council in the early 1970s was not effective (GHK, 2011b:4). There are still attempts in the professional and educational policy agenda to promulgate a national legal framework for adult non-formal education and training in Germany (GHK, 2011b:4). The following sections on policies and legal framework of NFET; conceptualisation of NFET and resources and financial support for NFET will shed light to this practice.

3.3.2.1 Policies and legal framework of NFET in Germany

As already mentioned above, there is no specific policy or legal framework for German non-formal adult education and training. The provision of non-formal adult education and training is guided by general educational policies for all age groups of population known as the “Strategy for Lifelong Learning” which takes into account a life-course perspective of education and training (GHK, 2011b:5). The analysis of the strategy reveals that there is no specific indication of targeting unemployed adults. The strategy categorises eight aspects of development in the educational system: inclusion of informal learning, self-directed learning, skills development, modularisation, learning guidance, new learning culture, popularisation of learning and fair access to education (GHK, 2011b:5).

However, the strategy for Lifelong Learning does not tackle some central issues, particularly in the area of education and training for unemployed adults. It is noteworthy to mention that the policies or strategy deals with those already employed adults. In addition, the adult education and training programme in Germany is not regulated as specifically as other educational sectors (GHK, 2011b:7). Nevertheless, there is a legal framework in recognition of the government’s responsibility for the support of general, political and vocational education, and institutions and organisations offering learning opportunities to receive public funds (GHK, 2011b:7). Key providers and financial support for NFET are discussed below.

3.3.2.2 Key providers and financial support for NFET in Germany

The funding of NFET is the responsibility of the main stakeholders in the federal government and the individual institutions providing continuing education. In the case of education and training for unemployed adult and low-skilled employees, the National Agency of Employment

is the responsible stakeholder (GHK, 2011b:9). Secondary stakeholders in financing NFET are companies, unions, local authorities, chambers of commerce, and individual learners (GHK, 2011b:9). The sources of the funding are related to main providers of Adult Education and training throughout Germany such as initiative groups, Non-Governmental Organisations and others.

The key providers of adult NFET and effectively responsible for resources and financial support are religious organisations, community and voluntary initiatives groups, and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). It is significant to mention that some of the key providers of adult NFET in Germany also play this major role of funding NFET in the developing countries. They aim at building the liberal origins of the adult education system, are located across Germany (EAEA, 2011b:9). The learning programmes provided cover various subjects, but tend to focus on languages, cultural, and general education. However, with the emerging need to cater for the unemployed adults, there is also now an increasing interest in providing non-formal vocational training with a focus on employment (EAEA, 2011b:9).

The review reveals that there is no formal recognition of the skills gained from the NFET centres in Germany, yet the government funds many NFET programmes in developing countries. Contrary to other developed countries, Germany does not have policies and a legal framework for the recognition of NFET (GHK, 2011b:15). This is due to the fact that, firstly, there are different validation procedures in different educational sectors. Secondly, the German education and vocational training systems (dual system) delivers vocational training to adults as a combination of courses in adult schooling and whilst working in a company (GHK, 2011b:15). Depending on the training course, after two or three years, trainees take a trade test and acquire a professional certificate, which is nationally recognised and thus allows employment in the labour market (GHK, 2011b:16).

Though the dual education and training system enables the unemployed adults to integrate into the labour market, there is still a need of a formal recognition of NFET. The social exclusion of disadvantaged groups calls for a need to recognise non-formal skills training in Germany. Studies in Germany have revealed that poor adults are at risk of long periods of unemployment (GHK, 2011b:16; EAEA, 2011b). Even if they can acquire skills from NFET centres, their skills

are not assessed and consequently not considerable for potential future employers (EAEA, 2011b:9).

3.3.3 Provision of non-formal education and training in Ghana

Ghana has conducted several reforms on its educational system with a formal inclusion of NFET for the unemployed adults (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:2). These educational reforms have positioned the country's educational system as one of the most advanced in the West-African sub-region, along with development of high human capital (Republic of Ghana, 2008:1). Similar to Denmark, non-formal education and training in Ghana is also well organised in terms of policies and legal framework, conceptualisation, resources and financial support for NFET, and the curricula or programmes offered as will be next discussed.

3.3.3.1 Policies and legal framework of NFET in Ghana

The provision of NFET in Ghana to some extent derives from the Constitution of 1992 which gives the right of education and training for all Ghanaians as a basic need (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:2). In the Constitution, Article 38 sub-section 2 provides equal educational opportunities to all peoples by stating that,

Basic education shall be free, compulsory and available to all. Section 1c stipulates that higher education shall be made equally accessible to all, on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means. Section 1d states that functional literacy shall be encouraged or intensified as far as possible while Article 38, Section 1 says the state shall provide educational facilities at all levels and in all the regions of Ghana, and shall to the greatest extent feasible, make those facilities available to all citizens (Republic of Ghana, 2008:4; Owusu-Mensah, 2007:2).

Though the above sections of the Constitution do not explicitly refer to adult NFET, it recognises the need of all citizens in the country to access basic education irrespectively their age limit and gender. The provision of NFET was formalised and implemented following the establishment of the Non-Formal Education Division (NFED) of the Ministry of Education (MOE) in 1991 (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:2). Within the Ministry of Education (MOE), the main

goal of the NFED is to provide functional literacy to the poorest Ghanaians, particularly those living in the rural communities with emphasis on women (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:2).

The improvement in livelihood skills of Ghanaians is the key to improving the quality of life. Within this context, in 1995, the government of Ghana published the Ghana Vision 2020 Development Policy Framework which recognised the need for NFET towards income-generation (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:4). The policy also charged Non-Formal Education Division (NFED) of the Ministry of Education as the custodian of the policy related to NFET in terms of Income-Generating Skills Training; and the District Assemblies, NGOs and faith-based organisations responsible for its implementation. To this end, the government takes into consideration a need to create conducive environments for those adult trainees to be involved in income generation activities (Republic of Ghana, 2008:7).

3.3.3.2 Conceptualisation of NFET in Ghana

In Ghana, adult NFET is more than providing mere literacy and numeracy. The concept of adult NFET is influenced by the need for sustainable livelihood skills (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:8). In other words, NFET is conceived of a tool toward the enhancement of socio-economic capacities of disadvantaged people - or a means of adults to solve basic problems encountered at household level and all productive sectors where adults operate (Republic of Ghana, 2008:29). For this very reason, it entails apprenticeship and vocational training and non-formal educational activities that are recognised by the Government and state institutions as providing education and training.

Furthermore, it entails the concept of income-generating skills training to adult beneficiaries (Republic of Ghana, 2008:7). NFET serves to address the lack of training and employable skills among the youth and adults from the age of 15 years. It is also meant to give a second chance to those adults who dropped out from the formal education system without any marketable skills. In this later case, the government implemented a strategy to offer technical and entrepreneurial skills to unemployed adults in order to enhance their access to job opportunities in the labour market (Republic of Ghana, 2008:8).

From the point of view of NFED, NFET is conceptualised in terms of bringing social transformation. To this end, the NFET programme in a given community aims to achieve two objectives namely, empowering participants to better meet their personal or social needs through enhancing their capabilities to deal competently with everyday life in poor communities; and equipping trainers with the knowledge, attitudes and skills that will enable them to raise the quality of life in their communities (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:8). The outcome of the NFET is to address inequalities, to access to life skills by targeting specific groups such as the poor or rural communities.

3.3.3.3 Key providers and financial support for NFET in Ghana

The Non-Formal Education Division (NFED) is the main implementing organisation of NFET in Ghana; yet the secondary providers are NGOs and CBOs. In addition, international NGOs such as ‘GILBERT’ international, the World Vision International, Salvation Army, the Adventist Relief Agency, TechnoServe, GHACOE women’s ministry and other organisations in the country provide basic skills for the poor in rural communities (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:8). It is significant to mention that the innovative element in the NFET provision in Ghana is that all the stakeholders united to make a co-ordinated effort to achieve a common goal. This linkage among the stakeholders has resulted in equipping adult trainees with some occupational skills which in turn help them to generate income without duplication of the programmes (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:11).

Funding NFET in Ghana is a serious challenge (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:7). The NFET in Ghana is mainly funded by the government of Ghana through its ministries and public agencies. However, from the time the World Bank funding for basic NFET stopped in 2006, the NFET depends only on government’s inadequate financial resources and this has impacted negatively on the effectiveness on many skills training programmes (Owusu-Mensah, 2007:7). As mentioned above, because of collaboration between stakeholders in the local communities, some NFET programmes still are sustained because of funding contributed by some NGOs.

3.3.3.4 The curricula or programmes offered in Ghana

The NFET programmes consist of five areas (Republic of Ghana, 2008:6), namely:

- Literacy/numeracy programmes;
- Health, including an HIV prevention programmes;
- Income-generating skills training;
- Special learning needs programmes for prisoners, migrants, refugees, the disabled and workers in general;
- ICT training

It is significant that all these five NFET programmes have a strong emphasis on income-generation skills for adult beneficiaries (Republic of Ghana, 2008:7). Income-generating skills programmes help the trainees to acquire some occupational skills for wage- or self-employment in the local labour market. Owusu-Mensah (2007:11) points out that adult trainees are also taught how to access credit either from the banks or from co-operatives to finance their micro-enterprises.

Though there is no specific policy underpinning NFET in Ghana, the analysis of the concept of NFET reveals some innovative aspects of NFET. The innovative aspect of NFET consists of its linkage with employment creation and poverty reduction. This is also due to the way NFET is conceptualised in the country as a tool to provide sustainable livelihood skills. The NFET in Ghana consists of apprenticeship, vocational training and other non-formal educational activities.

3.3.4 Provision of non-formal education and training in Ethiopia

It is widely acknowledged that the livelihood situation of poor people is strongly connected with their educational achievement. In the case of Ethiopia, the majority of the youths and adults have less than Grade 10 or even no education (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia [FDRE], 2008:13). Taking into account the cause of poverty and vulnerability of these groups of people, the design of the Ethiopian NFET is characterised by a couple of factors, which called for the elaboration of an integrated system for adult non-formal education. The integrated system of NFET and job opportunities would allow non-formal vocational skills to improve sustainable livelihoods (Anis, 2007:6). To this end, the aim of the livelihood skills training within the NFET in Ethiopia is not only to develop some skills of the adult trainees, but also to motivate, enable and empower them to start their own initiatives as individuals or as a group

towards income generating activities (Anis, 2007:6). Therefore, a policy dealing with this focus of NFET was adopted and promulgated in 1994 to achieve these objectives.

3.3.4.1 Policies and legal framework of NFET in Ethiopia

The Education and Training Policy of 1994 in Ethiopia, which has relevance to NFET intends to achieve the following objectives (FDRE, 2008:7):

- Increasing equitable access to primary and vocational education to meet the demands of the country and the economy;
- Restructuring the education system to suit the local demand;
- Changing the curriculum to increase relevance of education and training to communities;
- Improving the quality of education throughout the system.

To achieve these policy objectives, the government adopted an Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) (FDRE, 2008:7). The ESDP is a framework for national skills development consisting of three implementation phases (commonly called ESDP I, II & III). The ESDP III for 2010/2011-2015/2016 is currently being implemented and it aims at achieving the commitment to the Education for All (EFA) goals by 2015 (FDRE, 2008:7). The ESDP III deals with NFET and focuses on key performance indicators, which are likely to bring about qualitative and quantitative changes in addressing adult skills development and employment within a community.

By the ESDP III, the Ethiopian government has been committed itself to developing an equivalent educational system which lies between skills gained through NFET and those acquired through formal education. Two of the overall goals of ESDP III have reference to NFET. Firstly, The ESDP III aims at providing relevant and demand-driven education and training that matches with the needs of economic and social sectors for employment and self-employment through labour market assessment and by re-orienting and re-focusing the existing NFET system. Secondly, this aim is operationalised by developing “demand-oriented curricula based on Occupational Standard and Occupational Training Standard for non-formal and formal education and training by involving experts from the world of work” (Anis, 2007:8). The action plan of ESDP III policy stipulates that NFET programmes for adults should be implemented in

the community skills training centres (CSTCs). Thus, the ESDP III provides a better understanding of the conceptualisation of NFET in Ethiopia.

3.3.4.2 Conceptualisation of NFET in Ethiopia

The adult NFET in Ethiopia entails livelihood skills and is directly linked to poverty reduction among unemployed persons and disadvantaged groups. It targets adults, school dropouts, small and micro-entrepreneurs with few informal employees, self-employed persons, wage workers in small and micro-enterprises, commercial sex workers, vulnerable youth, unemployed persons, subsistence farming families, and people with special needs (Anis, 2007:8; FDRE, 2008:5).

The Education Sector Development Programmes (ESDP III) defines the content of the adult NFET to include literacy, numeracy and the livelihood training skills that enable trainees to solve problems and to change their lives (FDRE, 2008:7). It describes how the community skills training centres (CSTCs) should offer technical and business skills related to the specific needs of the rural community and motivate the community to participate in the development activities (Anis, 2007:7).

3.3.4.3 Key providers and financial support for NFET in Ethiopia

The adult NFET is co-ordinated by the Ministry of Education in partnership with NGOs, local governments and target communities. However, the key providers are the Community Skills Training Centres (CSTCs) (FDRE, 2008:22). The CSTCs are responsible for designing, planning and implementing relevant NFET programmes for educationally disadvantaged groups and poor adults. The Ministry of Education has created co-ordinating Regional Bureaux with the main responsibility to implement NFET (Anis, 2007:9). The Regional Bureau plays a facilitating role in creating a forum composed of NGOs that implement NFET in the communities. The task of the forum is to develop training manuals on NFET and to initiate various co-ordinating activities in the field of NFET (Anis, 2007:9).

The innovative aspect of the Ethiopian NFET is the ownership and contributions from the local communities. NFET Centre Management Committees are often composed of influential people in the community (Anis, 2007:10). These local committees make sure that the trainers are

present and are teaching the trainees. They are in charge of monitoring and evaluation of the NFET programmes in their communities. Moreover, they are very active in mobilising other local stakeholders to effectively participate, and make follow-ups on the adult trainees (Anis, 2007:10; FDRE, 2008:22).

The NFET in Ethiopia is financed by the government, NGOs and community contributions. The Education Sector Development Program III is dedicated to increase the contribution to adult NFET. However, the budget allocated for the NFET programmes by the Government is just enough to cover trainers' allowances, which means there is no fund to cover training materials and operational costs (Anis, 2007:10, 11). The NGO-government collaboration has resulted in contributing funds directly to the implementation of NFET in the local communities. Communities are also contributing human labour for the construction of NFET centres, locally available building materials like rocks, wood, sand and other items. In many cases, communities contribute funds up to 15 percent of the programme's budget (Anis, 2007:12).

3.3.4.4 The curricula or programmes offered in Ethiopia

The curricula entail income generation programmes, non-formal vocational training and community development (FDRE, 2008:16). The NFET in Ethiopia falls under a separate ministry of Technical and Vocational Training, with its own minister. In 2006, this ministry developed a Non-formal Technical and Vocational Training Implementation Framework that systematically integrates NFET as a directorate of further skills training and livelihoods (Anis, 2007:7). Under this framework, the NFET curriculum is tailored to provide skills training relevant to the specific market demand and suited to people living in that community. In other words, the curricula or programmes offered is both market-oriented and need-based in order to provide trainees with skills that enable them to improve immediately their livelihood skills or to offer qualified services to their wider communities or to even get employed (Anis, 2007:17).

The type of skills offered at NFET centres aims at improving education and training qualification of particular groups who primarily want to acquire new skills. To this end, NFET provides vocational training aimed at two categories of adult trainees: illiterate people and people with some school education (FDRE, 2008:17). Training courses for illiterate adults are tailored towards their livelihood needs and are consequently intended to enable them to directly

improve their personal living situation. These training courses are, for instance, sewing, embroidering, building of fuel-saving stoves, making mud-blocks, pottery, home-management or horticulture, and fattening poultry, among others.

Different from those for illiterate adults, the training courses for adults with some school education are geared towards wage- or self-employment at a higher degree of competence. The curricula intend to help trainees acquire skills related to the local market needs so that they can become wage- or self-employed by producing marketable products or offer marketable services in their local communities (Anis, 2007:17; FDRE, 2008:17). This curriculum entails skills training in basic construction, welding, basic electronics, carpentry, entrepreneurship, amongst others.

In conclusion, the purpose of the the discussion section 3.3 was to identify and examine innovative initiatives of NFET with particular reference to the Dakar Framework of Action. The analysis in each selected country focused on best practices leading to fostering employment and poverty reduction. Relating the analysis to the present study, the innovative initiatives of NFET as an approach to poverty reduction have some common and significant elements in these selected countries. Firstly, the policies and legal frameworks recommend a partnership between all stakeholders in society in order to implement an effective adult NFET. Most of the acts or policies are designed to ensure linkages and partnerships among the providers of adult NFET and adult general education.

Secondly, in response to the needs of special groups of adult trainees, NFET programmes operate alongside the formal education system; though they remain flexible in terms of curriculum, organisation and management. The flexibility allows a centre to provide skills in response to practical needs of a specific population group. Thirdly, in developing countries, there is ownership of NFET centres and contributions from the local communities to NFET centres. NFET centre management committees are often composed of influential people in the communities. Fourthly, in some countries NFET programmes are combined with livelihood skills training and/or income-generation skills to adult beneficiaries. This allows adult trainees to be involved in income-generation activities after completion of training.

Despite these innovative initiatives leading to fostering employment of adults who are living in poverty, there is still insufficient knowledge available on the factors that enhance the utilisation of skills acquired from NFET centres in the labour market. The review of these selected countries in terms of policies and legal frameworks, key providers, financial support and the curricula offered does not reveal the nature of the link between non-formal skills and employment. In the next sections (3.4 and 3.5) the focus will be on reviewing research on NFET in general and evaluation studies of NFET respectively with reference to the present topic.

3.4 Review of research on Non-formal Adult Education and Training

The first reported work on non-formal education and training (NFET) in Africa emerged from Thompson (2001) as a discussion paper presented at a Biennial Conference hosted by the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA). Focusing on the successful elements of NFET, the case studies were based in Kenya, Zambia, Uganda, Zimbabwe, Senegal and Mali (Thompson, 2001). Centres under investigation provided education and facilitated learning through alternative modes of delivery for adults who had been unable to access formal educational opportunities. The main findings from the study identified the following factors relevant for non-formal adult education and training (Thompson, 2001:6):

- The teaching of functional literacy and numeracy provided a foundation for vocational training;
- Vocational education and training equipped the learners with skills to earn a living in future;
- The community was involved in the establishment of community schools and it provided evidence of successful community mobilisation, and solidarity in the provision of education for all.

Rampedi (2003) conducted a study investigating the ideals, challenges and opportunities of implementing an Adult Based Education Policy in a rural setting in the Limpopo Province, South Africa. The research findings indicated that there were four factors impacting negatively on the implementation of the said policy, namely cultural and traditional hindrances; corrupt practices; a lack of enabling environment from implementing agencies; and a lack of political will (Rampedi, 2003:171). At the time the study was conducted, 41% of the economically active

population were unemployed in the Limpopo province (Rampedi, 2003:181). In that year (2003) the Limpopo province had the lowest per capita income of all South Africa's provinces and the highest dependency rate, with an average of 4,8 people being dependent on one person for their living, and 61% of the population lived below the poverty line (Rampedi, 2003:182).

The study revealed that the implementation of the Adult Basic Education Policy in the Limpopo Province failed to reduce poverty among the disadvantaged people due to a lack of involvement and commitment of role players (Rampedi, 2003:185). The author further mentions the lack of an enabling environment in terms of linking industries, private business, credit institutions and the ABET centres to support graduate trainees (Rampedi, 2003:185).

Mjoli (2007) conducted a qualitative study on NFET programmes in the KwaZulu-Natal Poultry Institute (KZNPI), South Africa. The KZNPI is an example of a programme that is linked to people's livelihoods and a great source for food security in rural communities. The programme therefore has great value to poor communities where unemployment is high (Mjoli, 2007:80). The study looked at technical skills acquisition, enabling environments, and the effectiveness of the NFET programme in poultry (Mjoli, 2007). It revealed three challenges: firstly, with regard to the internal enabling environment, the learning materials to support the delivery of the training in order to provide sound theoretical and practical knowledge were not at the appropriate level, and other support materials including materials and equipment necessary for practical training, were non-existent (Mjoli, 2007:72). The second challenge concerned the external environment or links with other partners.

The KZNPI, as an NFET centre, was not registered and accredited by an Education and Training Quality Assurance (ETQA) body (Mjoli, 2007:73). Registration of the centre helps to validate the trainee's certificate for future employment (Mjoli, 2007:84). In addition, there was a lack of appropriate post-training assistance and a supportive environment to allow skills to be utilised productively (Mjoli, 2007:78). Thus, the KZNPI had no institutional linkages with business sectors so as to support entrepreneurship initiatives in the poultry business (Mjoli, 2007:78). The third challenge was that the programme did not have a focus to train those who wanted to become self-employed in the poultry business (Mjoli, 2007:84). The study concludes that the NFET programme implemented by KZNPI was not effective in developing business skills and enabling unemployed adults to become more self-sufficient and self-reliant (Mjoli, 2007:84).

Aitchison (2007) investigated how non-formal education in South Africa is managed and what the major types of provision entail. The study focused on non-formal vocational training and community development. Research findings revealed three types of provision linked to livelihood skills for poverty reduction: Adult Education and Training (AET) is linked to skills training (or livelihoods and entrepreneurial training for unemployed people); work-related skills training (vocationally related skills programmes implemented in the workplace or in training institutions serving the workplace), and income-generation programmes (Aitchison, 2007:14, 15). However, the author points out that the study provided little information on the effectiveness of these programmes (Aitchison, 2007).

In summary, the studies reveal that trainees found it difficult to enter into the labour market or become self-employed, despite the acquisition of skills. However, the afore-mentioned studies did not cover issues related to the incorporation of technical skills with business skills and how the NFET centres create enabling environments for utilisation of these skills in the labour market. While there is thus a body of literature on NFET programmes and their relationship to poverty reduction, the importance of how they contribute to facilitate enabling environments for sustainable livelihoods has not been sufficiently studied. Hence the enabling environments are the main focus of the present study. The next section will analyse evaluative studies on NFET for employment.

3.5 Research on evaluation of Non-formal Adult Education and Training

An evaluation study of NFET conducted by Onyishi (n.d.) in communities of Nsukka in Enugu State of Nigeria shed light on technical skills acquisition. The NFET programme aimed at reducing poverty among poor rural women by training them in income-generating skills in order to meet their basic needs. The focus of the evaluation was on the effectiveness of the programme to help adult trainees find employment in the informal sector (Onyishi, n.d.). All 150 (100%) of the women respondents in the study confirmed that they could not establish business enterprises or become self-employed after learning these skills, due to lack of finances, and an inability to obtain loans either from government or from banks (Onyishi, n.d.).

Sandhaas (2005) evaluated NFET programmes in Ethiopia. These programmes were implemented by the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education

Association (IIZ/DVV) supported by the programmes for poverty reduction by the Community Based Non-formal Livelihood Skills Training for Youths and Adults (EXPRO). Sandhaas (2005:11) points out that EXPRO was aimed at enabling poverty-stricken youths and adults to generate income (project objective) and thus, contributing to the reduction of poverty in selected regions/federal states of Ethiopia (overall objective). These objectives would be achieved through planning and implementation of all-year-round training courses geared towards livelihood needs, market needs or training needs (non-formal vocational training). To this end, Sandhaas (2005:11) states: “Enabling and empowering poor people through training includes systematic selection of skill areas, occupational requirements, target groups, training contents (curriculum), entrepreneurship orientation, access to micro and small credits and follow-up.” On successful completion, participants were given just a few important hand tools and equipment (such as sewing machines and simple machines for leatherwork, woodwork, metalwork and tyre repair) with which to start their own business (Sandhaas, 2005:18).

The purpose of the study by Sandhaas was to describe the situation and the needs of the target groups; the nature of supportive interventions; to identify the major achievements registered at the time; as well as to assess the main problems encountered during the programme implementation (Sandhaas, 2005:6). The study reports positive results on the model of non-formal training which consists of offering courses that are all based on demands (relevance of the programme); including livelihood needs, market needs, training needs or a combination of needs (Sandhaas, 2005:8, 30).

However, three findings reflected negatively on the outcomes of the NFET programmes. Firstly, the existing number of centres did not allow for reaching all the poor and educationally disadvantaged youths and adults (Sandhaas, 2005:30). Those groups are unlikely not only to fully participate in the skills training but also to start income-generating initiatives (small enterprises) (Sandhaas, 2005:30). Without explaining reasons for this finding, Sandhaas (2005:30) suggests targeting special groups, such as women and girls whose education generally yields higher earnings than others and/or are more disadvantaged than men and boys. Secondly, the trainees were not equipped to apply newly acquired technical skills in the community or village for economic activities or to start a business (Sandhaas, 2005:30).

Thirdly, Sandhaas (2005:30) points out that the trainees could not start saving as a group or accessing micro and small credit institutions in order to buy working tools or to set up a small enterprise. Trainees could not access credit or loans (Sandhaas, 2005:31). Although there were special institutions for micro-financing, savings and credit operating in all partner regions in the communities where the NFET programmes were implemented, adult trainees did not have proper access to these institutions in order to obtain a loan to purchase construction tools or sewing machines for tailoring.

Tekle (2010) evaluated a non-formal adult farmer training programme in Ethiopia with the focus on investigating its relevance and effectiveness. Among the reasons for the rural households for living in poverty were a lack of knowledge and skills on improved farming and poor utilisation of new technologies and therefore a lack of improvement in agricultural production and productivity (Tekle, 2010:84). To solve this problem, educating farmers through basic education intervention and training on improved agricultural and sustainable living practices was of paramount importance (Tekle, 2010:84).

The study reveals that training was not relevant because a needs assessment was not conducted prior to training (Tekle, 2010:85). With regard to the effectiveness of the training, the findings indicated that there was a significant change in knowledge acquisition, aspiration and field practice of trained farmers (Tekle, 2010:86). However, practice on the farm and on a specific agricultural production technology (which are the two most important and appropriate trainings) were not covered in the training; therefore no valid conclusion can be drawn on the effectiveness of this NFET (Tekle, 2010:86).

Haan (2006) assessed NFET programmes of public and NGO providers in Sub-Saharan Africa. The focus of the training was on reducing poverty among disadvantaged people who had no skills to find employment. The study's findings indicate that the skills training was not effective in facilitating employment and in reducing poverty among adult trainees (Haan, 2006:118). The study identified two main causes: Firstly, the centres did not incorporate technical training with business skills training (internal environment) and secondly, there was a lack of financial capital (external environment) for a trainee to start a small business (Haan, 2006:119). Furthermore, Haan (2006:240) stresses the importance of an enabling environment in determining the final impact of the NFET. In the case of this particular study, trainees did not access financial capital

because banks and even micro-credit schemes were not keen to provide credit or loans to newly graduated trainees (Haan, 2006:240).

Islam and Mia (2007) evaluated the Centre for Mass Education in Science (CMES) of Bangladesh. The focus was on assessing the innovative elements in non-formal education of income generating programmes for poverty alleviation in Bangladesh. This is a non-formal education operating alongside the formal education system aiming at training adult for wage-employment and self-employment. It is flexible in terms of curriculum, organisation and management, responsive to the needs of special groups of learners and is inclusive of all who wish to learn (Islam & Mia, 2007:90). The CMES provides NFET to the disadvantaged population groups; and it is based on an assumption that exposing the mass of people to science and technology would bring about a significant positive change in the level of their living and would contribute to the nation (Islam & Mia, 2007:92). The content of the programme includes non-formal education combined with livelihood skills training and income generation for the target groups (Islam & Mia, 2007:96).

The study found a positive situation as far as skills acquisition was concerned. Islam and Mia (2007:96) point out that the application of non-formal education including skills training was directed at producing services and goods and marketing of the products. The application of the skills was also allowing trainees to get some income while they participated in education and training. All the components of the system form an integrated package for the trainees enabling them to effectively participate in production. However, the study found a negative situation as far as the internal enabling environments were concerned. Firstly, the training programme was not relevant to the local labour market (skills mismatch) (Islam & Mia, 2007:98). The NFET centre did not identify marketable skills, local barriers, and other problems associated with self-employment, appropriate market research and market analysis by using sufficient and relevant data (Islam & Mia, 2007:99).

Secondly, the graduates who were determined to start self-employment have been trying and facing problems to get a loan from CMES and other sources to start their own business (Islam & Mia, 2007:98). The NFET trainees did not have access to raw materials, essential equipment and marketing skills. Access to loans as an important component of the integrated system and a

mechanism was not in place in order to enable individuals interested in self-employment to have easy access to loans on soft terms (Islam & Mia, 2007:99).

Another survey study on NFET was conducted by Islam, Mia and Sorcar (2012). The NFET programmes were NGO initiatives in Bangladesh. The study examined the relevance of non-formal education for income generation and more specifically on internal environments at meso-level (Islam, Mia & Sorcar, 2012:20). Islam, et al. (2012:27) point out that it was assumed that the NFET centres operating in rural and urban areas would provide training on different skills depending on the demand and applicability of the skills in the particular catchment area. The most frequently taught subjects in rural centres were tailoring, sewing and embroidery. Likewise, training in women development, fisheries, vegetables growing/agriculture, horticulture, nursery, animal husbandry, child and maternal health were more frequently reported in the rural centres. Technical trade subjects such as motor mechanics, welding, wiring and automobile electronics were taught in urban areas (Islam, et al., 2012:27).

However, the study found that the NFET programme was ineffective in the training delivery environment. Firstly, the NFET centres did not develop materials on income generation such as technical education, poultry, sewing and garment making, vegetable cultivation, mushroom cultivation and fishery. Yet, these activities were most frequently demanded by the trainees (Islam, et al., 2012:28). Secondly, there was a shortage of trade and technical instructors in the NFET centres. Even the public centres could not arrange instructors for technical subjects (Islam, et al., 2012:28). Therefore the NFET programme under NGOs failed to be relevant, and thus being effective to reduce poverty among the disadvantaged adults.

Blaak, Openjuru and Zeelen (2012) evaluated a non-formal vocational education in Uganda using centres as case studies. The NFET programmes targeted those adults who were excluded from formal education, thus enhancing their empowerment, human capability and self-reliance by equipping them with useful skills and knowledge (Blaak, Openjuru & Zeelen, 2012:92). The NFET programmes focused on training adults who are poor in hair dressing, carpentry, tailoring, catering, plumbing, motor bike mechanics, electronics or welding. After the theoretical part of the training, the adult trainees did industrial training (Blaak, et al., 2012:92). The purpose of the study was to ascertain whether trainees from NFET centres under investigation acquired

marketable skills, practical empowerment as well as capabilities to critically give direction to their lives.

The positive outcome of the programmes was that NFET centres managed to reach out to educationally marginalised people through low school fees, adaptive teaching methods and appealing contents. Besides this, through its adaptive organisation, NFET seemed to meet quality standards needed to contribute to development (Blaak, et al., 2012:95). Nevertheless, the centres under investigation revealed some weaknesses in implementation of NFET programmes. There was a lack of facilities for practical training and no optimal fit between content and market requirements (Blaak, et al., 2012:95). Also after-training services, such as guidance and counselling to graduates, were not always structurally implemented.

Blaak, et al. (2012:94) observed that although it was estimated that 60% of adult trainees found employment in the trade of catering, it does show that a substantial group of participants did not manage to find employment. In line with this, instructors mentioned during interviews that former graduate trainees of the NFET centres faced many challenges to find employment whether wage-employment or self-employment (Blaak, et al., 2012:94). The challenges were due to a lack of capital and materials to start small scale enterprises. In addition, the study reveals that there was no market for the skills they learnt in some programmes (Blaak, et al., 2012:94). Furthermore, most of the skills taught were basic and success depended on advanced skills and its utilisation in the self-employment.

The study concludes that it is questionable whether NFET currently contributes to outcomes beyond human capital (Blaak, et al., 2012:95). In the context of Uganda where empowerment, human capability and self-reliance emerged from the theoretical exploration as potential outcomes of education, the reality of non-formal vocational education seems to reflect a narrower outcome. Blaak, et al. (2012:95) argue that it should be stated, however, that even in this narrow perspective adult trainees who participated in the NFET did not feel completely equipped by the programmes to become self-reliant. Personal strategies were not always clear and conditions like capital or job opportunities were not always within reach. However, Blaak, et al. (2012:95) suggest that in order to have potential to equip people with knowledge, skills and attitudes, NFET should combine practical marketable skills with life skills, while providing guidance and counselling to make people aware of themselves and their potential to contribute

to their society and economy. This kind of empowerment is manifested through individual or collective agencies in which a group or the individual is able, at their own choice, to take action with regard to the issues that are important to them (Blaak, et al., 2012:95).

Georgiadou, Kekkeris and Kalantzis (2009) evaluated NFET programmes for Roma women in Greek Thrace. The programmes consisted of providing computer skills to an excluded and marginalised population in Greek Thrace. The training contents entailed “computer’s use” and a “setting up of small enterprises” training programme (Georgiadou, et al., 2009:82). The findings reveal that the NFET in computer literacy has proven an important competence able to act as a means for further education, empowering Roma women’s motivation to learn and acquire other basic skills such as reading and writing and communicating in different contexts (Georgiadou, et al., 2009:82).

Nevertheless, this type of NFET was not effective in responding to the needs and demands for basic education for deprived and marginalised populations. Eventually, Georgiadou, et al. (2009:83) observed that in spite of the increase in NFET programmes which associate themselves with empowerment, there were still large numbers of NFET activities that were designed without taking into consideration the needs of the participants in order to receive better results for socio-economic empowerment. Georgiadou, et al. (2009:84) suggest that for this type of NFET in information communication and technology truly to become a tool for empowerment with substantial results, the reformation and the rearticulating of the programmes’ design and planning, is an issue which needs to be addressed.

Morton and Montgomery (2011) evaluated the impact of NFET on vulnerable youths and adults in the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. The NFET served out-of-school youth and adults typically in low-income communities (Morton & Montgomery, 2011:418). The study looked at the extent to which the programme socio-economically empowered the out-of school youth and adults in the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan (Morton & Montgomery, 2011:417). The main problem to be addressed by the NFET programmes was the fact that the vulnerable group was exposed to risk-taking tendencies which were amplified by poor habits and could result in long-term consequences. The objective of the programme was to develop their assets, such as livelihood skills, social skills, social support and business occupations in order to create positive qualities

and connections that help young and adult people thrive and avoid unhealthy risks (Morton & Montgomery, 2011:417).

The intervention strategies consisted of two-year educational programme based on participatory methodology. The NFET operated in 40 centres and 17 community-based organisations and has enrolled over 7000 youth since 2004 (Morton & Montgomery, 2011:418). Sessions included vocational training such as cooking, computer skills and others. Graduates received vocational training certificates that could enable them to participate in small scale business and receive government business loans (Morton & Montgomery, 2011:418). Despite that, the findings reveal that there was no impact of the NFET programme on lives of marginalised adults. Morton and Montgomery (2011:422) point out that the overall results were modest with no significant effects on most outcomes. Although beneficiaries gained some livelihood skills and life skills, these skills were not transferable in the labour market in order to improve the lives of poor people (Morton & Montgomery, 2011:423).

Akpama, Esang, Asor and Osang (2011) evaluated NFET programmes linked to poverty reduction among adults in the Southern Senatorial District, Cross River State, Nigeria. The goal of this non-formal education project was to empower youths and adults by providing them with vocational skills relevant to poverty reduction within their social and cultural contexts (Akpama, et al., 2011:155). The main problem facing the target population was absolute poverty caused by youth early drop-out from school or completing school without gaining any gainful employment. In addition, the previous educational experiences of these adults did not equip them with vocational skills to reduce their impoverished conditions (Akpama, et al., 2011:155).

In order to mitigate this situation, the NFET was a strategy to wage war against poverty through the provision of various training programmes using adult education structures in the impoverished communities. The intervention consisted of providing skills in the areas of tailoring, fishing, bead making, hair dressing and soap making, plumbing, welding, baking, metal work and refrigerator repairs (Akpama, et al., 2011:155). Therefore, the researchers investigated the extent to which these NFET programmes had contributed to the reduction of poverty among the youth and adults in their respective study areas (Akpama, et al., 2011:156).

The findings reveal that skills acquisition did not significantly influence poverty reduction among the young and adults. Akpama, et al. (2011:157) point out that soap making,

hairdressing, bead making and fishery training did not lead to significant reduction of poverty. This is because the skill acquired alone cannot reduce poverty. A comparative analysis between skills training shows that, for instance tailoring, could reduce poverty more significantly than fishery and bead making if there was post-training support. On the other hand, soap making and hairdressing would be more important in poverty reduction than fishery if the trainees receive start-up capital (Akpama, et al., 2011:158).

Akpama, et al. (2011:159) conclude by stating that, “Therefore the researchers recommended that graduates of these poverty alleviation programmes should be provided with more credit facilities to facilitate the establishment of businesses outfit for self-employment, job creation and improve income generation to achieve the goal of poverty reduction”. The implication of this statement is that, although the evaluation study reveals that this type of NFET significantly influences the acquisition of skills among young adults, nothing is known about internal and external factors leading to employment.

Using the case studies approach, Haan (2006) evaluated different centres providing NFET in Sub-Sahara Africa. The evidence from case studies were in eight countries, namely Benin, Cameroon, Niger, Ghana, Kenya, Senegal, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The skills training targeted adults and youth school leavers, with the aim to provide relevant technical/vocational and entrepreneurial/business skills which would have to play a central role in the promotion of a vibrant informal micro-enterprise (Haan, 2006:xxv). The evaluation included public and NGO training centres. The focus of the assessment was the effectiveness of these NFET programme to foster trainees’ start in informal micro-enterprises (IME) (Haan, 2006:8).

The assessment looked at the effectiveness of different components of the programmes leading to self-employment in IMEs. The study sought to determine the extent to which the intervention’s objectives have been met (Haan, 2006:9). To this end, it aimed to assess, firstly the training delivery of existing technical/vocational and other kinds of skills training; secondly, the extent to which these training programmes were relevant for IME operators; thirdly, the pathway from NFET to self-employment and post-training support (Haan, 2006:8). Finally, the study broadly looked at each centre and to see whether the training approach focused on the

provision of demand-driven training that responds to the ‘real’ and changing needs of the trainees (Haan, 2006:8).

The study reveals that the NFET programme provided by public centres was largely ineffective (Haan, 2006:61). The study found few examples of success stories of innovative training programmes for IME operators. This was due to the fact that they continued to be very much ‘supply-led’ (Haan, 2006:85). The training tends to be theoretical, directed to wage-employment in the formal sector. The quality of skills training in the public centre was poor because of a varying set of factors such as the poor state of training facilities, lack of training equipment and training aids, outdated training curricula, teaching staff which was often poorly qualified and demotivated and inadequate management of training centres. Haan (2006:61) further points out that many graduates did not succeed to find the type of employment for which they had been trained.

With regard to the NFET programme provided by NGO centres, it was mainly on self-employment and income-generating activities. Nevertheless, the study reveals that there was little impact on the lives of the graduates (Haan, 2006:120). According to the findings, major causes of the limited impact of the training were, firstly, a lack of prior labour market assessment in Informal Micro-Enterprise Sectors by ascertaining the self-employment possibility (Haan, 2006:120). Secondly, the trainees were not taught any business skills nor motivated to explore existing opportunities for self-employment. Thirdly, trainees did not receive post-training support. Consequently, they lacked tools to start their own micro-enterprise (Haan, 2006:120). Fourthly, the training was focused on the trainees passing the national trade tests. There was no attention paid to the likely future career of the graduates in self-employment. Finally, the training centres lacked the linkage with the role-payers in the communities, network with the business owners, employers and institutions (Haan, 2006:122).

Section 3.5 reveals that among all the NFET programmes examined, there were no factors that enhance the utilisation of skills acquired from NFET centres in the labour market. Moreover, most of the NFET centres did not help their ex-trainees to become employed or self-employed. Graduate trainees could not acquire start-up capital from any sources to be self-employed. As a result, adults who face unemployment, due to a lack of livelihood skills, continue being unemployed after completing NFET programmes.

3.6 Summary

The field research and assessment of NFET programmes show that most research efforts have focused on understanding the characteristics of adult NFET to reduce poverty in communities. They shed light on training delivery methods and reveal the active participation of trainees in their training and skills acquisition. With regard to the effectiveness of NFET programmes, studies reveal that trainees experience difficulty in finding employment in the formal and informal sectors due to skills mismatch. Moreover, trainees are not equipped with entrepreneurship skills and do not have access to resources to start their own businesses. These challenges result in the NFET programmes not having an impact on sustainable livelihoods of trainees and in reducing poverty. There is clearly a need for further in-depth research on the effectiveness and impact of the NFET programmes in NFET centres. There is a gap in understanding the reasons for NFET programmes not being effective in impacting on poverty reduction. The gap from previous studies is to know the extent to which the environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres influence trainees' employment for poverty reduction.

The genesis of NFET is rooted in disadvantaged groups of people who were left behind in the process of poverty reduction. The next chapter will focus on conceptualising non-formal adult education and training in order to better understand its link with poverty reduction.

CHAPTER FOUR

NON-FORMAL ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR POVERTY REDUCTION

4.1 Introduction

There is a growing recognition of the significance of non-formal adult education and training programmes as strong agents of social change in impoverished settings where adults lack access to resources. Illiterate adults are worst affected by poverty, which means not only income and material shortages but also of opportunities (Loewen, 2009:5). Those who are in poor communities are often underprivileged with regard to various learning opportunities that could improve their living conditions. Given the fact that illiterate and unskilled adults are the poorest of the poor in South Africa, their socio-economic condition is the best lens for viewing development and social equity. Non-formal adult education and training is therefore an urgent need and can be considered as an effective strategy to help empower such marginalised adults.

The purpose of this chapter is to conceptualise non-formal adult education and training for employment within the context of human capital and labour market segmentation theories (see Chapter Two). The chapter is divided into four main sections. The first section, conceptualisation of adult NFET, discusses the background and development of NFET, the concept of Non-formal Education and Training, its definitions and approaches and the different types of non-formal education and training. The second section, adult NFET in KwaZulu-Natal, explores the background of Non-formal Adult Training in South Africa, the policy framework underpinning Non-formal Adult Training, and analyses the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) in relation to NFET formalisation. The third section deals with understanding the links between NFET and poverty reduction. The fourth section examines the enabling/disabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market. It entails the legal and regulatory environments for NFET and the SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro enterprises.

4.2 Conceptualising Non-Formal Education and Training

Adult Non-formal Education and Training (NFET) has become relevant to achieve the global goals of the campaign “Education for All” and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In

the 1960s and 1970s NFET was perceived to offer a ‘second chance education’ to those who had been ‘pushed out’ from the formal system (Kedrayate, 2012:11). Generally conceived NFET is not a new concept but learning and teaching process that exists in Latin America and other Third World countries. However, despite the fact that this exists, conceptualising NFET has been a challenge because of the diverse uses of the term ‘non-formal education and training’ (Rogers, 2004:37; Kedrayate, 2012:12). This section deals with the way NFET has been conceptualised since its inception to date. It examines issues related to the back ground and development of NFET, the concept of NFET, different definitions and approaches, the types of non-formal education and the current manifestation of NFET.

4.2.1 Background and development of NFET

In order to understand the nature of NFET and its development, one needs to see the more immediate context from which it originated. The original attention given to NFET emerged from increasing discontent with vital aspects of the formal educational systems and the apparent inability to change them in the 1960s (Rogers, 2004:35). These aspects include in particular the inflexibility and the relevance of formal systems to the local environment. During that time, many international agencies felt that there were huge problems with education as they experienced it in developing countries, but they could be remedied (Rogers, 2004:35).

Criticism of formal education continued to increase throughout the world. In 1968, Coombs pointed out that formal education had “poor internal efficiency and external productivity” (Rogers, 2004:41; Kamil, 2007:10). In 1980, Simon (in Rogers, 2004:41) expanded this external inefficiency, as a mismatch in outputs and qualities of opportunities and results. There was concern about unsuitable curricula, a realisation that educational growth and economic growth were not in step, and that jobs were not immediately created as a result of educational inputs.

Therefore, the concept of NFET as a potential saviour of formal education emerged from this criticism. The NFET was seen as the way of meeting aspirations and developmental goals of people. Rogers (2004:41) notes that the role that NFET was to play during the world ‘educational crisis’ was initially to provide new kinds of inputs to meet the detected deficiencies of formal education. This role was to help redeem the effectiveness and inefficiency of formal education. It was hoped that where formal education failed, NFET provision would do better.

From that time on, NFET took diverse concepts and forms or types according to contexts and purposes it served (Rogers, 2004:35).

4.2.2 The concept of Non-formal Education and Training

At the beginning, NFET was been conceptualised in terms of three perspectives (Rogers, 2004:97). These three perspectives are NFET as a system, NFET as a process and NFET as a setting. They are discussed below to extend the understanding of the general conception of non-formal adult education.

4.2.2.1 Non-formal Education and Training as a system

Conceptualising NFET as a system means that it has been explained in particular in relation to the formal educational system because its emergence has been associated with problems within the formal educational system (Kedrayate, 2012:12). Khawaja and Brenans (in Kedrayate, 2012:12) argue that NFET has been conceptualised in relation to the limitation of the formal education system to meet the learning needs of the majority. This is why it is often perceived as a system, compared and contracted to formal education system. NFET as a system was contrasted with formal education under five themes. According to Fordham (1989) the five themes as illustrated in the table below are: purpose, timing, contents, delivery and control.

Table 4.1: NFET as a system

	FORMAL	NON-FORMAL
Purpose	Long-term and general Credential-based	Short-term and specific Non-credential-based
Timing	Long cycle Preparatory Full-time	Short cycle Recurrent Part-time
Contents	Input-centred and standardised Academic Clientele determined by entry requirements	Output-centred and individualised Practical Entry requirements determined by clientele
Delivery System	Institution-based Isolated (from the socio-economic environment and from social action)	Environment based Community-related Flexibly structured

	Rigidly structured Teacher-centred Resource-intensive	Learner-centred Resource-saving
Control	External hierarchical	Self-governing Democratic

Source: Kedrayate, 2012:13

4.2.2.2 Non-formal Education and Training as a process

Non-formal Education and Training as a process centres on learning as its central component. It emphasises moving from dependency to full control and this is perceived as the fundamental focus in NFET leading to self-reliance and empowerment (Rogers, 2004:97). Kedrayate (2012:14) points out that the learner-centred view of education emphasises the importance of beginning the analysis with the participants and their needs before considering alternative means of meeting these needs.

4.2.2.3 Non-formal Education and Training as a setting

Non-formal Education and Training as a setting acknowledges the importance and value of an informal environment in NFET activities. It focuses on the flexibility and informality of learning because most of the learners are always adults (Kedrayate, 2012:14). Adult trainees differ from children in their way of acquiring knowledge and skills. For education and training to be effective it has to be relevant to the real need in their daily lives. They need to see immediate outcomes of the training course in order to confirm the information based on their experiences. The NFET therefore, is flexible in terms of using participatory methods which consist of involving adult trainees actively in the process of acquiring new knowledge and skills in any environment (Lafraya, 2008:11).

In addition, NFET has also been conceptualised in terms of its purposes to the target population. It had to deal with problems related to unemployment and poverty in many countries (Jjuuko & Kwiri, 2010). For instance, in Uganda, Ethiopia and Ghana efforts were made to reduce unemployment among adult people through non-formal skills training (DVV, 2010; Palmer, 2007b). In these countries, NFET was designed as tool to fulfil a range of educational purpose which was to reduce unemployment. According to Ololube and Egbzor (2012:76), NFET may

provide poor people with the opportunity to learn productive skills, thereafter present a way to actively participate in the economic development of the community. Thus focusing on people's needs and purposes, NFET is conceptualised in terms of providing employability skills.

However, conceptualising NFET only in terms of employment purpose confines its broad goal. Rogers (2004:41-47) agrees with Ololube and Egbzor (2012:76) on the view that formal education had failed to provide skills, knowledge and attitude at acceptable cost. Thus, NFET is seen as a means of providing an affordable alternative to a marginalised group of people with skills required in the labour market. Nevertheless, Rogers (2004:97) takes it a step further by arguing that the concept of NFET is not restricted to an employment purpose. One should rather broadly view NFET in its remedial role, where the formal educational system has been unable to reasonably educate and train all citizens to achieve a holistic freedom (Rogers, 2004:97). Holistic freedom implies that NFET can also be conceptualised in terms of meeting economic, social, political and physical needs of poor and disadvantaged adults.

4.2.3 Definitions and approaches of NFET

Non-formal Education and Training was defined as all education outside of the formal system (Rogers, 2004:74). However, before engaging in a debate on definitions of NFET given by different scholars in the field of education, it is pertinent to review all types of education. Through the early debate in the beginning of NFET, Coombs and Ahmed (1974:8) proposed three modes or types of education, namely, (1) *formal* education, (2) *informal* education, and (3) *non-formal* education (Rogers, 2004:74; Ololube & Egbzor, 2012:72).

Formal education, according to Coombs and Ahmed (1974:8), is the highly institutionalised, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured educational system, spanning lower primary school and the upper reaches of the university (Coombs & Ahmed, 1974:8). Ololube and Egbzor (2012:72) adapted this definition by stating that, formal education “involves the training and developing of a population's knowledge, skills, and character in a structured and certified programme that takes place in a school setting; formal education is classroom-based and delivered by qualified teachers.” In a simple way, a formal education system entails primary, secondary, tertiary and vocational education.

Informal education refers to the lifelong process by which every person acquires and accumulates knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to the environment at home, at work, at play (Coombs & Ahmed, 1974:8; Rogers, 2004:74). In other words, it is a learning process that occurs in daily life, and takes place outside of the classroom, after-school programmes, community-based organisations, museums and libraries.

Non-formal education, according to Coombs and Ahmed (in Rogers, 2004:78), its basic definition is “any organised, systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal schooling system to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, adult as well as children.” Depending on the context of a given country, it involves programmes to impact literacy; basic education and training for out-of-school leavers and livelihood skills programmes. Non-formal education and training was defined by other authors like Simmons until it became simply “organised learning outside the traditional school and university curriculum” (Rogers, 2004:79).

There is also a body of literature that argues that NFET cannot be confined to the classic approach. For instance, UNESCO (2006:6) argues that the term ‘non-formal education’ refers to

Educational activities delivered to targeted social groups, where there is a possibility to provide attention to individual learners. Those activities may include courses, workshops and apprenticeships that meet specific needs of society and its members, in fields such as literacy and numeracy, health and childcare, training in informal sector businesses, life skills such as conflict management, peace and human rights education and environmental education, although some of those topics may also be addressed in formal school settings.

Contrary to others, Weyers (2009) defines NFET in terms of its purpose. Weyers (2009:251) notes that NFET is an educational system outside the recognised framework that typically provides occupational access only to the lowest-level jobs because it does not have the legitimacy to grant school-based diplomas and credentials required to gain access to white-collar and professional jobs.

The NFET distinguishes itself from the other two modes of education on basis of its approach. This view of Weyers (2009) is similar to that of ILO (2009:26) according to which, in NFET

programmes, great attention is taken to ensure that training is tailored to a specific requirement of employment or income-generating activities. Thus, NFET is provided not only in technical skills but also in business, organisational and management skills to function as self-employed or to run a small business, most often a micro-enterprise. For the latter, course topics could include organisation of the production process. The mode of NFET provision is flexible enough to be able to accommodate the needs of, and be attractive to, women and men, including those with low levels of literacy, education and skills and people with disabilities (ILO, 2009:27).

In sum, definitions from different perspectives suggest that NFET has specific characteristics. These are: (1) it entails an organised structure; (2) it targets a certain group of population or clients; (3) it provides specific learning and (4) it is carried out outside the framework of the established education system, and to give a chance to those who did not attend the formal system of education or complete it. Looking at these four specific characteristics of NFET, one can distinguish three types of adult NFET and a further four current manifestations of adult NFET. These types and current manifestations are discussed in detail in the next two subsections.

4.2.4 Types of non-formal education and training

In view of the above definitions (see 4.2.3), NFET can also be conceptualised in terms of three types. These types include complementary, supplementary and alternative to formal educational system (Mfum-Mensah, 2003:664; Rogers, 2004:155). These three types are closely related to formal education as noted by Rogers (2004). Brennan (2006:190) adds that the three types of NFET are common to most developing countries. However, the approach does not suggest a simply negative attitude towards NFET but rather that in terms of objectives and purposes, NFET is mainly considered as a response (or responses) to failures or limitations of formal education in achieving specific educational objectives with particular target learners (Brennan, 2006:190).

4.2.4.1 Complementary or compensatory NFET

Complementary or compensatory NFET is the collective name for various educational and social programmes, projects, procedures and practices for marginalised groups of adolescents

and adults (Mfum-Mensah, 2003:664; Brennan, 2006:190). This type of NFET is designed to do what its name suggests- “compensate for deficiencies.” According to Mfum-Mensah (2003:664) and Hoppers (2000:9), this type of NFET targets specific groups such as school dropouts, rural communities and other marginalised groups for whom formal education had not been able to deliver its educational programmes due to lack of access, or poor performance of the school system.

Rogers (2004:155) argues that complementary NFET was intended to provide education in another way in which more and more adults (especially in the rural areas) can obtain more or less the same educational advantages. This is because they had not been able to obtain or complete their formal education during their youth. In other ways, the compensatory NFET plays a role of remedial education, aimed at those who have been unable to take advantage of the formal system. Similarly, Mfum-Mensah (2003:664) suggests that the reform goals promised by the application of complementary or compensatory NFET are the delivery of educational services to the poorest of the poor, women, the isolated rural populations, and adults who have not been able to attend school. The goal of compensatory NFET, according to Pretorius (in Hoppers, 2000:9), can be summarised as follows:

- to remedy or alleviate adult deprivation;
- to compensate for milieu and psycho-social deficiencies;
- to increase the educational, training and career opportunities among marginalised groups of people; and
- to develop the life skills of individuals.

Viewed in the eyes of the poor, disadvantaged and marginalised adults, the compensatory nature of NFET is required to perform functions which formal education was designed to fulfil but has not been able to achieve. In this sense Mfum-Mensah (2003:664) further argues that, NFET “offers for these target groups the chance to achieve basic literacy and numeracy, the opportunity to learn productive skills, and a way to participate effectively in the development of their societies”. According to Hoppers (2000:11), through a participatory approach, the compensatory provision tends to assist poor, marginalised people (especially women) to cope or survive through tailor-made programmes that often combine core academic skills with a variety of life orientation skills or vocational skills.

4.2.4.2 Supplementary NFET

Supplementary NFET targets the same categories of people as complementary NFET. But it focuses on specific knowledge and skills useful in relation to socio-economic context of a certain community vis-à-vis the targeted people. According to Mfum-Mensah (2003:664), supplementary NFET programmes were designed as a supplement to formal education because the formal school system failed to respond to the social, economic and political contexts of its target population. In a same way, Rogers (2004:155) argues that, NFET “provided some forms of education which were in addition to what was provided in schools, dealing with some content not normally associated with formal education, some quick response to new demands for education or training which formal education cannot meet.”

The concept of supplementary NFET is influenced by the need for sustainable livelihood skills (Ololube & Egbzor, 2012:76). In this sense, it is considered as a tool toward enhancement of socio-economic capacities of disadvantaged people. For this very reason, it entails apprenticeship and vocational training to help adults change their living conditions. Mfum-Mensah (2003:664) points out that supplementary NFET programmes in some developing countries provide skills training and instructions to help address poverty and unemployment. In this connection, it is designed for a particular group of people and specific types of knowledge and skills. The programme focuses on skills training cheaper, and of a shorter duration and being more responsive to immediate needs (Ololube & Egbzor, 2012:76).

Supplementary NFET also entails income-generating skills training to adult beneficiaries. In this case, it serves to address the lack of training and employable skills among the adults. According to Ochse (2008:10) and ILO (2011b:61), supplementary NFET is also meant to give a second chance to those adults who dropped out from the formal education system without any marketable skills. In the latter case, a government or other providers implement a strategy to offer technical and entrepreneurial skills to the unemployed adults in order to enhance their access to job opportunities in the labour market.

4.2.4.3 Alternative NFET

Alternative NFET provides different kinds of education, including different curricula, leading to different outcomes from formal schooling (Rogers, 2004:156). In this type of NFET, learners would be engaged in a new curriculum, learning about new subjects thought to be more relevant to them. The aim of this type of learning is to importantly alter the structure of schools so as to increase access and relevance, and improve efficiency (Mfum-Mensah, 2003:665). Mfum-Mensah further argues that alternative NFET may also serve as a ‘second chance’ education for youths and adults in marginalised communities. In most cases, alternative NFET programmes lead to new qualifications. This is why Rogers (2004:156) called it ‘a replacement’ education and others have viewed it as being in opposition to formal schooling.

Adult NFET is seen as alternative in the way it is planned and implemented, of its trainers and trainees, recruitment process and of type of programmes (Mfum-Mensah, 2003:665). Such programmes establish strong links with communities. For instance, it consists of two aspects which are selecting target groups and income-generating activities, and specifying the programme content (curriculum). Most of the target groups are poor people living below survival level seeking opportunities for income, such as rural women in need of an income for supporting their families, unemployed and underemployed youth in slum and semi-urban areas suffering from frustration and unrest (Ololube & Egbzor, 2012:78). The programme content leads to achieving skills and competencies for immediate employment.

4.2.5 Current manifestations of NFET

In the 1960s and 1970s the role NFET was called upon to perform was to provide a ‘second chance education’ to those who had been failed by the formal system in the developing countries (Rogers, 2004:78). During that time many international agencies felt that NFET could redeem and remedy the existing formal educational system. It was in this context that three types of NFET (complementary, supplementary and alternative) emerged. However, the conceptualisation of NFET has evolved and took new ideas what one can call current manifestations or forms. One reason for the new manifestations is that NFET projects and programmes, particularly those implemented by NGOs in developing countries are multi-purpose; they include literacy, skills training, community development, social awareness and

income-generating programmes (Ololube & Egbzor, 2012:76). Furthermore, NFET is linked to self-employment and the informal sector for people who are currently not self-sufficient and who are at or below the poverty line, and to the informal sector where jobs are scarce (Rogers, 2004:78). For the purpose of this study, the four current forms of NFET comprise para-formal education, popular education, vocational and professional forms, and literacy with skills development.

4.2.5.1 Para-formal forms of NFET

The term ‘para-formal education’ comes from Argentina where it was applied as a term for educational activities *in between* the formal programmes that are highly-organised and structured education provision (Hoppers, 2006:23). These are NFET programmes that operate closely or alongside the formal school system. In other words, para-formal forms of adult education and training are those programmes in the formal educational systems that are implemented by non-formal means. It is significant to note that in this type of NFET the basic contents of formal curriculum largely remains the same and that it prepares adult trainees either for the same or for an equivalent certification (Hoppers, 2006:61). The only difference with the formal system is that it is flexible in terms of approaches to training and organisation and it is implemented on a part-time basis contrary to the formal system.

The main objective of these forms is to provide a *second chance* to those adults who, for various circumstances in their lives, could not benefit from the formal system at an appointed time in life (Ochse, 2008:10). An example of para-formal forms of NFET is Adult Education and Training in South Africa. It follows the same educational framework as designed by SAQA from level one to level four. Adult trainees use the same subjects and textbooks used at secondary education level.

4.2.5.2 Popular education forms of NFET

For the first time, the popular education forms were proposed by Carron and Carr-Hill in 1991, and they focus on educating marginal groups of the population and include adult literacy projects, co-operative training, political mobilisation and community development activities (Hoppers, 2006:23). The main characteristics of these NFET forms of activities are a

concentration on the poor, a learning-by-doing approach, high levels of structural flexibility, and a constant preoccupation to adapt the learning activities to the changing needs of the users (Hoppers, 2006:23). It is significant to note that a popular education form of NFET programme is close to the original ideas of the promoters of non-formal education in the late 1960s and 1970s (Hoppers, 2006:23).

Popular NFET is associated with Paulo Freire's notion of praxis as a reflection plus action or humanisation of the oppressed (Hoppers, 2006:26). The main component here is to provide an education and training which is relevant to social reality. In this sense, Hoppers (2006:26) mentions that popular education and training for adults entail critical awareness, literacy, their basic livelihood skills and an open-ended means for social action.

4.2.5.3 Vocational and professional forms of NFET

Non-formal vocational and professional training has different characteristics from the two previous types of NFET. The skills training implemented under this form of NFET leads to a recognised qualification; either national certificates or national diplomas (Hoppers, 2006:27). It distinguishes itself from others in three aspects (Hoppers, 2006:27); firstly, it admits trainees with a certain level of education who know how to read and write. Otherwise the non-formal training might be ineffective or will not make use of special training materials. Secondly, the training programmes aim at special target groups and select their trainees who are unemployed and come from poor backgrounds. Thirdly, it focuses on training in technical or entrepreneurial skills for the employability of rural and urban adults in the self-employment or wage-employment in the field of agriculture, industry, services and small business activities. If the purpose of the NFET is self-employment, it emphasises the trainee's readiness to use skills and his/her entrepreneurial abilities, savings or access to finance (ILO, 2011b:61).

The objective of this form of NFET is to reduce poverty among poor adults by providing employability skills. Consequently, it entails on-the-job training, artisanal or informal sector apprenticeships, agricultural or industrial extension service skills development, upgrading or re-skilling, as well as similar programmes implemented for the unemployed in the context of re-employment or flexibilisation of the work force (Hoppers, 2006:27). Furthermore, this current non-formal training tends to focus on capacity-based training and is much closer to where there

is demand, such as in the informal sector. To this end, the skills training is organised and implemented in partnership with different stakeholders such as local associations, businesses, local employers or local authorities in direct response to economic needs (ILO, 2009; Jjuuko & Kwiri, 2010).

4.2.5.4 Literacy with skills development

Another innovative form of NFET that has grown fast in reducing poverty among marginalised poor adults is a combination of literacy and skills development. This form is also called functional adult literacy (FAL), aiming at providing livelihood skills leading to self-employment and income-generation. Hoppers (2006:28) points out that this combination is not provided by the private sector, but rather by adult education NGOs and sometimes by the state or local authorities. This form of NFET is implemented in situations where the targeted people have insufficient or no schooling, who are too old to be admitted to formal system, and whose conditions of poverty and illiteracy require specific combinations of training and personal support to ensure their survival (Hoppers, 2006:28).

It is significant to mention that literacy with skills development is implemented by the South African government in the form of Adult Education and Training (AET). The programme consists of four levels and equipping learners with literacy knowledge, attitudes, skills and critical capacity to participate fully in all aspects of society (RSA, 1997). Specifically, the curriculum framework enables adult trainees to:

- develop literacy, language and communication skills in one or more languages;
- develop a critical understanding of the society in which the learners live;
- develop technical and practical skills, knowledge and understanding;
- develop an understanding of the world of science and technology (RSA, 1997).

In summary, from its origin, NFET was conceptualised according to its main role of being a remedy to the deficiencies, ineffectiveness and irrelevance of the formal educational system. Conceptualisations of NFET are based on its purpose to target groups and their problems and felt needs. Therefore, there are three aspects to look at when conceptualising NFET. Firstly, in view of its comparison and contrast with the formal education system, NFET is conceptualised

as a system, a process and setting. Secondly, in view of its types at early stages of its development from 1960s, NFET is conceptualised as a complementary, supplementary, and alternative to the formal education system. Thirdly, the current manifestation helps classify NFET as para-formal education, popular education, vocational and professional form of education and literacy with skills development. In connection with that, the next section will examine the types and forms of NFET in South Africa.

4.3 Non-formal Adult Education and Training in South Africa

Non-formal adult education and training has come to occupy an important place in the national efforts, both in the public and private sectors, to reduce poverty. The Bill of Rights in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) enshrines the right of all citizens "to a basic education, including adult basic education, and to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible" (KZN-DoE, 2011:14). The South African constitution recognises education and training, and charges the elected democratic government for (a) relating adult education and training to the needs of society and producing trained and motivated citizens to serve those needs; (b) enabling adult learners to gain new skills, knowledge and attitudes; (c) enabling adult learners to make sense of their experience within the context of a rapidly changing world; (d) providing learners with the tools required to access lifelong learning and, in so doing, contribute towards community, provincial and national development (RSA, 1997). This section discusses the history and evolution of NFET in South Africa from providing literacy and numeracy to adults learners to an approach focusing on meeting the skills demands of the economy.

4.3.1 The background for Non-formal Adult Training in South Africa

Non-formal Adult Education and Training (NFET) was introduced in South Africa as 'adult basic education and training' (ABET) through the Adult Basic Education and Training Act 52 of 2000 which was adopted in December 2000. The aim of this Act, as stated in the preamble, was to regulate and formalise ABET in South Africa (Adult Basic Education and Training Act 52 of 2000). However, ten years later this Act was amended to Act 25 of 2010 and the ABET was substituted with 'adult education and training' (AET) in Section 1 of the Act. The Adult Education and Training Act 25 of 2010 defines 'adult education and training' as "all learning and training programmes for adults on level 1 registered on the national qualifications

framework contemplated in the National Qualifications Framework Act, 67 of 2008”. In accordance with AET objectives, the Department of Education, local governments, national and local NGOs are involved in offering non-formal education and training (NFET) to adults in different districts of the KwaZulu-Natal province and other provinces in South Africa (UNESCO, 2003:78; Aitchison, 2007). These institutions have played an important role in providing non-formal education to poor people, especially women, in order to involve them in income-generating activities.

Non-formal adult education prior to 1994 was provided by a range of groups ranging from religious groups, NGO workers organisations, political parties and state night schools to mining workers’ companies. Formal technical and vocational training was provided in the former White technical colleges and some schools of industries for Coloureds and mission schools for Black students (Aitchison, 2010:1). The NGOs involved in adult non-formal education prior 1994 were concerned with teaching people to read and understand printed texts and to communicate through writing. Literacy was provided in local vernaculars and in English. During the late 1970s and the 1980s various Freirian approaches to conscientisation were adopted in NGO projects aligned to the democratic struggle (Aitchison, 2010:2).

The approach to adult education as a form of NFET in South Africa included more than simple literacy and numeracy from 1997. The Non-formal Adult Training in South Africa took a new conceptualisation during the post-apartheid era. McKay (2007:286) points out that “after the first democratic elections in South Africa, the new government faced a number of challenges, not the least being the high number of adults who were functionally illiterate.” The poverty reduction process was challenged by the fact that there were many unemployed people whose levels of literacy were such that they were virtually unemployable due to the competition for the small number of available jobs requiring a certain level of education and skills training. McKay (2007:286) further mentions that, low literacy was associated with poverty and a low level of entrepreneurship in both the formal and informal sectors.

The poverty reduction process required a new conceptualisation of adult education in South Africa which emerged from different legislation and policies on non-formal adult education and training. The NFET was then conceptualised as being between formal and informal education. The new conceptualisation of NFET was then called para-formal education (Aitchison,

2007:42). In the same way NFET was seen as complementary to the formal system but by definition it did not have formal certification, some attention was given to non-formal qualifications enabling people to move across (back) into the formal system at the appropriate levels (Aitchison, 2007:42). Studying the relationship between NFET and poverty reduction in adults, Johanson and Adams (2004:8) argue that training for the informal sector is necessarily different from that for the formal sector in its preference for merging technical skills with business management skills and in delivering these courses within a flexible schedule. However, Johanson and Adams (2004:8) recommend that the non-formal adult education and training needs to have immediate application, since the poor can hardly afford long periods of training before seeing a payoff.

4.3.2 Policy framework for Non-formal Adult Training

Since 1994, the South African government has provided a range of policies and legislative frameworks that support NFET. The need to redress the apartheid imbalance and to develop human resources led to the passing of the *Policy Document on Adult Basic Education and Training* in October 1997, which is a national policy framework to guide the implementation of non-formal adult education and training by the provinces (Aitchison, 2007:8). It is suggested in the policy document that it must be read in conjunction with the *National Multi-year Implementation Plan: Provision and Accreditation* adopted in October 1997, which was developed at the same time to ‘provide a national organising framework to set clear targets and time frames’ (Aitchison, 2007:8). Another document important for the purpose of this study is the *Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) Act 52 of 2000*, adopted in December 2000. However, in December 2010 the ABET Act 52 of 2000 was amended to Act 25 of 2010 and the word ABET was substituted by ‘adult education and training’ (AET).

The policy document on AET builds upon previous policy work that aimed at redressing the historical lack of support for adult NFET and encouraging lifelong learning in South Africa. The goal the policy seeks to achieve is to develop an enabling environment in which high quality NFET programmes can flourish with a key component being to guide both public and private providers and not to control and prescribe what they do (RSA, 1997:5). The policy framework also intends to serve the needs of different learning groups: organised labour in the formal economy; self-employed people; out-of-school unemployed youth, in particular women.

The AET Act 25 of 2010 was promulgated in order to provide a legal foundation for the intentions, goals, objectives and aspirations of the Policy on Adult Education and Training of October 1997. Its objectives are:

To regulate adult basic education; to provide for the establishment, governance and funding of public adult learning centres; to provide for the registration of private adult learning centres; to provide for quality assurance and quality promotion in adult basic education and training; to provide for transitional arrangements; and to provide for matters connected therewith (Adult Education and Training Act 25 of 2010).

In the preamble, it is mentioned that the AET Act intends to establish a national co-ordinated adult basic education and training system which promotes co-operative governance and provides for programme-based adult education and training; to restructure and transform the whole system; to redress past discrimination; to ensure increased access to adult basic education and training; to provide optimal opportunities for adult learning and literacy; to promote democracy and democratic values; to advance strategic priorities within adult basic education and training; to pursue excellence and to promote the full potential of every learner and member of staff; to respond to the needs of the Republic and the labour market and the communities served by the centres, and to complement the Skills Development Strategy in co-operation with the Department of Labour (Adult Education and Training Act 25 of 2010).

4.3.3 The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the formalisation of NFET

The enactment of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act 58 of 1995 in October 1995 made the first step in the development of the NQF. The NQF aims at redressing and providing opportunities for people whose careers were blocked due to past policies (McKay (2007:293). The main role of NQF as a framework was to provide lifelong learning opportunities utilising nationally recognised levels (Larney, 2006:38). The key assumption of the NQF is that the adult learner can progress through an integrated system from non-formal education and training to accessing general and further and higher education.

Within the NQF adult education and training is aligned with the formal education system. So, the aim for the NFET provided under the new AET system is now more than learning related to

basic literacy and numeracy. The placement of AET alongside the formal educational system in the NQF structure facilitates the adult learner to move from AET level 1 through level 4. Level 4 culminates in a General Education and Training Certificate (GETC) at the end of the programme (KZN-DOE, 2011:16). The new approach of AET is that adult trainees can acquire the full range of fundamental skills, knowledge, and understanding that gives people a basis from which they can progress along a chosen career and life path. In this regard, McKay (2007:291) points out that the T in AET refers to a wide range of skills and expertise including technical skills such as plumbing, dressmaking, beadwork, and other crafts, together with specialised skills (entrepreneurship, bookkeeping, marketing and management).

So far, this section explored the background for NFET in South Africa after 1994, the policy framework for NFET, the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the formalisation of NFET. It is significant to note three key points; firstly, that within the history of adult education in South Africa prior to 1997, there was a lack of integration of the concept ‘education’ and ‘training’ by both the NGOs and the state sector. Secondly, after 1997 within the changing macro-economic policy context in the country, the new democratic government shifted away from seeing adult education as a tool to provide literacy and numeracy to adult learners to an approach focusing on meeting the skills demands of the economy. Thirdly, the NFET programmes were converged within the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) for the first time in South Africa. Having discussed that, nevertheless, there are some basic questions that need to be asked regarding the meaning of adult non-formal education and training. The very fundamental issue is “adult non-formal education and training for what and for whom?” This question is explored in detail in the next section in discussing the links between NFET and poverty reduction.

4.4 Understanding the links between NFET and poverty reduction

Poverty reduction has been an important agenda in developing countries. It is widely agreed that there is a relationship between poverty and education; and they are both cause and effect of each other (Vandenberg, 2008; Loewen, 2009; Palmer, et al., 2007). For example, poor people hardly obtain access to an adequate education, similarly without education people are frequently constrained to a life of poverty. This section attempts to capture the dynamics of relationship between adult NFET programmes which particularly focus on skills development for income-

generation. However, before addressing the interrelationship between poverty and NFET, it is significant to discuss the concept, working definitions and aspects of poverty. The subsequent part explores the dynamic relationship between NFET and poverty reduction. The section concludes with a discussion on the need for an enabling environment which is an element of the linkage between NFET and poverty reduction strategies.

4.4.1 Defining poverty

Poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon and does not only entail a low level of income or expenditure. It manifests itself in the economic and social life of the people involving economic, social and political dimensions (Bellu & Liberati, 2005:2). The definition of poverty by Vandenberg (2008:8) in the context of ILO, “is a condition in which people lack satisfactory material resources (food, shelter, clothing, housing), are unable to access basic services (health, education, water, sanitation), and are constrained in their ability to exercise rights, share power and lend their voices to the institutions and processes which affect the social, economic and political environments in which they live and work.” Poverty can be viewed as absolute or relative, as a lack of income or failure to attain capabilities (Van der Berg, 2008:1). It can be chronic or transitory.

The definition above-mentioned includes three dimensions. Firstly, poverty in terms of *income/consumption*, this approach is most commonly used, especially in applied welfare economics (Bellu & Liberati, 2005:2; Van der Berg, 2008:1). It defines poverty as a state of a person who is unable to access economic resources in order to acquire enough commodities to meet basic material needs adequately (Bellu & Liberati, 2005:2; Loewen, 2009:5). Secondly, poverty according to the *basic needs perspectives* is defined as the deprivation of the material requirements to fulfil minimum acceptable basic human needs such as food, clothing, shelter, water and sanitation. Thirdly, poverty according to the *human capability approach* emanates from Amartya Sen’s (1993) work and views it as a lack of capabilities, both intrinsic and instrumental (e.g. income, education, health, human rights, civil rights) that allow people to achieve functioning (the things they want to do) and beings (the states of existence they want to experience) (Bellu & Liberati, 2005:2; Van der Berg, 2008:1).

4.4.2 Different types of poverty

For the purpose of the present study, this sub-section discusses an overview of four approaches of poverty and its measurement. Poverty can be conceived as absolute or relative, as chronic and transitory (Van der Berg, 2008:1; Chronic Poverty Centre [CPRC], 2009:6). Therefore, the concepts used to describe poverty determine the indicators employed to measure it and the subsequent strategies and programme to address it. The concepts of absolute versus relative poverty, chronic versus transitory poverty are discussed below.

4.4.2.1 Absolute and relative poverty

When considering poverty's connections with a lack of sufficient financial resources, poverty is usually viewed as either a form of absolute or relative. *Absolute poverty* is perceived as survival below the minimum requirements for physical well-being, generally based on a quantitative proxy indicator such as income (Van der Berg, 2008:1). It is an absence of financial resources required to maintain a certain minimal standard of living (Loewen, 2009:5; Van der Berg, 2008:1). The poverty line usually used by the World Bank for making international comparison is US\$ 1 per person per day or sometimes US\$ 2 per person per day (Kutler & Lee, 2009:6). Alternatively, the *relative poverty* is a lack of resources to achieve a standard of living that allows people to play roles, participate in relationships, and live a life that is deemed normative by the society to which they belong (Loewen, 2009:5).

4.4.2.2 Chronic and transitory poverty

Poverty is also viewed from the extended period of time, and it can be either chronic (of long duration in life) or transitory (short duration). According to Hulme (2003:404) chronic poverty is viewed as occurring when a person experiences significant capability deprivations for a period of five years or more. CPRC (2009:5) suggests that the unique feature of chronic poverty is its extended duration. The chronic poverty concept is used to describe extreme poverty that persists for 'a long time' - many years, an entire life, or even across generations. Thus, the chronically poor individuals are commonly deprived across multiple dimensions. They face combinations of capability deprivation, low levels of material assets and socio-political marginality that keep them poor over long periods (CPRC, 2009:6). Contrary to chronic poverty, transitory poverty

results from a one-time degeneration in living standards, from which a household gradually recovers. Hulme (2003:404) points out that transitory poverty may occur due to seasonal variation of food security, natural disasters and short periods of unemployment.

Nevertheless, it is noteworthy to mention in the context of this study poverty that reduction considers absolute conditions of poverty in KwaZulu-Natal. Absolute poverty can be either chronic or transitory. In view of these expanded definitions and perspectives of poverty as the lack of human well-being, NFET seems to fit significantly as a strategy for poverty reduction. The reason is that the conceptual underpinnings and the basic concern of NFET appear to be the education and training of disadvantaged groups. It is this major concern that makes NFET an important tool for tackling the problem of absolute poverty.

4.4.3 Non-formal Education and Training and poverty reduction

It is widely agreed that the absolutely poor in developing countries usually have low education levels (Van der Berg, 2008:4). Some poor people may still not even have access to primary education or may not complete their primary education. There are strong debates in support of adult NFET programmes focusing on providing livelihood skills that enable the poor to develop the required capabilities to free themselves from poverty and deprivation (Jjuuko & Kwiri, 2010:4). Therefore, as Palmer, et al. (2007:17) argue, the poverty reduction approach which means lifting people out of poverty has education and training as one of the key sectoral strategies.

Likewise, evidence from research in South Africa and elsewhere reveals that poor adults with low levels of educational and training attainment are much more likely to be poor than well-educated ones. The higher incomes linked to higher levels of education and training imply that those who manage to acquire skills at this level will be less likely to become poor (McGrath & Akoojee, 2007:423; Palmer, et al., 2007:17; Robert, 2008:14-15). Stressing educational achievement and household poverty, a household survey conducted by Robert (2008:14-15) reveals that levels of adult illiteracy are particularly high for chronically poor households. Levels of secondary education amongst adults seem to be related to the poverty status of the household. These results are confirmed by other findings in South Africa by Armstrong, Lekezwa and Siebrits (2008:19-20). Nonetheless, poverty was uncommon among adults who

had obtained skills training certificates or diplomas. For these reasons, among others, NFET has a key role to play in the fight against absolute poverty.

4.4.4 NFET, poverty reduction and the need for an enabling environment

Though the case has already been made and largely accepted that adult NFET enhances employability in the formal and informal sector, and thus reduces poverty; this is usually only true where livelihood skills are acquired in an economic and social environment that is conducive of skill utilisation. There are debates today around linking adult NFET to employment and poverty reduction. Palmer (2007b:410), in his article “*Skills for work?: From skills development to decent livelihoods in Ghana’s rural informal economy*”, argues that, “It is recognised that skills training alone is not sufficient for developmental outcomes to materialise”. Palmer’s view implies that skills acquired from NFET programmes are only a part of the package in the process of employment and poverty reduction.

The challenge of linking skills training to improved livelihoods of the poor can be difficult, particularly for women. For instance, according to Palmer’s (2008:42) view, women are not only disadvantaged with regard to accessing education and skills training, but they are further disadvantaged with regard to accessing the labour market. In the context of African rural areas, women are often denied access to many occupations. Accessible occupations are often those requiring skills related to household work; activities with low productivity, yielding low incomes. Due to social and cultural discrimination, especially in rural areas, women usually have very restricted knowledge about job opportunities and employment prospects (Capt, 2007; Murray, 2008). In some cases they find it difficult to access and have control over resources, including financial resources required for starting income-generating activities, patterns of employment relations, and contractual arrangements often favour male workers (Hasanov, et al., 2009 13; ILO, 2011c: 23-29).

Adult NFET programmes need an enabling environment in order to reduce unemployment and poverty. According to King (2011:2), skills acquisition from NFET is very different from skills utilisation, and especially for the poorest who can only access basic education of very low quality. In line with King’s argument, one can conclude that NFET requires an enabling environment for its outcomes to materialise into improved employment and productivity.

Similarly, the World Bank (2004:188) convincingly emphasises that there is no automatic connection between skills development and employment. According to the World Bank (2004:188), “Training, by itself, will not create jobs and will achieve its objectives only where the conditions are right for economic growth”. The implication is that skills training, alone, does not create employment nor does it, alone, raise incomes and productivity in the informal economy (King, 2011:2; Palmer, 2007b:410; Palmer, 2008:42). Therefore, for skills acquired from NFET programmes to translate into employment and poverty reduction, there is a need of other factors, internal and external to the NFET system (King & Palmer, 2008:19). These are supportive enabling environments that allow skills to be utilised productively in the labour market. The next section discusses the types of the enabling/disabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market in relation to NFET in, South Africa.

4.5 The enabling/disabling environments for graduates entering the labour market

It was discussed in Chapter Two (sections 2.3.2 and 2.3.3) that for purposes of transforming learnt skills into employment outcomes, other factors, external to adult NFET centres, are required at macro level. This section examines the laws and regulations contributing to enabling/disabling environments as set out in the conceptual framework in Chapter Two and in relation to the empirical study. The external environments of NFET for employment at macro level entails legal and regulatory environments, the SME promotion policies and institutional environment, small business registration and licensing, access to credit and financial services, the access to business development services, the access to business premises, access to Business Development Services and to business information.

4.5.1 The legal and regulatory environments for NFET

In South Africa, the government has enacted laws and policies as enabling environment for effective adult education and training for employment. The acts and policies that have direct implications for the implementation of adult NFETs are as follows:

- Skills Development Act, 37 of 2008;
- Framework for the National Skills Development Strategy III: 2011/2012-2015/16;
- Education and Training Quality Assurance (ETQA).

The objectives and custodian institutions of these legal and regulatory environments are discussed in detail below.

4.5.1.1 Skills Development Act, 37 of 2008

The Skills Development Act, 37 of 2008 was an amendment of Skills Development Act 97 of 1998. Its objectives in relation to this study are:

- to develop the skills of the South African workforce by improving the quality of life of workers; promoting self-employment; and improving the delivery of social services;
- to increase the levels of investment in education and training in the labour market and to improve the return on that investment;
- to encourage employers to use the workplace as an active learning environment by providing opportunities for new entrants to the labour market to gain work experience; and employing persons who find it difficult to be employed;
- to improve the employment prospects of persons previously disadvantaged by unfair discrimination and to redress those disadvantages through training and education;
- to assist work-seekers to find work and enter the labour market (Skills Development Amendment Act 37 of 2008).

The act targets persons previously disadvantaged by unfair discrimination and to redress those disadvantages through training and education. It also targets work-seekers to find employment and enter the labour market (Skills Development Amendment Act 37 of 2008). It is also mentioned in the act that these objectives will be achieved through an institutional and financial framework. This framework comprises the National Skills Fund and a skills development levy-financing scheme as contemplated in the Skills Development Levies Act (Skills Development Amendment Act 37 of 2008). The act also encourages partnerships between the public and private sectors of the economy to provide learning in and for the workplace (Skills Development Amendment Act 37 of 2008).

4.5.1.2 Framework for the National Skills Development Strategy III: 2011/2012-2015/16

The National Skills Development Strategy III (NSDS III) is the central strategic guide for skills

development and provides direction to sector skills planning and implementation in the different sectors (DHET, 2010:8). It provides a framework for the skills development levy resource utilisation of these institutions as well as the National Skills Fund, and sets out the linkages with, and responsibilities of, other education and training stakeholders (DHET, 2010:8). The strategy focuses on relevance, quality and sustainability of skills training programmes to ensure that they impact positively on poverty reduction and inequality (DHET, 2010:11).

The objective of NSDS III is to enable effective participation in the economy and society by all South Africans and to reduce inequalities. To this end, it aims at encouraging the linking of skills development to career pathways, career development and promoting sustainable employment and in-work progression (DHET, 2010:5). In relation to the unemployed and poor adults, the emphasis is placed on training to enable trainees to enter the formal workforce or create a livelihood for themselves and become self-employed. The strategy places a particular emphasis on those adults who do not have relevant technical skills or adequate reading, writing and numeracy skills to enable them to access employment (DHET, 2010:5). In the context of this study, NSDS III is a response to the desperate difficulty of so many of the longer term unemployed adults who do not have the work experience and work-based training needed to enable them to seek and obtain work (DHET, 2010:6).

The NSDS III targets disadvantaged youths and adults to enable them to access skills development and train them for employment (DHET, 2010:6). With regard to race, it prioritises confronting the racial inequalities in a community; with a particular focus on giving more opportunities to previously (and currently) disadvantaged South Africans. In other words, NSDS III focuses attention on skills provision for blacks in general and Africans in particular (DHET, 2010:7). It also focuses on providing livelihood skills for rural development and to train rural people for the development of the rural areas themselves (DHET, 2010:7). In KwaZulu-Natal, the Department of Labour has implemented the NSDS III for the unemployed adults. The strategy consists of an on-going restructuring of its unemployment-training scheme (KZN, 2012:38).

4.5.1.3 Education and Training Quality Assurance (ETQA)

Education and Training Quality Assurance Bodies (ETQAs) are bodies accredited in terms of the SAQA Act, 1995, responsible for “monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of national standards or qualifications and standards” (SAQA, 2001:20). The ETQAs are primarily responsible and accountable to SAQA in terms of the ETQA regulation R1127 (SAQA, 2001:20). The ETQAs are responsible for recognising training providers for specific standards or qualifications registered on the National Qualifications Framework (SAQA, 2001:20; RSA, 1997). Their quality management functions to promote quality among skills training centres and monitoring their provision, to take responsibility for the certification of trainees.

In the context of NFET, ETQAs play a major role in taking responsibility for the certification of trainees. This role is vital for those trainees who are interested in wage-employment. According to the SAQA policy (SAQA, 2001:22), an ETQA ensures that the training centre contributes to assuring the quality of learning opportunities and qualifications and standards within the NQF, through its auditing, monitoring and feedback activities. Another function of ETQAs in the context of adult education and training is to confirm that suitable resources are available and are used to good effect in order to lead to the certification of trainees. By facilitating certification of trainees, ETQA constitute an important enabling environment for NFET graduate’s employment.

In summary, the documents on legal and regulatory environments related to NFET show that there is an enabling environment at macro-level. The findings from document analysis reveal that the South African government has created opportunities for wage- or self-employment for NFET graduates through the legal and regulatory frameworks. However, the legal and regulatory environments address the issue of equal access to education and skills training and opportunities for wage- or self-employment; but nothing is mentioned about the procedures pertaining to entry to wage-employment or the labour market. The next section will examine the SME promotion policies and the way they constitute the enabling or disabling environments for a graduate’s micro- enterprise.

4.5.2 SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises

After the democratic elections of 1994, South Africa government adopted the *White Paper on the National Strategy for the Development and Promotion of Small Business in South Africa (1995)*. The intention of the White Paper was to promote and improve access to finance, access to markets by spreading information about domestic marketing opportunities through business information centres. Another intention was to abolish unduly restrictive or inappropriate legislative and regulatory conditions as critical constraints to the growth and development of small businesses (DTI, 2005b:8). The SME promotion policies and institutional environments examined in relation to the study are Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act 53 of 2003, Integrated Small Enterprise Development Strategy (ISED), Small Business Development Agency (SEDA) and Ithala Development Finance Corporation.

4.5.2.1 Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act 53 of 2003

The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act 53 of 2003 consists of bringing the country's black majority into the economic mainstream (Gordon-Davis & Cumberlege, 2007:42; KZN, 2010:20). The objectives of the Act are to facilitate broad-based black economic empowerment by:

- Empowering more black people to own and manage enterprises;
- Promoting access to finance for black economic empowerment enterprises;
- Empowering rural and local communities by enabling access to economic activities, land, infrastructure, ownership and skills;
- Promoting the human resource development of black people through, for example, mentorships, learnerships and internships; and
- Assisting in the development of the operational and financial capacity of Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) enterprises, especially Small, Medium and Micro-Enterprises (SMMEs), and black-owned Enterprises (Gordon-Davis & Cumberlege, 2007:42; KZN, 2010:20).

In view of these objectives, B-BBE may be considered as an external enabling environment for self-employment of NFET graduates. Similar to B-BBE is the Integrated Small Enterprise Development Strategy (ISEDS).

4.5.2.2 Integrated Small Enterprise Development Strategy (ISEDS) of 2004-2014

The ISEDS is a policy framework that lays out a strategy for the development of small businesses in South Africa over ten years (2004-2014). The ISEDS pursues the following objectives:

- Creating an enabling environment for small enterprises, which levels the playing field between big business and small business, reducing the disparities between urban and rural businesses;
- Creating sustainable long-term jobs for women and men in the small business sector;
- Ensuring previously disadvantaged individuals, women, people with disabilities, and young women and men are equitably represented in the small business sector (DTI, 2005a:6).

The ISEDS is based on three pillars, which specify the strategic actions that form the core of the strategy:

- Increasing supply of financial and non-financial support services;
- Creating demand for small enterprise products and services;
- Reducing small enterprise regulatory constraints (DTI, 2008:28).

The significance of ISEDS in relation to NFET is that it aims to create an enabling environment for those trainees interested in self-employment by starting-up micro-enterprises. Firstly, the promotion of small business includes facilitating access to information and advice; marketing and procurement; finance; affordable physical infrastructure and business premises; access to appropriate technology, and encourages joint ventures of small business (DTI, 2005b:3). Secondly, the policy resulted in creation of SME development institutions and agencies that have important roles in the implementation of the strategy.

4.5.2.3 Small Business Development Agency

Small Business Development Agency (SEDA) is a public organisation within the Department of Trade and Industry established in December 2004. It is mandated to implement small business strategy and design a common national delivery network that must uniformly apply throughout South Africa (SEDA, 2010:3). To this end, SEDA provides information, counselling and business support services, targeting in particular, micro and small enterprises (including co-operatives) from all sectors throughout the country. Assistance is also given to medium-sized enterprises and emerging entrepreneurs (SEDA, 2010:3; DTI, 2008:114).

In KZN, SEDA has a provincial office in Durban, as well as smaller branch offices in different districts where various services are provided. Most of these services are informational in nature (in other words, helping entrepreneurs identify business opportunities) (DTI, 2008:114). Besides providing information to micro-entrepreneurs, SEDA also helps its clients to access financial services, assists small enterprises with business plan development and referral to commercial banks and development finance institutions (KZN, 2012:24). However, it does not lend money directly to small enterprises.

4.5.2.4 Ithala Development Finance Corporation

Ithala is a KZN Provincial Government's economic development agency, a catalyst for economic development and empowerment (DTI, 2010:35). Ithala's objectives in relation to the NFET for self-employment are:

- To mobilise financial resources and to provide financial and supportive services to the people of KZN;
- To promote, encourage and facilitate private-sector investment in the province and the participation of private sector and community organisations in development projects and programmes, and in contributing to economic growth and development; and
- To act as a property portfolio holder and developer, providing service and SMME sectors with rental premises such as factories and shopping centres (DTI, 2010:35; Ithala, n.d.).

In KZN, Ithala provides innovative financial packages that are designed to get a business. Ithala's loans department is responsible for Ithala's small, medium, and micro-enterprise (SMME) development programme and its agri-business programme provides loan packages to cover building finance, plant and equipment finance, working capital, land and fixed improvements, finance and empowerment equity capital (DTI, 2010:35; KZN, 2012:25). It also provides working capital to new or existing SMMEs embarking on projects with a positive developmental impact.

The target population served by Ithala Bank are basically persons from previously disadvantaged communities. It places a specific emphasis on Priority Population Groups (PPGs), meaning historically disadvantaged individuals, in which the micro- enterprise should be owned/managed or sufficiently influenced by individuals from previously disadvantaged communities (KZN, 2012:25). However, rural communities may have difficulty to access financial services available because Ithala's business centres are located mostly in urban areas, making the delivery of services to remote areas problematic (DTI, 2008:115).

4.5.2.5 KwaZulu-Natal-SMME and Co-operative Strategies

The SMME and Co-operative Strategies emphasise the development of SMMEs and co-operatives in order to increase economic participation and generate employment in KZN. The objective is to encourage the establishment of SMMEs and other entrepreneurial ventures such as co-operatives in the lead sectors of the economy (KZN, 2012:34). It is stated in the Provincial Growth and Development Plan of 2012 that underpinning this objective is the recognition of the importance of mentorship programmes for the owners of SMMEs and co-operatives in the formative stages of their businesses – as well as on-going support to facilitate their adaptation to changing markets and market conditions (KZN, 2012:24).

The KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS) also identified co-operatives as being of important policy interest for the province, implementing plans to:

- mobilise the community into forming co-operatives;
- organise district secondary co-operatives to service the primary ones;

- organise a provincial tertiary co-operative to work with business and others to benefit from the movement;
- organise training and support for the co-operative movement (KZN, 2012:24).

The KZN-Department of Economic Development and Tourism (DEDT) has implemented a system of compulsory incubation for newly formed co-operatives. In fact, guidance and assistance from the DEDT begins at the very moment of conception of a business idea, as outlined on the website of the DEDT (www.kznded.gov.za; see also KZN, 2008:107). The SMME and Co-operative Strategies use the following process:

- People who have a business idea and are interested in forming a co-operative can come together to form a pre-co-operative group;
- The pre-co-operative group can contact their nearest FET college where they can apply to participate in a four-week training programme. At least half of the members of the group must attend the training course. During this training they will be introduced to co-operatives and will get assistance to develop a business plan, draw up a constitution for their co-operative and fill in an application to register as a co-operative;
- The co-operative registration application is sent to the KZN-DEDT. The Department will forward the application to the Registrar of Co-operatives at CIPRO. Registration takes four to six weeks. The business plan is sent to Ithala with an application for funding for the co-operative. The co-operative completes an application form to be placed in the KZN provincial government list of service providers;
- If co-operative registration and funding applications are approved the co-operative must join the KZN Business Incubation Programme managed by Masifundisane Training and Development College. This incubation or mentorship programme provides support for the co-operative for up to six months. The new co-operative begins to operate as a business with guidance and support from the Masifundisane mentors;
- After three to six months the co-operative moves out of the incubation programme, and becomes an independent business.

Through the SME promotion policies and institutional environments the government creates an external enabling environment to undertake self-employment in SMMEs or co-operatives. In

relation to the present study, the effectiveness of these external enabling environments will be examined in the empirical findings in Chapter Seven, section 7.5.

4.6 Summary

The main purpose of this chapter was to conceptualise non-formal adult education and training for employment within the context of human capital and labour market segmentation theories. The chapter captures the dynamics of the relationship between NFET and poverty reduction strategies.

From its origin in the 1960s NFET was called upon to remedy to the deficiencies, ineffectiveness, and irrelevance of the formal educational system. This made NFET to be conceptualised in terms of its purpose to target the population to be served, their problems and felt needs. Therefore, in view of its roles to the disadvantaged or marginalised people in its early stage of development, NFET was conceptualised as a complementary, supplementary, and alternative to the formal education system. However, the current manifestations of NFET as implemented by different providers classify it as para-formal education, popular education, vocational and professional form and literacy with skills development.

In the context of South Africa, after 1997 within the changing macro-economic policy context in the country, the NFET approach was to focus on meeting the skills supply and demands of the economy and reducing poverty by creating employment. This new conceptualisation of NFET has led to formalising it within the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). However, it was argued in the chapter that employability skills alone cannot reduce poverty among marginalised adults; it has to be coupled with external enabling environments.

Regarding external enabling environments, the document analysis reveals that the South African government has created opportunities for wage- or self-employment for NFET graduates through the legal and regulatory frameworks, SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises. The creation of new micro-enterprises, the development and upgrading of existing SMEs, and their formalisation, are seen as being the key contributors to job creation and poverty reduction.

However, the legal and regulatory environments and SME promotion policies and institutional environments address the issue of equal access to skills training and opportunities for wage -or self-employment; however nothing is mentioned about the procedures pertaining entry to wage-employment or labour market. The next chapter presents the empirical findings from the field work in relation to internal enabling environments of non-formal adult education in KwaZulu-Natal. The next chapter will focus on the research methodology employed in conducting this study. It describes the research design, sampling procedures and construction of data collection instruments in line with the conceptual framework.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

With reference to the study, the research gap was identified as a missing link between NFET programmes and adult employment and/or the labour market. That link is referred to the centres' enabling environments for employment. The chapter provides an account of the research processes. It outlines how the research was designed; the study population and the methods used to select the sample size for the NFET centres, managers and trainers (instructors). It further explains the data collection methods for both quantitative and qualitative studies, and data analysis. The chapter also discusses reliability and trustworthiness of research data and ethical considerations.

5.2. Research approach

The appropriate research approach for the study was the mixed methods research approach. According to Creswell (2009:4), mixed methods research is an approach which consists of combining or associating both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The study adopted a mixed methods research approach which allowed viewing the enabling environments at multiple levels (micro, meso and macro).

The purpose of using the mixed methods research approach was two-fold. Firstly, the researcher intended to obtain statistical, quantitative results from a sample of adult trainees, managers and trainers, and then followed up with a few adult trainees and managers to help explain those results in more depth (Creswell, 2009:121). Secondly, the mixed methods research approach helped to better assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in fostering trainees' employment. The ultimate aim of this approach was to better understand the reasons for NFET programmes not being effective in fostering employment and impacting on poverty reduction.

To this end, the mixed methods strategy of data collection and analysis was done concurrently. According to Creswell (2009:14), the concurrent mixed methods strategies are those in which

the researcher converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. This approach presented richer research, valid and reliable data on three levels (micro, meso and macro) of the enabling environments for trainees' employability. Firstly, at micro-level, it helped obtain both qualitative and quantitative data on trainees' socio-economic profile and aspirations. Secondly, at meso level, it helped collect valid and reliable data on the delivery environment at the NFET centres regarding skills acquisition, entrepreneurship promotion and resources. Thirdly, at the macro level environment, it helped obtain valid and reliable data on centres' linkages with other sectors, community agencies, organisations and institutions, laws and regulations, policies and institutions, post-training support, access to credit and financial services, access to business development services, networks, access to business premises, access to labour markets and social or cultural factors.

5.3 Type of research

The appropriate type of research was applied and in particular, evaluation research. The reason was that the goal of the study was to assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in fostering trainees' employment. According to Babbie and Mouton (2007:335), evaluation research is "the systematic application of social research procedure for assessing the conceptualisation, design, implementation and utility of social intervention programmes." A similar definition, in accordance with the context of the study is, according to ILO (2011a:21), that skills training evaluation is "a systematic procedure for assessing the degree to which skills development programmes contribute to achieve objectives regarding employment and the improvement of social and economic conditions of people, enterprises and the society as a whole." This type of research was more suitable for the research topic and objectives because it helped collect baseline data (before skills training) and data after the completion of the training (Martens & Wilson, 2012: 379).

5.4 Research design

The study utilised a mixed methods research design. This entails triangulation by combining both quantitative and qualitative research designs and hence the use of several different research techniques to test the same finding (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:275; Werner 2004:28). According to Sarantakos (2005:145), triangulation allows a researcher to view a particular point in research

from more than one perspective. In this study, triangulation research design was used for three reasons: (1) to obtain a variety of information on the same issues; (2) to use the strengths of each method to overcome the deficiencies of the other and (3) to achieve a higher degree of validity and reliability (Sarantakos, 2005:146).

In the qualitative research design, the researcher perceives reality as subjective, constructed and multiple (Creswell, 2009: 14). The reality is experienced from inside out (not through the human senses), and it resides in the mind of people who construct it (Sarantakos, 2005:41). In other words, the reality is not ‘out there’ in the research field to be objectively observed or identified by human senses; rather it is differently interpreted by people. As Sarantakos (2005:42) further points out, the qualitative research design has a purpose of helping a researcher to interpret and understand three elements of social action. Firstly, it helps understand the actors’ action; secondly, it helps understand the way they construct their lives and the meaning they attach to them; and thirdly, the social context of social actions (Sarantakos, 2005:42). What is crucial with the qualitative research design is that the focus is not on the observable social action but rather the subjective meaning of such actions (Sarantakos, 2005:43).

The type of qualitative research design used for the study was multiple case studies. Multiple case studies are an approach “in which a particular instance or a few carefully selected cases are studied intensively” (Gilbert, 2008:36). According to Kumar (2011:126) as well as Rule and John (2011:3), in a case study design, the selected cases become the basis of a thorough, holistic and in-depth exploration of the aspects that a researcher wants to find out about. The multiple-case strategy offered the flexibility to study the case in depth (Rule & John, 2011:20). Moreover, the main reason behind choosing the multiple-case design is that it helps make a comparison across NFET centres, and its nature of analytical detail and inductive logic (Gilbert, 2008:36; Nieuwenhuis, 2012:76). Therefore, it was an applicable design to provide detail and insights into adult trainees, instructors and centre managers’ experience of the adult NFET. However, the limitation of multiple-case study design is that it cannot generate findings that represent all cases of the population (Rule & John, 2011:22).

With regard to the qualitative research design, its advantage is that the researcher studied and understood the reality of the adult trainees on enabling environments from the inside out; that is how they are constructing it (Sarantakos, 2005:46). In the context of this study, it helped reveal

the reality about the effectiveness of NFET in the minds and views of adult trainees and different centre managers (Sarantakos, 2005:46). Another advantage of qualitative design was that it provided more insight on how adult trainees view the effectiveness of the skills training delivery environment of NFET centres; the external environment in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment, and the extent of external enabling and disabling environments influencing the graduates entering the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal.

Nevertheless, in the context of the present study, the qualitative research design has some weaknesses. Some of the criticisms are the following (Sarantakos, 2005:45; Creswell, 2009: 14):

- Qualitative design is inefficient by being unable to study relationships between variables with the degree of accuracy that is required to establish social trends or social policies.
- Qualitative design is based on small samples and hence does not produce representative results.
- Since qualitative studies cannot be representative, their findings cannot be generalised.
- Qualitative studies do not produce data that allow comparisons between variables in order to cross-check among respondents.

The quantitative research design was used to overcome the above weaknesses of the qualitative research design. According to Sarantakos (2005:31), the quantitative research design consists of “Explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics)”. It is the characteristic of the quantitative research design to perceive reality to be objective, simple, single, tangible and fixed. While qualitative researchers perceive the reality as not ‘out there’, it resides in the mind of people; quantitative researchers perceive reality as objective, ‘out there’, to be ‘found’ and perceived through the human senses (Sarantakos, 2005:42). From the viewpoint of a quantitative study, the research aims to uncover an existing reality. ‘The truth is out there’ and it is the job of the researcher to use objective research methods to uncover that truth (Ruben & Babbie, 2013:42).

The quantitative research design for the study was a survey. The reason for choosing a survey design was to avoid “relying exclusively upon participants’ satisfaction of subjective judgement (qualitative data) of programme effectiveness because it can lead to erroneous conclusions” (Henry, Hill & Leitch, 2003:114). A survey design was appropriate and relevant to this study on

the assessment of enabling environment because (1) it can be used for explanatory and evaluative studies; (2) it presents participants with a series of questions to be answered and summarised their responses with percentages; and (3) uses data collection methods that include written questionnaires and face-to-face interviews (Henry, et al., 2003:114). A survey approach helped to collect facts by using scientific techniques to produce quantified and normally generalised conclusions. Furthermore, based on the view of Fouché, et al. (2011:155), also Henry, et al. (2003:114) and Creswell (2009:117), the characteristics of the quantitative research design which made it suitable for this study, were as follows:

- Survey design provided a high level of general capability in representing a large population in the selected four education districts;
- The researcher collected the information under conditions of control using a copy of the same instrument for each respondent during the survey;
- The survey questionnaires consisted mainly of closed-ended questions to provide numerical information which was analysed by using statistical procedures of computers to ensure objectivity in the collection and analysis of information.

In the context of this study, the main disadvantage of the quantitative research design is that it is not perfect for answering controversial questions in a questionnaire. In a questionnaire, questions that are controversial possibly may not be precisely answered by the respondents because of the probable difficulty of recalling the information related to them (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:232). The truth behind these controversies may not be revealed as accurately as when using alternative data gathering methods such as face-to-face interviews. It is for this reason that the mixed methods approach was selected for this study.

5.5 Research methods

Mixed research methods were used for the study which consisted of a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods (Creswell, 2009:204). In support of Weyer's (2009:252) view, measuring only quantitative results of an assessment of adult NFET centres' enabling environments can fail to provide a full picture of the true value. Three study populations (managers, trainers and adult trainees) form the sampling method for the research participants, data collection, analysis and interpretation for the study.

The primary source of data collection in the quantitative method was questionnaires, while the qualitative method used semi-structured interviews and field observation (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011a:186). According to Creswell (2009:16), the quantitative method is essentially about collecting numerical data to explain a particular phenomenon. The reason for using the quantitative method in the study was based on its primary purpose which is to determine cause-and-effect relationships or comparability (Creswell, 2013:86; Sarantakos, 2005:47). Comparability in the context of the current study refers to the inter-relationship of two variables or factors in a causal analysis, the cause X, and the outcome Y. Yet the qualitative method cannot answer questions such as “How many?”, “What are the causes?”

However, the qualitative method can provide an understanding of the mechanisms which link particular variables, by looking at the explanation and account (Creswell, 2009:16). By definition, the qualitative method is essentially descriptive in character, involving the production of a narrative account of a series of events using words (Creswell, 2009:16). The choice for using the qualitative method was because its primary purpose is to describe an on-going process. The qualitative method was beneficial to the study because it helped present the data from the perspective of the adult trainees on the enabling environments being studied (Sarantakos, 2005:45).

5.5.1 Study population and sampling

The population for the study was all the adult NFET centres, managers, instructors and their adult trainees in KwaZulu-Natal. This province was selected because of its high prevalence of poverty and unemployment among the nine provinces of South Africa (KZN Department of Health, 2010; Provide Project, 2009; May, 2010). For the purpose of this study, the sample was drawn from the following districts of KZN’s Department of Education: Umlazi, Pinetown, ILembe and uMgungundlovu (Msunduzi). According to the Adult Education and Training Report 2011 (KZN Department of Education, 2011:19), at the time of the study these four districts had 326 adult centres as well as 326 centre managers, 1,190 trainers and 12,308 adult learners.

The four districts were selected as research locations because of their diversity in terms of rural and urban areas, and racial groups (Provide Project, 2009:7-10). Thus, the researcher could

assess and compare the effectiveness of the external environment in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of NFET graduates between urban and rural settings and different racial groups. From this population, the researcher only considered centres relevant to the study's focus, namely trainees in AET-level 4 which is linked to livelihood skills and entrepreneurial training for unemployed people (Aitchison, 2007:15).

The scope of this study was demarcated to mainly examine case studies of NFET centres that provide technical and entrepreneurial skills to rural and urban adults. According to Sarantakos (2005:152), a sample is a set of elements selected in some way from a population. Appropriate sampling methods enabled the researcher to study a relatively small part of the target population, and yet obtain data that were representative of the whole. In view of that, a sample was selected according to the focus of the study. The sample consisted of NFET centres, managers, trainers and adult trainees. From the selected 21 NFET centres, the sample size consisted of 472 of which there were 420 trainees, 21 centre managers and 31 trainers (instructors). Trainers were selected according to the skill training subjects, spatial distribution and the nature of the centre (whether public or private). The sampling procedures are outlined below.

5.5.1.1 Sampling method for the NFET centres

The researcher used mixed stratified and purposive sampling methods to select NFET centres. The four selected education districts had 326 adult centres. According to Kumar (2011:203), stratified sampling is a method of sampling that involves the division of a research population into smaller groups known as strata, and a sample is drawn from each stratum. The strength of this procedure is in that it allowed all population groups to be represented in the final sample (Sarantakos, 2005:158). The purpose of using the stratified method was to obtain centre representatives from each four education districts within the population needed to be represented in the sample according to their areas (urban and rural) and the nature of the centre (whether public or private).

A stratified sample was drawn according to the following steps:

Step 1: The NFET centres were divided into four education districts namely, Umlazi, Pinetown, ILembe and uMgungundlovu (Msunduzi). The selection of these four strata (districts)

was based on having both characteristics of areas (urban and rural).

Step 2: The selected NFET centres must be not for profit and hence not require trainees to pay tuition fees.

Step 3: The sampling frames for each of these districts were five NFET centres proportionally selected according to areas (urban and rural) and the nature of the centre (whether public or private).

Step 4: The stratified sampling methods helped to reach a sample of 21 centres for the study. One centre was added in order to reach racial representation (White and Indian trainees).

In the context of non-probability sampling, purposive sampling was used as a supplement to the stratified method to select 21 centres out of 326. According to Nieuwenhuis (2012:79), “purposive sampling simply means that participants are selected because of some defining characteristics that make the holders of the data needed for the study”. Similarly, Kumar (2011:207) points out that, by using purposive sampling, the researcher only selects respondents who “are relevant to the topic, are best positioned to provide the needed information for the study and are willing to share it with the researcher.”

Main stakeholders assisted the researcher in selecting relevant NFET centres. The researcher organised two meetings respectively with the Directorate of Adult Education and Training of KZN’s Department of Education and with NGO directors. The aim of this first stage was to examine the activities and programmes of AET and NGO centres, and determine the centres in the districts relevant to the study objectives and sampling criteria. The sample of 21 NFET centres consisted of 15 public (AET) centres under supervision of the Department of Education; and the other six centres were from NGOs. Five NFET centres were then selected in each of the four districts. In each district, three centres were either functioning under AET and two under NGOs or vice versa. The criteria which were taken into consideration to select the 21 NFET centres out of 326 are as follows:

- Provide technical and entrepreneurial skills to enable them to take up self- or wage-employment in the field of agriculture, industry, services and small business activities.
- Prepare adult trainees for employment at semi-skilled levels, including programmes on starting an own business, or which contribute to the promotion of income-generating activities.

- Should be not-for-profit centres and hence not require trainees to pay tuition fees.
- Represent both urban and rural settings.

5.5.1.2 Sampling method for managers

Each NFET centre was automatically selected with its manager. Therefore, the population of 21 managers was utilised for the quantitative study and hence was not sampled.

For the qualitative study, from the 21 managers a sample of five managers was selected using the purposive sampling method (see Table 5.1 below). For the purpose of obtaining balanced views between public and private centre managers, it was intended to select five managers from each category of NFET centres were selected. However, the study could only select two public centre managers out of 15 and three private centre managers out of six involved in the survey instead of five for each category because others did not meet the selection criteria for the interviews. In line with the interview and the types of the data, five out of 21 managers were selected if the NFET centres that they manage make provision for at least one of the following additional criteria:

- Post-training follow-up and support programmes for self- or wage-employment.
- Linkages with public institutions and agencies or private sectors.
- Linkages with social networks, associations and employers.
- Mentorship and psychological support programmes for self-employed trainees.

5.5.1.3 Sampling method for trainers (instructors)

The trainer sample for the quantitative study was drawn from the total number of trainers in the selected 21 NFET centres. In other words, each NFET centre was automatically selected with its trainers. The researcher used the purposive sampling method to select 31 trainers (instructors); one or two trainers per NFET centre and thus seven or eight trainers each from the respective four districts (see Table 5.1 below). The sample consisted of 23 trainers from public (AET) centres and eight from NGOs. They were selected based on the following criteria:

- The trainer must be training the adult trainees in technical and/or entrepreneurial programmes.
- He/she must have a minimum of 2 years of experience in training technical and/or entrepreneurial skills at the specific NFET centre.
- He/she must be the most senior at NFET centre so to provide the needed information for the study.

5.5.1.4 Sampling method for trainees

Quantitative study

The researcher used the purposive sampling method to select current and past trainees. To obtain a sample size out of 12,308 trainee population in KZN, the NFET centres were automatically selected with their trainees. A sample of 420 trainees (300 past and 120 current trainees) for the sample was drawn from the 21 selected NFET centres (see Table 5.1 below). Within a NFET centre, trainees were selected based on the following criteria:

- Being current or past trainees of the technical and/or entrepreneurial programme from 2009 to 2013.
- Having completed the technical and/or entrepreneurial programme.
- Being wage-employed, self-employed (in the formal or informal sectors) or unemployed.
- Spatial distribution in rural and urban settings.
- The nature of the centre (public and private).
- Age ranging from 18-50 years and who are willing to take part in the research.

Qualitative study

From the 420 trainees who participated in the quantitative study, the researcher selected six self-employed trainees for one-on-one interviews. Since the chances of being wage-employed in formal or informal sectors were very little, it was also not clear why adult trainees do not enter self-employment after obtaining the required skills. The selection was based on the following criteria:

- Should be currently self-employed whether in the area of informal business or service.
- Should be the sole owner of the micro-enterprise or jointly owned with others.

- Should be reputed for excellence in their small businesses.
- Be selected according to the type of technical and/or entrepreneurial course obtained on the one hand and the type of micro-enterprise activity on the other.
- District, gender, areas (urban and rural) and the nature of the centre.

The population and respective samples and data gathering instruments used for the study are summarised in the Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: Summary of population, samples and data instruments

Target	Population	Sample Size	Sampling Methods	Instruments
Quantitative Method				
Managers	326	21	Stratified-purposive	Questionnaire
Trainers	1,190	31	Purposive	Questionnaire
Adult Trainees	12,308	420	Purposive	Questionnaire
Total		472		
Qualitative Method				
NFET Centre	326	21	Stratified-purposive	Document analysis & Observation
Participants				
Managers	-----	5	Purposive	Semi-structured interviews
Self-employed trainees	-----	6	Purposive	Semi-structured interviews & observation
Total	-----	11	-----	-----

5.5.2 Data collection

The study used multiple data sources in order to ensure that no important part of the enabling environments was missed. Moreover, different sources allowed for comparing the views of different stakeholders at the micro-, meso- and macro-levels and could be tested against each other. Firstly, documents on NFET centre reports, published and unpublished documents related to the purpose of the study were gathered and analysed (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011a:186; Kumar, 2011:163). The primary data collection involved survey questionnaires, semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 1A, Appendix 1B, Appendix 2, Appendix 3A and Appendix 3B) and field observations of the NFET centres (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011a:186; Nieuwenhuis,

2012:80). The data collection process was done by the researcher himself. More details on the data collection process are presented below (see 5.5.2.1 and 5.5.2.2).

5.5.2.1 Quantitative method of data collection

The researcher used self-completed questionnaires in a survey to collect quantitative data. Three types of self-completed questionnaires were administered respectively to adult trainees, trainers and centre managers. All questionnaires were originally developed in English. However, the questionnaire for adult trainees was not translated because trainees could understand it better in English than in the native language, that is, isiZulu. Each questionnaire helped ensure access to a high degree of objectivity, reliability, replicability and generalibility (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011a:186; Nieuwenhuis, 2012:80).

The questionnaires included a mix of both qualitative (open-ended) and quantitative (closed-ended) questions (Maree & Pietersen, 2012:161). The closed-ended questions used in the study were binary with 'yes or no' responses and multiple-choice questions which allowed the respondents to tick all answers that apply. Other questions contained a statement and a set of four categories namely, 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'neutral', 'disagree', and 'strongly disagree'.

The current trainees and trainers completed the questionnaires in their own time. Prior to the questionnaire completion, specific centre managers assisted the researcher to organise a meeting with trainees in order to explain the process of the research, give clear guidance and also adequately answer questions on participating in the study before the administration of the questionnaires. The self-completion (self-administered/face-to-face administered) questionnaires were handed by the researcher to the current respondents (trainees and trainers) after one of their classes. The researcher handed the questionnaire only to respondents who signed the consent form reflecting their free will to participate in the study (see Appendix 4-6). The researcher was available in case they needed clarification.

Respondents (managers, trainers and trainees) personally handed back the completed questionnaires to the researcher at the respective centres or work places. The process helped to protect the confidentiality of the raw data. Thus the information gathered through this method remained undisclosed to anyone in any way that could allow the data to be traced back to the

individual who provided them (Maree & Pietersen, 2012:89). The researcher requested the centre managers to introduce him to past trainees by explaining the goal of the research. For the past trainees who are no longer in the programme, the questionnaires were handed to them to be completed in their own time. During a meeting with trainees at their centre, the specific manager also assisted the researcher to clarify the research process in common terms used at their specific centre and asked for the trainees' permission to participate to the study. Once the permission was granted, the respective centre manager made pre-arrangements and had a prior agreement with past trainees that the manager could distribute their names and contact details to the researcher. The centre managers also informed them that the researcher would approach them.

Although the data collection from the past trainees was done by the researcher himself, the assistance from specific centre managers and trainers facilitated the process. They were particularly supportive in the data collection process because they are prominent persons in the community where adult centres are located. Their contribution was very important because they knew adult trainees who were well positioned to take part in research according to the selection criteria of the sample and the purpose of the study. If the respondent chose to take part in the study, an appropriate time was arranged for the completion of the questionnaire. The self-administration or face-to-face administration of the questionnaire to the past trainees gave the advantage to the researcher to visit the past trainees at their work sites for the purpose of observation. As indicated above, the past trainees also personally handed the completed questionnaires to the researcher immediately after completion.

5.5.2.2 Qualitative methods of data collection

The qualitative methods of data collection included field observations, document analysis and semi-structured interviews. These methods are explained below.

5.5.2.2.1 Field observations

Field observations are both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011b:181). By definition, observation is a way of gathering data by watching behaviour, events, or noting physical characteristics in their natural setting (Centre for Disease

Control and Prevention, 2008:1; Sarantakos, 2005:220). There are two types of observations: (1) overt consisting of everyone knowing that they are being observed and (2) covert consisting of no one knowing that they are being observed and hence, the observer is hidden (Centre for Disease Control and Prevention, 2008:1). In the context of the study, the researcher needed to conduct overt observations because of ethical problems related to concealing the field observation.

The field observation aimed at answering research question one: ‘To what extent does the internal/ training delivery environment of the NFET centres contribute to skills acquisition?’ The question sought to assess the skills delivery environment of NFET that entails material resources such as: availability of textbooks and other learning materials, tools, classroom infrastructures (including workshops), centre facilities and curriculum contents (Palmer, 2007a:73; UNESCO, 2005:37). The field observation was a supplement to the question on the delivery environment in the respective questionnaires (see the *adult trainee* questionnaire, section D, question 12, Appendix 1A); the *trainer* questionnaire, section C, question 7 (see Appendix 2), and the *manager* questionnaire, section C, question 6 (see Appendix 3A). Therefore, the researcher used field observation to cross-check the variables of the respondents’ answers on the statements.

The researcher was focused on observing the components of the training delivery environment for skills acquisition. The check list consisted of the centre’s material resources such as the training venue, the convenience and condition of utilities, and plant equipment. With regard to practical work training, the researcher observed certain resources such as the training venue, the convenience and condition of utilities, material and technology support, plant equipment, and artefacts produced by the adult trainees. The researcher also visited the entrepreneur trainees at their work sites in order to examine the type of business and products (Nieuwenhuis, 2012:85).

During field observation, there was a special emphasis on a centre’s material resources. This is because a quality adult education and training programme utilises a wide variety of instructional materials appropriate for adults and should be consistent with the programme’s objectives (Palmer, 2007a:73; UNESCO, 2005:37). The following educational and training materials were observed with regard to variety of “real life” instructional materials; whether materials were adult oriented; and whether they were up-to-date and easy to use.

5.5.2.2.2 Document analysis

The document analysis included official documents generated by the government and NGOs. According to Sarantakos (2005:299), document analysis is a documentary method that aims at a quantitative and/or qualitative analysis of the content of texts, pictures, films and other form of verbal, visual or written communication. The major focus of document analysis was on content analysis of the related document to the topic. Though there are diverse types of content analysis; for the purpose of the study, the researcher opted to use only two, namely: descriptive content analysis and comparative content analysis (Sarantakos, 2005:299).

Descriptive content analysis and comparative content analysis (Sarantakos, 2005:300) were significant to get more insight on the enabling environment at macro-level. Descriptive content analysis aims at identifying and describing the main content of data, chronologically and thematically. On the other hand, comparative content analysis deals with comparing the texts of different authors and examining the validity, reliability and credibility of the information (Sarantakos, 2005:300). Furthermore, in the context of the assessment of adult NFET centres' enabling environments for employment, document analysis was classified into primary documents (directly related to the NFET) and secondary documents (state and private documents pertaining to NFET enabling environments) (Kumar, 2011:163). However, in both categories of data analysis, Kumar (2011:163) points out that one needs to be careful when doing document analysis with reference to potential problems with the quality of data. Therefore, there is a need to check for the data's authenticity, credibility, validity and reliability (cf. Bryman, 2008:516; Nieuwenhuis, 2012: 83).

Collected centre documents and official documents generated by the government and NGOs were subject to both descriptive and comparative content analysis. Firstly, primary documents were those directly related to the NFET centres under investigation and organisations working in the field of adult education and training, and linked to income-generating activities. For the purpose of the analysis, the first thing the researcher did was to review the documents regarding the training programme. These included the training proposal, the training application forms, NFET manuals, annual reports, NFET programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation documents and memoranda (Bryman, 2008:515-525; Nieuwenhuis, 2012:82). From a descriptive content analysis point of view, the researcher identified information linked to

variables such as selection criteria, training objectives, training needs assessment, training design and implantation and post-training support for employment. Then the data were compared within documents and with responses from questionnaires and interview schedules.

The secondary documents, those pertaining to NFET in KZN were also analysed. The descriptive content analysis focused on identifying information regarding the laws and regulations on self-employment; the access to credit and financial services; access to business development services, to business premises; and access to markets in South Africa. With regard to comparative content analysis, the information from documents was compared with empirical data collected from adult trainees, trainers and centre managers. The comparative content analysis developed the understanding of the link between adult NFET and employment, for it helped thoroughly to assess the centre's environments.

5.5.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

One-on-one semi-structured interviews (see Table 5.1 above) was conducted with five centre managers and six self-employed trainees (Maree & Pietersen, 2012:151). The objective of the semi-structured interviews was, firstly to understand the reality of the adult trainees on enabling environments from the inside out and hence about the effectiveness of NFET in the minds and views of adult trainees and different centre managers (Sarantakos, 2005:46). Secondly, the interviews were aimed at developing a better understanding of how adult trainees view the effectiveness of the skills training delivery environment of NFET centres; the external environment in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment, and the extent of external enabling and disabling environments influencing the graduates entering the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal.

The researcher interviewed NFET centre managers (five) to get the general overview of the NFET programmes. The interviews focused on major issues relating to enabling environments for employment of the trainees. In line with the objectives of the study, the researcher was keen to get information on the objectives of the centre in relation to poverty reduction, contents of the programme and activities, post-training support for wage-employment, post-training support for micro-enterprise development and the types of the environments (external) that enable/disable the graduates entering the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal. The qualitative data gathered from

managers was then compared with those from case studies of self-employed respondents in order to draw valid and reliable conclusions.

Other one-on-one semi-structured interviews were conducted with six successfully self-employed trainees (Rule & John, 2011:21). These six adult trainees formed case studies. They were purposively selected as examples of success stories. The selected cases became the basis of a thorough, holistic and in-depth exploration of the aspects which were applicable to the study, and that the researcher wanted to find out about (Rule & John, 2011:21). The interviews with the self-employed trainees mainly concentrated on trainees' socio-economic background; challenges faced as self-employed persons; the post-training assistance (financial and non-financial) received from the centre and government agencies; main constraints and risks faced in the business (disabling environments), and the impact of NFET programmes at individual level (see interview schedule, Appendix 1B).

5.5.2.3 Pilot study

A full pilot study was carried out prior to the main research process. According to Sarantakos (2005:256), a pilot study is a small-scale replica and a rehearsal of the main study. It can also be a specific pre-testing of study instruments, including the questionnaire or interview schedules (Dahlberg & McCaig, 2010:181). The aim of a pilot study is to provide information, which can contribute to the success of the main study as a whole. Dahlberg and McCaig (2010:181) argue that the purpose of a pilot study is to check the validity and reliability of the research instruments, and to ensure that the survey will not encounter specific difficulties. In addition, the pilot study helped the researcher to ensure whether respondents were accessible, to whether the technique of data collection would generate enough and relevant information, and to assess whether each question would give an adequate range of responses (Sarantakos, 2005:256).

The pilot study consisted of testing the self-completion questionnaires and semi-structured interview schedules on the respondents of the adult centres not sampled for the research. The total sample size in the pilot study was 10 respondents selected by using the same criteria as for the main study. Before participation in the pilot study, respondents were required to give informed consent. Participants were not included in the main study.

Participants were asked for comments on the wording, the sequence of the questions, and missing and confusing questions (cf. Strydom & Delport, 2011:395). The semi-structured interview schedules were tested with one centre manager and one self-employed trainee. The participants in the interviews openly expressed the view that the questions were valid and relevant to their training fields. They did not experience any problem in understanding questions, the wording, the sequence of the questions, and missing and confusing questions. The other outcome of the interview was that the researcher was assured that the questions would provide important and relevant information about the centre's enabling environment for employment.

The practical considerations in terms of the interview schedule which needed attention included the time limit per interview session and the language. With regard to the time limit, the session was initially set from 45 to 60 minutes. The researcher soon found that this time was short due to the amount of relevant information a participant wanted to provide about their NFET programme. The pilot study found that the length of an interview session would be from 60 to 75 minutes depending on whether the participant is a trainee or a centre manager. This allowed for a little more time to collect necessary data from a participant.

Generally, English was not a major problem for the adult trainees. This was because it is the emphasised language of instruction in all adult centres by the Department of Education. During the interview, an adult trainee could freely express some difficult words in isiZulu and the researcher was able to understand. The researcher decided to encourage adult trainees to use isiZulu words when necessary during the interview session. On the other hand, centre managers did not have a problem with English because most of them had a university degree or diploma.

Piloting the survey questionnaire entailed eight respondents consisting of four trainees, two NFET centre managers and two trainers. The respondents were recruited from the four districts, but in different centres from the main study. The administration of the questionnaire to pilot respondents was exactly the same as in the main study. The researcher approached the analyses of the returned questionnaire in accordance with the outline by Sarantakos (2005:256):

- Asking the respondents for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions;
- Assessing whether each question gave an adequate range of responses;

- Establishing that responses can be interpreted in terms of the information that was required.

Since the respondents completed the questionnaires in the presence of the researcher, this enabled him to identify difficulties related to clarity of the questions and time. With regard to time, some respondents were able to complete the questionnaire within 30 minutes. Those who were slower went up to 45 minutes. Since the highest level of adult trainees' formal schooling ranged from Grade 9 to a matric certificate, questions were short and clear for them to easily read and understand. Therefore, there was no need for re-wording but re-scaling only two questions (15 and 16) that were not answered due to a lack of a category "moderate" on the measurement scale (see Appendix 1 A).

However, two adult trainees did not pay attention to question 20 of section D where they should have first ticked the box that describes their current work situation (whether wage-employed, unemployed or self-employed). Failure to do so has resulted in them completing an inappropriate section in the main study (see Appendix 1B). The researcher decided to carefully explain question 20 to the respondents. Furthermore, the researcher noticed that some multiple choice questions were lacking some items which adult trainees added according to a specific centre training programme. This was the case of question 37 about post-training support (see Appendix 1 A). The pilot study therefore contributed to the success of the data collection process.

5.6 Data analysis

The researcher was guided by the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter Two to analyse and interpret the data. The two theories (human capital and labour market segmentation theories) outlined in Chapter Two were important to understand the functioning of NFET in KwaZulu-Natal. In the context of this present study on adult NFET, the analysis of the data using the theories developed a better understanding of the assessment of enabling environments at three levels of interventions, namely micro level, meso level and macro level, which are interrelated. The researcher used the human capital theory to analyse data in the micro- and meso-level environments. These two levels consist of the training delivery at the NFET centre. The labour market segmentation theory was used to analyse and interpret data at the macro-level

environments where NFET graduates enter the labour market to become wage-employed or self-employed.

Quantitative data was analysed using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. These were data collected from self-completed questionnaires. The analysis consisted of three categories which are descriptive, associative and causative (Fouché & Bartley, 2011:251). Firstly, using the descriptive method, the analysis provided the distribution of a sample or population across a wide range of variables. The analysis provided a descriptive presentation of data for all independent and dependent variables in the study. The method produced a scope of the characteristics of distributions through frequency, measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion (Bryman, 2008:544).

Secondly, the associative or correlational analysis is a method that examines the relationships between two variables (Fouché & Bartley, 2011:251). The method enabled the researcher to develop a better understanding of relationships between the analysed variables (Fouché & Bartley, 2011:251). Thirdly, the causative method involved the use of factor analysis in an attempt to determine the network of relationships between variables, cause and effect of a phenomenon.

The analysis and interpretation of qualitative data from interviews was done using thematic and category analysis (Nieuwenhuis, 2012:99). The qualitative data were coded, then sorted and classified to find common themes and sub-themes to be matched and compared with the findings on the sections and sub-sections of the quantitative findings (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:499; Bryman, 2008:544-545). Each category was assigned a label or a tag. Codes and themes helped the researcher understand the raw data by putting names to descriptions and interpretation (Nieuwenhuis, 2012:108). Then, a comparison was made together with the exploration of relationships that led to the categories.

This approach of analysis means that the qualitative data collected through semi-structured interviews from NFET centre managers and adult trainees, field observation and document analysis were organised and linked by making connections between the data analysed in order to provide answers to the research questions. The researcher firstly analyses and presents the quantitative data in a table or a chart format. This is followed with the presentation of the

qualitative findings on the related themes which emerged from the interviews. The researcher then jointly interprets the quantitative and qualitative findings in order to illuminate the views and concerns of managers, trainers and trainees on the issue under discussion.

5.7 Reliability and trustworthiness of research data

Reliability of quantitative data was a matter of concern during data collection and analysis. Reliability refers to the capacity of measurement to produce consistent results. It is concerned with replicability and consistency of the research findings (Thyer, 2010: 355). It entails the stability, consistency or dependability of an instrument (Sarantakos, 2005:83, 88). Though it is rare to have perfect reliability, the researcher strived to improve it. In support of Thyer, (2010: 355), in the first instance, survey questionnaires were tested by ensuring there was clear wording of the questions so that all respondents could understand them in the same way.

In addition, an appropriate questionnaire design helped improve reliability of the data. Referring to Neuman (2011:209), the researcher undertook the following to improve reliability of data: (1) clearly conceptualising all constructs; (2) using a precise level of measurement; and (3) using multiple indicators. Firstly, by *clearly conceptualising all constructs*, reliability increases when each measure indicates one and only one concept. In the context of the study, the concept ‘wage-employment’, for example, refers to a fixed regular payment earned for work or services; and “self-employed trainee” refers to trainee who establishes an own business, works for and relies on him/herself for their primary source of income.

Secondly, the *use of a precise level of measurement* increased reliability. Indicators at higher or more precise levels of measurement are more likely to be reliable than less precise because the latter pick up less detailed information (Neuman, 2011:209). The researcher followed the general principle, namely attempting to measure at the most precise level possible (Neuman, 2011:209). For example, to measure the extent of skills acquisition by a trainee, he used the level of competence to work for others without supervision, for managing small businesses individually and in a group context.

Thirdly, the *use of multiple indicators* increased reliability because two (or more) indicators of the same construct are better than one (Neuman, 2011:210). For example, to measure the

impact of NFET on the trainees' poverty reduction, the researcher used multiple indicators such as increased income, children attending school, increased food purchase, increased assets in the house and money saving.

Finally, the *use of a pilot study* and replication helped increase reliability. In this regard Dahlberg and McCaig (2010:181) argue that the purpose of a pilot study is to check the validity and reliability of the research instruments. As previously discussed (see 5.5.2.2), the respondents were asked for comments on the wording, the sequence of the questions, and missing and confusing questions.

Since reliability and validity are interrelated, the researcher tested the validity of the research instruments. Validity refers to whether an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure, and whether this measurement is accurate and precise (Sarantakos, 2005:83). Validation of the data instrument was carried out in order to determine the extent to which questions in a questionnaire reflect the real meaning of the concept under consideration. The validation aimed to test whether the indicator really measure what it was supposed to measure. Therefore, after the initial construction of the questionnaires and several corrections by the study promoter, editing was done. The survey questionnaires were submitted to the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria whose objective is to support the research function of the University of Pretoria by raising the standard of implementation of statistical methodology.

To ensure the construction validity of questionnaires, the research instruments were submitted and pre-tested by two different district field inspectors of AET and one NGO director of a sampled private adult centre. Questionnaires were also tested through the pilot study. Furthermore, in the quantitative data collection process, validity was increased by the fact that the study used a purposive method of sampling (Thyer, 2010: 365). Participants were selected based on the information they had on the topic. The researcher considered participants who were relevant to the topic, were best positioned to provide the needed information for the study (Kumar, 2011:207). In addition, there were parallel forms of the same questions constructed in three questionnaires (for trainee, manager and trainer) that were intended to test the same variables.

Likewise, trustworthiness of qualitative data was ensured before and during data collection. This was done using different research instruments. Firstly, the use of triangulation of the research methods in the data collection, such as observation, semi-structured interviews, document analyses contributed to the credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative data (Nieuwenhuis, 2012:80). Secondly, as previously mentioned, the purposive sampling method contributed to trustworthiness of the data because the researcher chose participants who were knowledgeable about the study's topic and they had had own personal experience (Babbie, 2007:143; Nieuwenhuis, 2012:80). Thirdly, information on the trainees' socio-economic situation entailed baseline data (before skills training) and data after the completion of the training verified the trustworthiness of the information (Martens & Wilson, 2012:379; Kumar, 2011:107-109).

When results obtained from one group of respondents prove to be similar when compared with those from other groups, data could be regarded as credible (Kumar, 2011:183). The methods employed to check trustworthiness of data analysis according to Nieuwenhuis, (2012:113-115) were the following:

- Using multiple data sources and carefully verifying raw data after field work;
- Obtaining feedback from the respondents when unsure about the meaning of their statements;
- Circulating the findings to the stakeholders to ensure that their views are correctly reflected;
- Having the supervisor check the data analysis to ensure that there is agreement between the interpretation made and the meaning of the raw data.

5.8 Ethical considerations

Research ethics entails a consideration of the conduct of a researcher in relation to how he/she relates to and treats the participants during the research process. According to Denscombe (2010:62) observance of ethical principles is important for the respect of the rights and dignity of all those who are involved in the research or affected by it. This research involved human participants, though all were adult trainees. Therefore, there was a need for ethics approval. In this regard, Canterbury Christ Church University (2006:3) outlines the following three main reasons for ethical approval of research with human participants:

- To protect the rights and welfare of research participants and reduce the risk of physical and mental discomfort, harm and/or danger from research process;
- To protect the rights of the researcher to carry out any legitimate study as well as the reputation of the University for research conducted and/or sponsored by it;
- Because Research Funding bodies and refereed journals increasingly require a statement of ethical practices as a condition for publication (Canterbury Christ Church University, 2006:3).

Prior to research data collection, the researcher sought and received ethical clearance for the study by the University of Pretoria (see Appendix 7). He also received permission to conduct research on the topic from the KZN Department of Education and relevant NGO managers (see Appendixes 8 A and 8B).

During the data collection process, the following ethical principles (Strydom, 2011; Denscombe, 2010; Babbie & Mouton, 2007; Dahlberg & McCaig, 2010) were adhered to:

Informed consent

Written informed consent from prospective respondents was sought prior to conducting the research (see Attachment on Appendix 4). Respondents were given the following adequate information before filling in the consent form for the data collection process: the researcher's credibility; the goal and objectives of the investigation; their right and freedom to withdraw from participation; the possible and indirect benefits; how long a questionnaire would take to complete or the interview's duration; and the process to be followed during the research (Dahlberg & McCaig, 2010:43; Strydom, 2011:116).

Avoidance of harm

Denscombe (2010:62) points out that, "The heart of ethical scrutiny is the attempt to balance the risk of harm against the potential for benefit that can accrue to individuals, groups or communities." Potential harm could have been emotional because respondents may be reminded of their hardships when revealing private details on sensitive issues such as low income and low living standard which can result in personal embarrassment. Therefore, to avoid such harm, the researcher committed himself to take the required action to avoid any risk by debriefing respondents and asking them about any factors in the procedure that might have created

discomfort that they would like to discuss with the researcher (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:522). Nevertheless, the researcher protected respondents against harm by thoroughly informing them beforehand about the potential effects of the study (Strydom, 2011:115). Such information offered the respondents the opportunity to decide whether to withdraw or not from the investigation. Furthermore, the researcher also advised respondents who might be vulnerable, not to participate if they showed or expressed any doubt about participating in the study.

Voluntary participation

Participation was voluntary and no respondent was forced to participate in the research (Strydom, 2011:116). If a respondent felt uncomfortable at any stage of the study, he/she was free to decline answering particular questions or to withdraw from the study.

Privacy

In the context of the study, privacy entailed the researcher directly obtaining information about the private life of the respondents. Therefore, during data collection processes (most especially, one-on-one interviews), the researcher avoided asking personal and sensitive questions if he realised that the interviewee did not feel comfortable about revealing such information.

On behalf of the researcher, respective centre managers asked trainees' permission to participate in a one-on-one interview. Most of the self-employed trainees were no longer in the programme. The permission helped the researcher avoid privacy violation of the adult trainees. The centre managers introduced the researcher to them by explaining the goal of the research and the one-on-one interview process. Once the permission was granted, the respective centre managers made pre-arrangements and had a prior agreement with past trainees that managers could distribute their names and contact details to the researcher.

The centre managers also informed them that the researcher would approach them. If the respondent chose to take part in the study, an appropriate time and place were arranged for the completion of the questionnaire and/or interview. However, the researcher avoided making phone calls or personal visits that were ill-timed and a nuisance to respondents (Denscombe, 2010:62). Respondents had the freedom to decide on the day, time and circumstances under which he/she would be available for an interview or for filling in a survey questionnaire. Furthermore, the researcher protected the privacy after the data collection process by not

disclosing a respondent's identity after information gathering. This was achieved through anonymity and confidentiality (Neuman, 2011:152).

Anonymity

Anonymity means that research respondents remain anonymous, or nameless, their identity is protected and remains unknown (Neuman, 2011:152). Names of participants did not appear on the completed questionnaires neither on the interview schedule. They cannot be identified in any documents, including interview transcripts and the research report, either by name or by means of any information that may identify them (Babbie & Mouton, 2006:522). However, the researcher sought permission from NFET centre managers to analyse and quote from report documents that were not in the public domain and to use a tape recorder during the interviews with managers and adult trainees.

The identity of respondents on the questionnaire was replaced by numbers and identified by pseudonyms in the final reports. In this case, the researcher informed the respondents about the entire process of anonymity (Dahlberg & McCaig, 2010:50). However, the researcher discussed the disclosure of the NFET centres' identity and asked permission to reveal it if there were certain benefits to the centre. The signed consent forms were kept apart from the research instruments, so as to make it impossible to link names with data (Neuman, 2011:152).

Confidentiality

According to Neuman (2011:152), confidentiality is associated with anonymity and means holding research data in confidence or keeping it secret from the public; not releasing information in a way that permits linking specific individuals to specific responses; researchers presenting results or data publicly only in an aggregate form (for example as percentages, means). In the context of the study, there was no feedback of the views expressed during an interview with one person to his/her colleagues in subsequent interviews (Maree, 2012:89). Information was not disclosed to anyone in any way that allows the information to be traced back to the individual who provided it. In the case of disclosure, it was very important to gain informed consent from the NFET manager or other related authority and discuss the likely effects before the data collection process (Dahlberg & McCaig, 2010:51).

Regarding the security of the data, the researcher made sure that the collected information could not fall into the wrong hands or be used for any other purpose than that for which it was collected (Denscombe, 2010:66). With the computerised data storage and retrieval, the researcher use passwords and the data on a USB memory stick is encrypted to protect unauthorised access to the data. All audio recordings, transcribed data and questionnaires will be securely locked away (Dahlberg & McCaig, 2010:48) for 15 years as per requirement of the University of Pretoria.

5.9 Limitations of the study

The research design of the study presents one of the major limitations. The causative method which involves the use of factor analysis in the attempt to determine the network of relationships between variables, the cause and effect of a phenomenon cannot be tested in cross-sectional study design and data analysis (Kumar, 2011:107). The utilisation of the skills acquired in the labour market may change over time. In this sense, since longitudinal design involves the study in a process of change over a period of time, it would help determine the sustainability of the skills and employment. Cross-sectional study provides little change from one year to the next on the success in wage-employment and the micro enterprises.

The lack of centre institutional linkages with external enabling environments impacted on the data collection process. The study was supposed to select ten managers for structured interviews. The sampling method was based on one of the following criteria: firstly, the centre should have linkages with public institutions and agencies or the private sector; secondly, it should have linkages with social networks, associations and employers; and thirdly, it should have mentorship support programmes for self-employed trainees. Only two public centre managers were selected for interviews because of having minor linkages with public institutions and agencies.

5.10 Summary

This chapter described the procedures the researcher used to conduct the empirical study. Due to the diversity of key issues to be investigated with regard to enabling environments (internal and external) of the NFET centres, different aspects needed to be examined accordingly. Each single

element of the research methods used in the research had to be very specific in order to obtain quality data, and valid and reliable results. To this end, a mixed methods research design and research methods of both quantitative and qualitative research designs helped the researcher to view a particular point-enabling environment from more than one perspective.

In order to answer the research questions, all research techniques needed be compatible with each other. Sampling methods were selected according to the focus of the study. Though the NFET centres were selected using a combination of stratified and purposive methods of sampling, managers, trainers and adult trainees was chosen according to purposive method of sampling. The empirical data was derived from managers, trainees and adult trainees using survey questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and field observations of the NFET centres. The data collection process was done by the researcher himself.

In the methodology chapter the researcher looked at the research problem from different perspectives by combining data sources. The approach aimed at ensuring that no important aspect of the NFET for employment was missed. The research gap showed that there was a need for further in-depth research on the effectiveness of the NFET programmes in NFET centres. The next Chapter Six presents and discusses the empirical findings on the NFET centres' internal enabling environments for employment.

CHAPTER SIX

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS ON NFET CENTRES' INTERNAL ENABLING ENVIRONMENTS FOR EMPLOYMENT

6.1 Introduction

Chapter Six presents and analyses the empirical data collected from the field work. It presents the research findings by focusing on the internal enabling environments of non-formal adult education and training centres in fostering trainees' employment in KwaZulu-Natal. The chapter presents research findings on the research question: To what extent does the internal training delivery environment of the NFET centres contribute to skills acquisition? It focuses on assessing the internal enabling environments at centre level (meso) and trainees' level (micro). The next Chapter Seven will focus on the external enabling or disabling environments fostering the utilisation of skills in wage- or self-employment at macro-level. Chapter Seven will also report on additional findings of the internal enabling environments and the external enabling or disabling environments in two categories of case studies; one for a comparative analysis between public and private NFET centres, and another for case studies of five self-employed trainees.

As indicated in Chapter Five (section 5.5.2), in order to obtain relevant and reliable data, the study used mixed data collection methods, namely, quantitative and qualitative (one-on-one structured interviews, field observations and document analysis). Using survey questionnaires, the quantitative data were generated from 420 trainees, 21 centre managers and 31 trainers. The qualitative data were generated from one-on-one semi-structured interviews with five centre managers and five self-employed trainees; field observations and document analysis. The semi-interview schedules for both managers and self-employed trainees were drawn from the sections and themes of the survey questionnaires; hence the questions were similar in both data collection instruments. This approach allowed the researcher to merge the discussion of the findings on the quantitative and qualitative data in common themes.

The data presentations from survey questionnaires, structured interviews, field observations and document analysis were combined (triangulated) in order to firstly ensure the reliability and trustworthiness of data analysis and secondly to compare the findings. With regard to the

analysis of quantitative data, the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used. The analysis of qualitative data from interviews was done using thematic analysis (Nieuwenhuis, 2012:108). The qualitative data were coded, then sorted and classified to find common themes and sub-themes to be matched and compared with the findings on the sections and sub-sections of the quantitative findings. In the data analyses below, the researcher firstly presents the statistical data in a table or a chart format. This is followed with the presentation of the qualitative findings on the related themes which emerged from the interviews. The researcher then jointly interprets the quantitative and qualitative findings in order to illuminate the views and concerns of managers, trainers and trainees on the issue under discussion.

The rest of the chapter is divided into three main sections which are organised according to the sections in the survey questionnaire. Section 6.2: *Profile of NFET centres* deals with types and areas of NFET centres, types of training programmes offered at the NFET centres and sources of financial support at the NFET centres. Section 6.3: *Socio-economic characteristics of the trainees*, focuses on demographic characteristics of the sample trainees, economic status of trainees and trainees' skills training course. Section 6.4: *Internal training delivery environment for skills acquisition* looks at access to training programmes, training delivery internal environments, effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment and post-training activities of NFET graduates in the labour market.

6.2 Profile of NFET centres

This section looks at the types of training programmes offered at the centres according to the geographical areas; the selection criteria used to match trainees' needs with the appropriate training programmes, and the source of funding to provide the required skills training. The section constitutes a cross reference or cornerstone from which the analysis of most of the other variables of the study will be analysed to answer the research questions.

6.2.1 Types and areas of NFET centres

In the four selected districts for the study, there are many adult NFET centres, but only 21 were selected according to the sample selection criteria. The remaining centres simply cater for adult literacy. Table 6.1 below illustrates how the types of the training centres, namely public versus

private, are unequally distributed in the four districts. In this study, private centre means non-profit training centres managed by non-profit organisations (NPOs), community-based organisations (CBOs) and church or other faith-based organisations (FBOs).

Table 6.1: Distribution of the type of the NFET centres by districts

District	Type of the Centre		Total
	Public (KZN-AET)	Private (NPO, CBO, FBO)	
ILembe	4 (26.7%)	2 (33.3%)	6 (28.6%)
Umlazi	4 (26.7%)	2 (33.3%)	6 (28.6%)
Pine Town	4 (26.7%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (19.0%)
UMgungundlovu/PMB	3 (20.0%)	2 (33.3%)	5 (23.8%)
Total	15 (71.4%)	6 (28.6%)	21 (100%)

Table 6.1 reveals that there is a bias of the centre sample. The survey comprised 71.4% (15/21) of public centres from four districts, whereas the private centres are presented by 28.6% (6/21) of the total sample. The sample selection bias was unavoidable because during the data collection process, the researcher could not find a total of 50% (10/20) of non-profit organisations having skills training programmes for adults, only private for-profit training providers. Many of the FBOs and CBOs were characterised as ‘social’ NGOs, which provided social and other services to specific target groups such as rural poor and people with disabilities, especially women. The inference from the low representation (28.6%) of private non-profit training centres is that the provision of adult skills training in KZN is generally regarded as a matter of the Department of Education and hence of government. The private non-profit organisations thus play a minor role in adult skills training in this area.

There was an endeavour by the researcher to select an equal representation of the types of the centres according to the geographical areas. Chart 6.1 below shows the distribution of types of centres according to urban, peri-urban and rural areas.

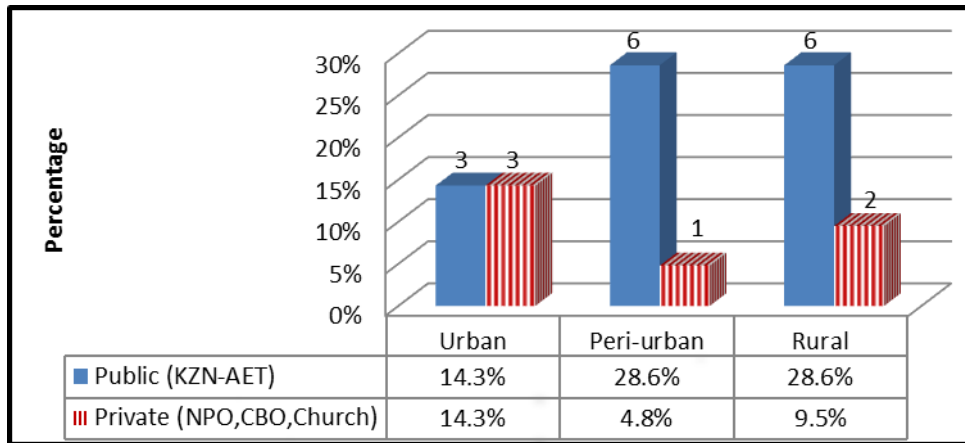


Chart 6.1: Geographical distribution of the centre areas by type of the NFET centres

Although public centres were dominant in the study sample, Chart 6.1 reveals a significant element of distribution of the centre areas by type of the NFET centres. With regard to public centres, there were 14.3% (3/21) of AET centres in urban areas providing skills training programmes to adult trainees as compared to 28.6% (6/21) in peri-urban areas and 28.6% (6/21) in rural areas. Private centres managed by NPOs or FBOs tended to provide skills training to adults in urban areas. There was 14.3% (3/21) of private centre based in urban areas as compared to 4.8% (1/21) in peri-urban areas and 9.5% (2/21) in the rural areas.

From the analysis of Chart 6.1 above, it is evident that the prevalence of NFET centres in peri-urban and rural areas is an indication that the NFET centres are unevenly spread to address the unemployment and lack of skills according to areas. Chart 6.1 is an indication that adults in the rural areas were weakly integrated or poorly serviced with the formal educational system at young age which could be linked to the education system during Apartheid. This may be the reason why the state created more NFET centres in the rural areas than in urban areas for skills training for employment and poverty reduction.

6.2.2 Types of training programmes offered at the NFET centres

In some NFET centres involved in the study, the type of training, namely wage-employment or self-employment, guided the centre on choosing the right strategies and mechanisms in conducting training needs assessment, selection of the prospective trainees, training approach or methods, and the types of post-training support to the graduates. Table 6.2 below presents the focus of training programmes in relation to the types of the centre.

Table 6.2: Types of training programmes according to nature of the centre

Variable	Public (KZN-AET)		Private (NPO, CBO, FBO)		Total sample	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Wage-employment	4	26.66	1	16.66	5	23.8
Self-employment	2	13.34	3	50	5	23.8
Both	9	60	2	33.34	11	52.4
Total	15	100	6	100	21	100

Table 6.2 reveals that for more than half (52.4%) of total centres involved in the study, their training programmes are aimed at both wage-employment and self-employment. However, a separate analysis of centre types shows that the majority (5/6) of private centres mainly focus on self-employment as indicated above. However, one needs to be cautious with this result, especially with regard to public centres. Interviews with some public centre managers indicated that the skills training programmes at AET centres were specifically designed to provide trainees with basic technical skills or business skills. When trainees completed AET level 4, they were supposed to register with an FET college for further training in the specific skills area in order to be wage-employed in the public or private sectors.

Contrary to quantitative findings in Table 6.2 above, qualitative data show that the focus of training programmes in most of the public centres was on further education of their trainees at NFET colleges. Regarding the focus of the adult NFET programmes in KZN, a public centre manager said during an interview:

As centre managers we are not allowed to design our own skills programmes which suit our adult trainees and communities. As a result, adult trainees in the communities are driven by curriculum and not by the market. This means that once they graduate from level 4 here, for them to get a job they must go for further training at FET Colleges far away from the community. Many of them do not go because they cannot afford taxi fare to town and food since they are poor. Some of them are old enough with family members to care for.

Another public centre manager confirmed the above statement by saying:

Trainees who completed their AET level 4 are recommended by UMALUSI [Certification Board] to pursue further education at FET Colleges to acquire more skills for employment. The government grants bursaries to adult trainees who apply for admission to FET Colleges.

The results presented in Table 6.2 support the information given during the interviews. Out of 15 public centres involved in the survey, 26.66% (4/15) indicated that the programmes were for wage-employment and 60% (9/15) were for both. However, qualitative research findings indicate that there was a disagreement on the focus of the training programmes in the public centres. Managers would like the adult trainings to only focus on immediate self-employment instead of wage-employment after graduating from FET colleges. This disagreement on the focus of the programmes may have a significant impact on training delivery for skills acquisition.

With regard to public centres in Table 6.2 above, one needs to be cautious about the result of 60% (9/15) of centres focusing on both wage- and self-employment when compared with opposing qualitative research findings revealed in sub-section 6.4.1.3 below. It appears that, generally speaking, the training programmes provided by public centres are not immediately relevant for creation of small enterprises. The majority of the skills training programmes provided at public centres are mainly aimed at wage-employment for their adult trainees. The next sub-section analyses the types of training courses offered by the centres according to geographical areas and duration in relation to skills training, trainee selection criteria and sources of financial support.

6.2.2.1 Centre's skills training and duration of training courses

It was crucial to investigate the types of training courses according to geographical distribution and determine whether or not a specific course would be relevant for the trainees to find employment. In KwaZulu-Natal each geographical area has its own economic activities. The analysis of the training courses provided in each centre reveals that the adult training programmes tended to focus on those activities. The training courses each centre offered to the trainees according to the type of area are presented in Table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3: Training courses offered at the centres by centre areas (n=21)

Training course	Urban		Peri-urban		Rural		Within total sample (n=21)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Agricultural technology	-	-	5	23.8	5	23.8	10	47.6
Ancillary health care	1	4.8	4	19.0	5	23.8	10	47.6
SMME*	3	14.3	4	19.0	1	4.8	8	38.1
Travel and tourism	2	9.5	4	19.0	-	-	6	28.5
ICT*	2	9.5	1	4.8	-	-	3	14.3
Craft	2	9.5	2	9.5	1	4.8	5	23.8
Sewing and fashion skills	3	14.3	1	4.8	-	-	4	19.0
Poultry	-	-	-	-	1	4.8	1	4.8
Co-operative	1	4.8	-	-	1	4.8	2	9.5
Basic paramedic	1	4.8	-	-	-	-	1	4.8
Beauty training	1	4.8	-	-	-	-	1	4.8
Others	1	4.8	1	4.8	-	-	2	9.5
Total¹	6	28.6	7	33.3	8	38.1	21	100

*SMME= Small medium and micro enterprises

*ICT = Information and computer technology

Table 6.3 reveals that 21 centres altogether offered 12 skills training courses to the trainees. The majority of the training courses were in agricultural technology and ancillary health care; and were predominantly taught in the peri-urban and rural centres. Agricultural technology was the main skill of training at 47.6% (10/21) within the total sample of the centres. The geographical distribution of the courses indicates that it occupies 23.8% (5/21) in peri-urban centres and 23.8% (5/21) in rural centres. Equally, ancillary health care was found in ten centres of which 19% (4/21) in peri-urban areas and 23.8% (5/21) in rural areas. Nonetheless, only one centre (4.8%) offered ancillary health care in an urban area. Small medium and micro-enterprises (eight centres) and sewing and fashion skills (four centres) were mainly offered in urban and peri-urban areas. Table 6.3 indicates that 14.3% (3/21) of the centres in urban and 19.0% (4/21) in peri-urban areas provided SMMEs.

With regard to the training courses the researcher observed during the field work, that agricultural technology could be a relevant course in the rural areas because of the types of

¹ Frequency in the Table 6.3 reflects responses of a multiple question and refers to the number of times each training course was mentioned as a centre provided to adult trainees. Although few centre managers mentioned only one of the 12 courses, there were many who ticked more than one skills training course.

livelihood of the residents and agricultural firms. However, in all public centres, the agricultural technology training was not linked to any farming projects or agribusiness in the community for the trainees to gain practical skills while learning. Secondly, it was found from the document analysis that there has been little diversification of skills training courses in the adult NFET in KwaZulu-Natal. It was also observed that almost all public centres offered similar training courses. In interviews, centre managers mentioned that each centre had to choose training courses from a list provided by the Provincial Department of Education irrespective of the economic environment of a community.

Findings from interviews and document analysis reveal that the majority of the 21 centres offered the training for the duration of a whole year, and even longer. Only one public centre had a short course in handicraft which lasted for three months. Two private centres were offering information and computer technology training for three months to orientate trainees who wanted to use the skills in wage-employment. An exception with regard to duration was at one private centre that intensively provided SMME training for two months. The trainees continued to attend workshops on a quarterly basis which formed part of a process of business incubation. According to the centre manager, the private centre aimed at producing entrepreneurs who could work independently. At this centre, the SMME training is a process which consists of helping a trainee to start a small business on a small scale, and manage and develop it to grow into a sustainable business.

6.2.2.2 Trainee selection criteria of NFET centres' training programmes

Setting selection criteria for skills training for employment and poverty reduction was a significant element of all private centres and a few public centres. It was not possible to provide training for all target groups in a community. Trainees were selected on the basis of certain criteria required either for wage-employment or for small business in the specific field of training. As shown in chart 6.2 below, the criteria helped some centres to admit suitable candidates to the programme, which was intended to promote the effectiveness of the training programmes.

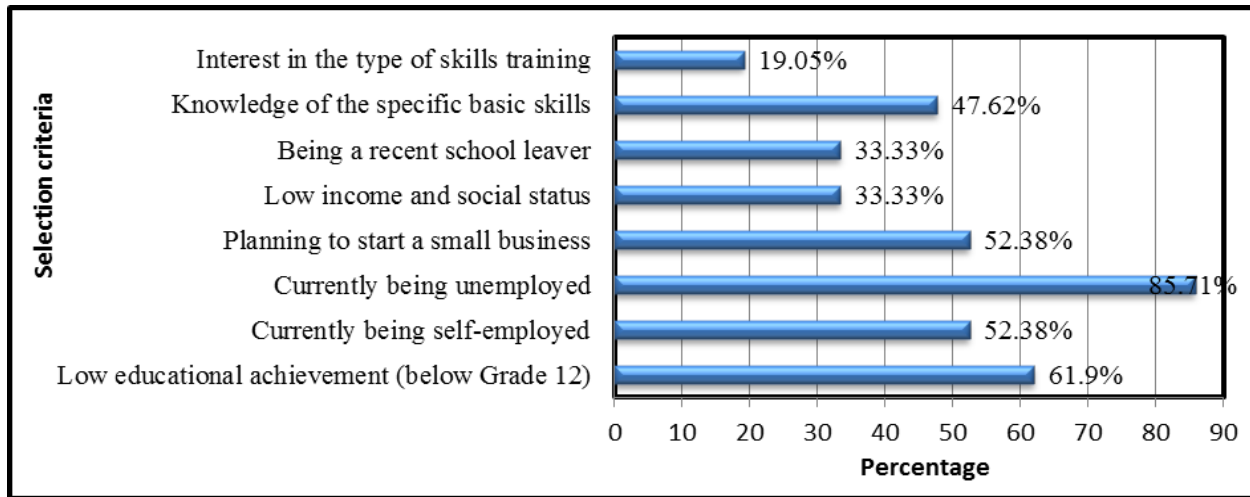


Chart 6.2: Trainee selection criteria of the centres' training programme²

Both public and private centres had the above eight selection criteria in common. The majority of the centres (85.71%, 18/21) selected their trainees on the basis of being currently unemployed. Low educational achievement (below Grade 12) was the second criteria, scoring 61.9 (13/21); followed by currently being self-employed, 52.38% (11/21) and planning to start a small business, 52.38% (11/21). Less than half of the centres (47.62%, 10/21) selected the prospective trainees on basis of knowledge of the specific basic skills. Another criterion was the fact of being a recent school leaver (33.33%, 7/21). The low income and social status (33.33%, 7/21) seemed to be criteria to select the poorest of the poor in the community. Having an interest in the type of skills training had little importance, scoring 19.05% (4/21). Two selection criteria (currently being unemployed and low educational achievement) were used by most of the centres. In the context of the study, they fit with the overall social objectives of the adult NFET centres (employment and poverty reduction).

The qualitative research findings reveal that in private centres, trainees underwent more rigorous selection processes than in public centres. In interviews, four out of five managers of the private centres reported that the training was linked to the future establishment of an individual or collective small business. This is why a centre had to determine whether a trainee already had a small business or had a plan for starting one. However, public centre managers reported in interviews that a trainee merely underwent a written test to determine his/her reading and writing

² Frequency in the above Chart 6.2 is a response to a multiple question and refers to the number of times each selection criterion was mentioned. Although few centre managers mentioned only one of the eight criteria, there were many who ticked more than one criterion.

ability and class level. Practically, the enrolment for training programmes at public centres was mostly done through trainees' self-selection. The public centre wanted to know whether an applicant was genuinely interested in adult education and training and willing to complete the programme. The centre managers were required to enrol a significant number of trainees, regardless of the selection criteria for a specific training programme, because of fear of centre closure by the Department of Education.

6.2.2.3 Sources of financial support at the NFET centres

All managers and trainers involved in the study pointed out that adult education and training with special focus on wage- or self-employment skills is expensive and centres tended to have a relatively high cost structure. All 21 centre managers involved in the study mentioned that they had problems with resources. They had huge overheads, for example by relying on centre-based training and permanent trainers. In KwaZulu-Natal, public adult centres which are fully supported by the provincial Department of Education, are having increasing problems to obtain sufficient budget allocations for their operations. Public centres heavily rely on the Department of Education in terms of trainers' salary, finance, materials, labour and technical assistance.

A lack of financial support is a major problem impeding the skills training programme in the public centres. During an interview, one manager bitterly said:

It is very difficult to continue with our skills training programme because the centre lacks financial support to buy material resources. The centre is located in a community where tourists most often come and buy some artefacts. But we cannot produce artefacts like the beads they need, because our centre lacks sponsorship for material resources.

This direct quote from an interview confirms what other 14 public centre managers mentioned that the government funding for adult skills training in KZN has been insufficient. Yet, public adult centres have failed to secure funding from local and national organisations or businesses. Because of the zeal to provide skills, managers and trainers contributed money to buy training materials for trainees and for practical training sessions. For other training needs and maintenance of the equipment, centre managers and trainers contributed from their own monthly

salaries. Only one public centre manager reported to have received a donation in terms of sewing machines from an agency; unfortunately it was only once.

Potentially, private adult centres are in a better position than public ones to organise support in terms of finance, materials, labour and technical assistance. Private centres were supported by occasional national and foreign donations. The support for the skills training depended on the focus of the programme, whether wage- or self-employment. Some NGOs or private centres had a well-organised base with established channels for local fund-raising. This was the case of two centres catering for sewing and fashion design skills to poor women and disabled people in the district of UMgungundlovu. The projects were initiated by local churches and depended on the goodwill and active interest of the church leaders whose members supported them financially and materially. Three private centres were also relying on the contribution of a few local businesses and community organisations.

In summary, profiles of the centres highlight some features of the environments enabling or disabling the effectiveness of adult NFET in KZN. The first disabling environment concerns the financial constraints as related to geographical areas. The majority of the skills training is in rural areas and provides in the public adult centres which are fully supported by the provincial Department of Education. Nevertheless, they are having increasing financial challenges for the management of good quality adult skills training programmes. Yet, these public centres do not mobilise local community resources (material, financial and human). In addition, the second disabling environment concerns the disagreement on training objectives between trainees and the public centres as reported by some centre managers in the interviews. The majority of public centres focus on wage-employment after a trainee has completed AET level 4 and FET college. Nevertheless, older trainees want to become self-employed immediately after graduation.

However, findings revealed three elements of enabling environments. Firstly, although private centres managed by NPO or FBO mostly tend to provide skills training to adults in urban areas; they have a well-organised base to secure resource support from local agencies and churches. Secondly, the selection criteria used by most of the centres, fit with the overall social objectives of the adult NFET centre. For a centre whose main focus was on self-employment, a trainee is supposed to have a plan of starting a small business at entry stage. The next section focuses on the socio-economic characteristics of the trainees.

6.3 Socio-economic characteristics of the trainees

It is widely acknowledged that there is reciprocity between the socio-economic situation of a person and educational achievement. As mentioned in Chapter One, a lack of education and training has a direct impact on employment outcomes and hence contributes to poverty. This section examines the demographic characteristics of the sample trainees, their economic status and the skills training courses they studied.

6.3.1 Demographic characteristics of the sample trainees

This section examines the relationships between social indicators of the trainees. As discussed in Chapter One section 1.1, poverty in KZN is generally linked with geographical areas, race, gender, unemployment, marital status and the education of the head of the household. Chart 6.3 below presents the gender composition of the trainees.

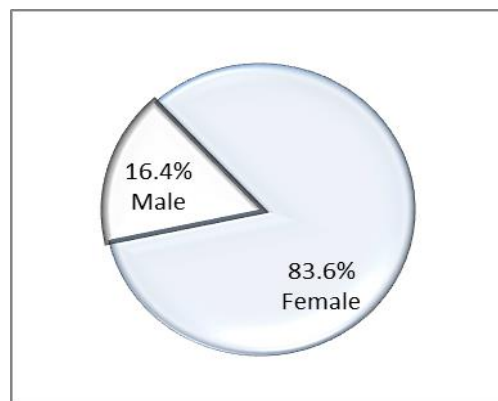


Chart 6.3: Gender composition of trainees (n=420)

Chart 6.3 reveals that the greater majority of the trainees in KZN were females (83.6%, 351/420) as compared to males (16.4%, 69/420). This uneven gender representation in adult education and training centres indicates that females were disadvantaged in terms of accessing the formal education system. Therefore, it appears from the finding that adult training programmes constituted a second chance for women to complete their basic education and gain skills in order to overcome absolute poverty. However, the uneven gender representation may also be explained by cultural and social factors. Some men may feel shameful to attend non-formal adult education and training, because it was meant for those who are illiterate. So they may not be willing to expose themselves. Furthermore, from an African cultural perspective, it

is hard for an old man with family and community responsibilities to study with women in the same classroom and also to be taught by a woman trainer.

The age of the trainee respondents was diverse. Although there was no specific age criterion for any of the 21 adult centres, the mean age was 34.6. The youngest trainees were 18 years old and the oldest were 69 years old. Most of the youth trainees were those who dropped out of formal schools due to circumstances in life such as teenage pregnancies, illness and poverty in the family. It was observed that both younger and older respondents were unemployed trainees who dropped out of basic education. These people were seeking both employment and compensatory education and training. The age range of trainees is shown in Chart 6.4 below.

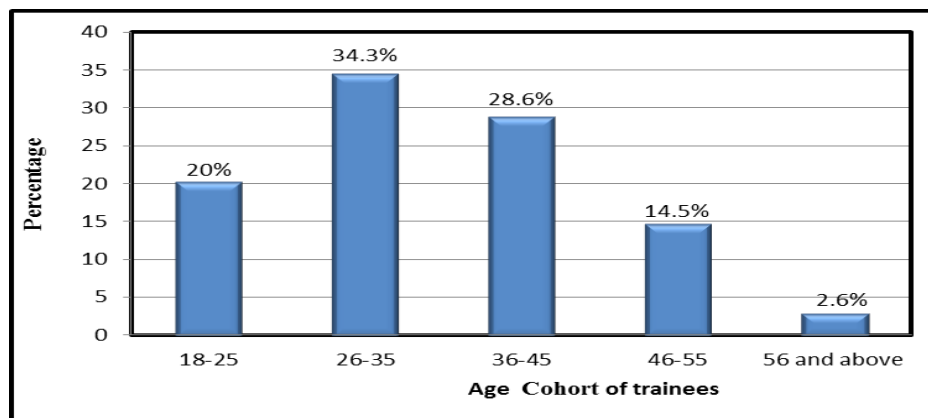


Chart 6.4: Age distribution of trainees (n=420)

The analysis of the age cohorts in Chart 6.4 reveals that most of the trainees were of middle age. The age cohort 18-25 composed 20% (84/420), 26-35 by 34.4% (144/420), 36-45 by 28.6% (120/420), 46-55 by 14.5% (61/420), and 56 and above by 2.6% (11/420). It is evident that three age cohorts (18-25, 26-35 and 36-45) constitute a working age and hence a group of citizens who can meaningfully contribute to the economy of the country if they acquire relevant skills training. This is a strong signal to the state and specifically the Department of Education to invest much more in adult education and training. Investing in these three age cohorts would help avoid the economic and social cost of unskillfulness and unemployment.

In the case of trainees aged from 55 and above, it was observed during field work that they were keen to learn skills for self-employment. Interviews with some elderly trainees ranging from 50 to 69 years revealed that they were from marginalised communities during the apartheid era.

Despite their older age and studying with youths, they were eager to acquire some marketable livelihood and vocational skills in order to enhance their self-employment opportunities.

The racial composition of the trainee respondents was unequal. The study attempted to include a considerable number of different races in the sample, but this endeavour was impossible. Generally, the study found that all centres were dominated by Africans (98.3%, 413/420). There were three Whites, representing 0.71% (3/420), and 1% was Indians (4/420). This finding confirms that educational achievement and poverty in South Africa have racial dimensions (Leibbrandt, et al., 2010:15). Africans are less educated and are mostly attending adult centres to gain a second chance for education. The age cohorts were also analysed within the context of marital status as shown in Table 6.4 below.

Table 6.4: Marital status of the sample of trainees by age cohorts (n=420)

Marital status	18-25		26-35		36-45		46-55		56 and above		Total sample	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Single	80	95.2	122	84.7	76	63.3	19	31.1	7	63.6	304	72.4
Married	1	1.2	16	11.1	39	32.5	27	44.3	1	9.1	84	20
Divorced	1	1.2	2	1.4	-	-	3	4.9	-	-	6	1.4
Widow/widower	-	-	1	0.7	4	3.3	6	9.8	3	27.3	14	3.3
Living with a partner	2	2.4	3	2.1	1	0.8	6	9.8	-	-	12	2.9
Total	84	100	144	100	120	100	61	100	11	100	420	100

Note: % within group

The majority of the sample trainees were not married. It is evident from Table 6.4 that 72.4% (304/420) of total respondents were single or never married. Only 20% (84/420) were married; 1.4% (6/420) of trainees were divorced and 3.3% (14/420) were widowed. However, it does not mean that they did not have family responsibilities. In line with family responsibilities, it is significant to note that the great majority of respondent trainees were females (83.6%), yet 77.1% (336/420) of them were not married (single, divorced and widowed).

The study also examined the formal education achievement of the trainees in order to determine whether or not it constitute a conducive factor for skills acquisition. The highest level of schooling a trainee had completed before enrolling at the adult training centre is presented in Chart 6.5 below.

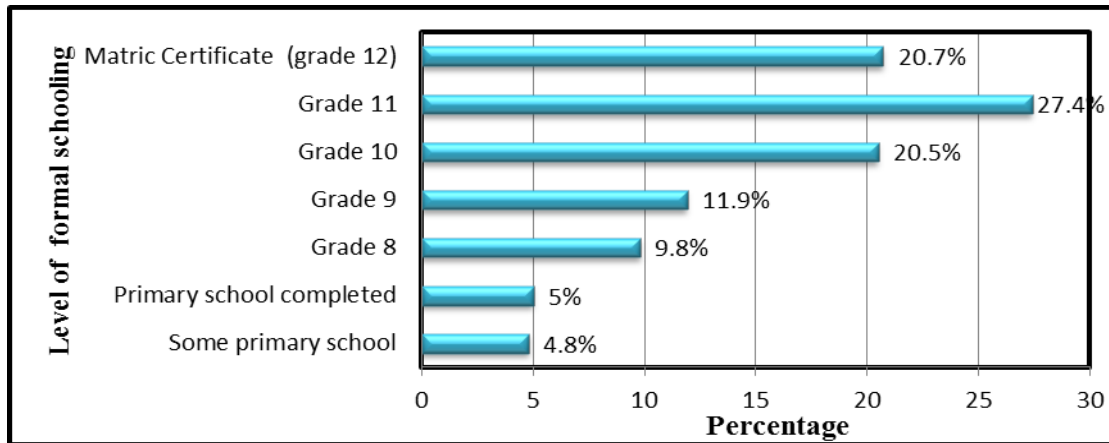


Chart 6.5: Highest level of formal schooling of the trainees (n=420)

The finding from Chart 6.5 shows that 20.7% (87/420) of trainees had completed matric (Grade 12) which is a minimum requirement for university or technical college entry in South Africa. More than a quarter (27.4%, 115/420) of respondents had completed Grade 11; 20.5% (86/420) left school in grade 10; and 9.8% (41/420) of trainees completed Grade 8. The lowest school achievers were those who only completed primary school (5%, 21/420) and 4.8% (20) completed some primary school.

The cross examination of the variable age cohorts and highest level of formal schooling of the trainees, reveal two important findings. Firstly, considering the number of trainees with Grade 9 to 12 (80.5%, 338/420); the implication is that the great majority of them possessed a certain level of literacy and numeracy to learn employable skills at benchmark standard. The highest level of formal schooling could allow them to understand the contents of the skills training course and apply it in the workplace. Educational achievement of trainees can also be an impediment or catalyst for skills training acquisition. The trainees with a low level of education may have difficulty to acquire skills because of the low level of writing, reading and comprehension skills. However, these findings show that the highest level of formal schooling of the trainees provides a significant element of enabling environment for skills acquisition and skills utilisation.

Secondly, the cross analysis of the trainee age and formal school achievement (from Grade 10 to 12) reveals that they could register at FET colleges in KZN. Their formal school achievement was an entrance requirement at FET colleges. In addition, 54.3 (228/420) of these trainees were still young (age cohorts of 18-25 and 26-35 years). A significant question is: Why do this youth

prefer to enrol to adult skills training centres instead of applying to FET colleges? There are at least two possible reasons to explain this. The first is that most of the trainees could not access FET colleges because of their poor school record hindering them to meet entry requirements. Consequently adult centre training would help them upgrade their qualifications and possibility to obtain a certificate for further studies or employment. The second reason may be that these youths were from poor and disadvantages families (see finding on section 6.3.2 below). Therefore they could not afford paying FET college tuition fees. The implication of these findings from age cohorts in relation to the highest level of formal schooling of the trainees is that it is justifiable to invest in people through adult NFET. The Department of Education ought to improve the skills training quality of adult centres to serve these youths in terms of providing them with employable and marketable skills.

6.3.2 Economic status of trainees

It was important to examine the economic background of the trainees in order to determine the extent of poverty and the changes that skills training programmes brought into their lives. The findings reveal that more than half of the respondents (50.5%, 212/420) had been unemployed for more than five years. Based on the discussion in Chapter Five (section 5.4.2.2), the meaning of this data is that more than half of the respondent trainees were chronically poor. Thus, they faced combinations of capability deprivation such as low levels of material and financial assets and social marginality. The rest of the respondents (49.5%, 208/420) were transitorily poor which means their unemployment status was not extended up until five years. In the same way, trainees were asked to mention the type of work they had before joining their respective adult centres. The results are presented in Chart 6.6 below.

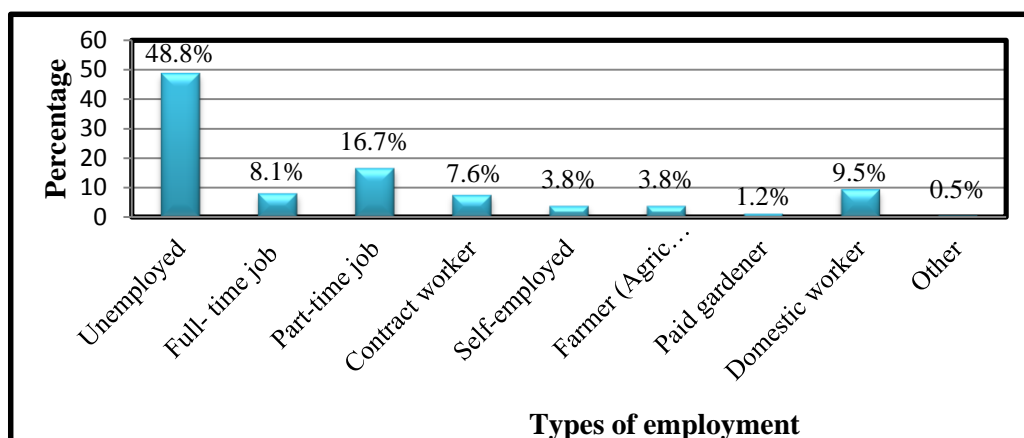


Chart 6.6: Type of work before joining adult training centre (n=420)

The analysis of Chart 6.6 reveals that almost half (48.8%, 205/420) of trainees were unemployed during the time of application for skills training at adult centres. Only 8.1% (34/420) had full-time jobs in the formal sector. Very few had part-time jobs (16.7%, 70/420). This data confirm the KZN plan to target socio-economically vulnerable adults (such as young adult orphans, youth in the street and domestic workers) from marginalised rural and urban-slum communities (KZN, 2012:13).

6.3.3 Trainee's skills training course

The objective of the analysis of the type of training course of trainees according to areas of residence was to see whether they chose courses in accordance with the market opportunities in their local communities. The distribution of the training course by trainees' residence is presented in Table 6.5 below.

Table 6.5: Distribution of trainee's skills training course by areas of residence (n=420)³

Training course	Urban (n=119)		Peri-urban (n=192)		Rural (n=109)		Total sample (n=420)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Agricultural technology	3	2.52	60	31.25	57	52.29	120	28.57
Ancillary health care	13	10.92	103	53.64	40	36.69	156	37.14
SMME	26	21.84	98	51.04	21	19.26	145	34.52
Travel and tourism	18	15.12	78	40.62	-	-	96	22.86
ICT	43	36.13	30	15.62	2	1.83	75	17.86
Craft	3	2.52	31	16.14	14	12.84	48	11.43
Sewing and fashion	47	39.49	12	6.25	4	3.66	63	15
Poultry	-	-	-	-	18	16.51	18	4.29
Co-operative	-	-	-	-	18	16.51	18	4.29
Basic paramedic	-	-	-	-	1	0.91	1	0.24
Beauty training	1	0.84	-	-	-	-	1	0.24
Others	1	0.84	3	1.56	-	-	4	0.95

The geographical distribution of the training courses by trainees' residence reveals that some courses were dominant according to areas. The analysis of Table 6.5 indicates that the most

³ Frequency in the above Table 6.5 indicates a response to a multiple question and refers to the number of times each training course was mentioned by trainees who studied at an adult centre. Although few trainees mentioned only one of the 12 courses, there were many who ticked more than one skills training course.

selected skills training courses in urban areas were fashion design and sewing (39.49%, 47/119), ICT (36.13%, 43/119), and SMME (21.84%, 26/119). Trainees residing in the peri-urban areas mostly preferred studying ancillary health care (53.64%, 103/192), followed by SMME (51.04%, 98/192) and travel and tourism (40.62%, 78/192). In the rural areas, more than half (52.29%, 57/109) of trainees selected agricultural technology, followed by ancillary health care (36.69%, 40/109). It was observed that the agricultural technology course seemed to be more marketable in the rural areas because of the types of livelihood of the residents which is more related to agriculture and the presence of agricultural corporations. Similarly, ancillary health care appeared more relevant in the rural areas most probably because of being remote from health services.

A close examination of the training courses raises two concerns. Centres' failure to conduct market surveys before providing the skills training could result in danger of market saturation and competition in the community (see sub-section 6.4.1.1 below). The major courses mentioned above were monotonously offered in the centres every year. Yet the most marketable courses like fashion design and sewing, and ancillary health care were female-dominated in the context of KZN. This fact may also explain why males are unequally represented in adult non-formal education and training. Interviews with male respondents revealed that they would like to study carpentry, masonry, auto mechanics, painting and spraying, fridge repair and welding; training courses which are not offered at the adult centres. Two male respondents expressed the need for more technical skills training by saying:

There is a need for complete skills training in AET centres because many learners [trainees] after completing their level 4, have no interest to further their studies at FET colleges. But they are keen to open small businesses.

As you can see in our community, there is no FET college nearby so I can learn more skills. I wish if the government can bring to our centre some skills trainings that are at FET colleges in eThekweni [Durban]. In our community we need skills training for men like masonry, auto mechanics, painting and spraying, fridge repair, and welding and many others.

It was observed that the skills training provisions were supply-driven and not based on a regular market analysis of the demand for the skills. Similarly, the analyses of centre documents revealed that trainees were keen to learn skills they perceived as having potential economic benefits and opportunities for them. The relevance of these most selected training courses will next be examined in conjunction with employment placement in order to draw a valid conclusion. The next section will examine how trainees, managers and trainers viewed the internal training delivery environment for skill acquisition leading to jobs and businesses.

6.4 Skills training and internal enabling environments for skill acquisition

This section has three main areas of foci with regard to the internal training delivery environment. Firstly, it looks at different components of the internal training delivery environment. Secondly, it analyses the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment of the NFET centres contributing to skills acquisition. Thirdly, it examines the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment in terms of post-training activities of the graduates in the labour market. To this end, it presents and analyses the types of the internal enabling delivery environments created by the centres in relation to (1) the needs of the trainees either for self-employment or wage-employment, and (2) the available market in the community. It looks at how both public and private centres achieve the effectiveness of the training delivery environment contributing to skills acquisition through training needs assessment, development of suitable training materials, the design of a suitable training approach, and training methods in the classroom and workplace. The data presentation starts with the perception of the trainees on the training delivery environments, followed by a comparison of the views of the managers and trainers.

6.4.1 Access to training programmes

In section 6.2.2.2 above (trainee selection criteria of the centre's training programme), it was found that the majority of the centres (85.71, 18/21) selected their trainees on the basis of being currently unemployed. This criterion was followed by 'currently being self-employed and planning to start a small business'. Beside the wage-employment focus of some centres, the implication of the finding was that the training was linked to the future establishment of an individual small business. Thus, at individual level, each trainee was supposed to have a plan of

starting a small business. To examine the link between the selection criteria and the recruitment process of the trainees, data was obtained about the training needs assessment; trainees' main expectations, and training content relevance.

6.4.1.1 Training needs assessment at the NFET centres

By examining the process of training needs assessment (TNA), the researcher aimed at determining how it influenced the success of training delivery and employment outcomes. A comparative analysis between the types of centres and whether managers and trainers consulted the trainees on their training needs before enrolment reveals that they indeed have done so. On the part of public centres, 94.73% (36/38) of managers and trainers agreed that trainees were asked about their training needs. With regard to the private centres, 78.57% (11/14) of managers and trainers agreed that trainees were asked about their training needs.

To confirm the findings from the centre managers and trainers, trainees were asked whether they were consulted about their training needs prior to signing up for a training course within a programme. In relation to public centres, 69.75% (203/291) of trainees agreed that they were consulted for their training needs while 30.24% (88/291) did not agree. For those trained in the private centres, 72.86% (94/129) said that they were consulted, whereas 27.13% (35/129) indicated that they were not consulted. This means that in both public and private centres, the great majority of the trainees were asked for their training needs. Responses from managers and trainers on the one hand and trainees on the other closely agree that trainees were consulted about their training needs prior to signing up for a training course. However, it is important to know how the TNA was conducted to the trainees according to the geographical areas. Chart 6.7 below presents the responses of managers and trainers on the focus of training needs assessment by geographical areas.

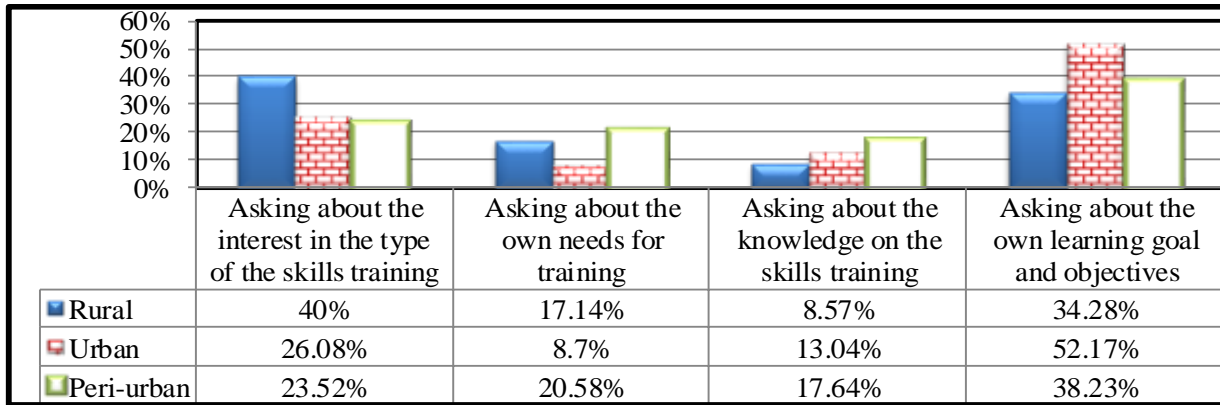


Chart 6.7: The focus of training needs assessment of trainees by area (n=48)

Note: % within the centre area

Chart 6.7 reveals that in the rural areas, 40% (14/35) of the managers and trainers agreed that the majority of the questions during the training needs assessment interviews consisted of asking about trainees’ interest in the type of the training. The second important question (34.28%, 12/35) focused on asking about their own learning goal and objectives. Contrary to the rural areas, more attention was given to asking the trainees about their own learning goal and objectives for the training, which scored 52.17% (12/23) in urban areas and 38.23% (13/34) in the peri-urban areas. Asking about the own needs for training was less important in all three areas. It was indicated by 8.7% (2/23) respondents in the urban areas, 20.58% (7/34) in the peri-urban areas and 17.14% (3/35) in the rural areas. In a similar vein, Chart 6.8 below presents the TNA process from trainees’ responses by centre types.

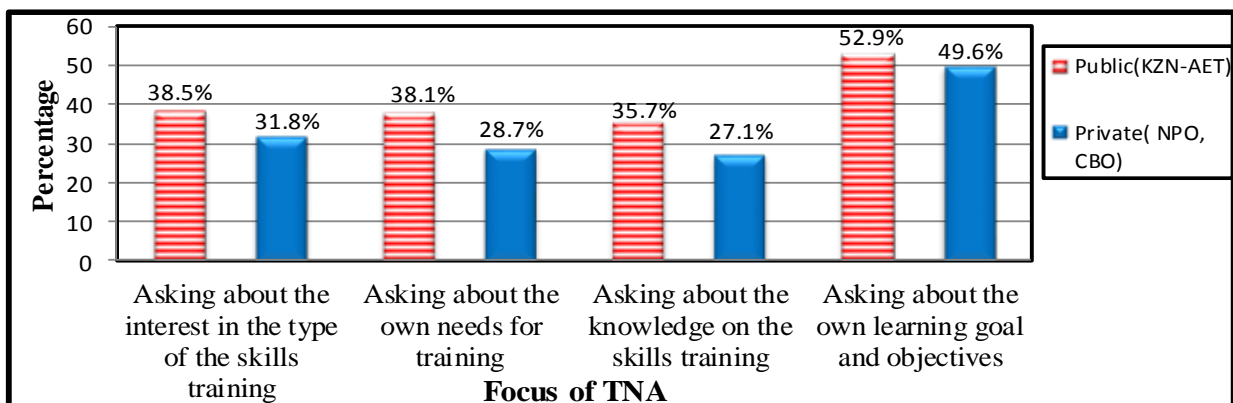


Chart 6.8: The focus of training needs assessment to the trainees by centre type (n=420)

Note: % within centre type

The examination of Chart 6.8 reveals that there is only a slight difference between both types of the centres on the TNA. Responses from trainees show that more attention was firstly on “asking about their own learning goal and objectives” which scores 52.9% (154/291) for the public centres and 49.6% (64/129) for the private centres. The second main question was on “asking about trainee’s interest in the type of the skills training” which scores 38.5% (112/291) in the public centres and 31.8 (41/129) in the private centres.

The qualitative findings from interviews with the trainees revealed that the only difference between both types of centres was that the procedure of TNA in public centres was through a written test. Yet in private centres TNA was conducted through one-on-one interviews and trainees were given individual feedbacks.

It is evident that both Charts 6.7 and 6.8 provide the same findings though derived from different respondents and perspectives. However, in view of the quantitative research findings in both Charts 6.7 and 6.8 above, the analysis of the TNA reveals three substantial weaknesses. Firstly, it focused only on the trainees. When asked about conducting a market survey, there was no centre manager who reported to have looked at labour market opportunities in the local communities. Thus, it failed to consider the link between the training programmes and the local economy. Secondly, the implementation of adult NFET programmes is not only based on trainees’ interest in the type of the training (see Charts 6.7 [40% in rural areas] and charts 6.8 [38.5% in public centres]). Based on findings from sub-section 6.3.2 (economic status of trainees) whereby more than half of the respondents (50.5%, 212/420) had been unemployed for more than five years, thus chronically poor, trainees could not be motivated by interest but by immediately felt need for income or for the survival of the family. The training had to satisfy their needs for the skills training here and now.

Thirdly, since “asking about the own needs for training” had little importance in all three areas at both types of centres, this means the centres missed the real essence of the TNA. The results on Charts 6.7 and 6.8 above show that the centres did consider the felt needs but only on a very insignificant scale, that emerged from an individual adult trainee formed by his/her knowledge, experience and understanding of the opportunities of employment.

6.4.1.2 Trainee’s main expectations after graduating from training programmes

Managers and trainers were asked to mention what they assumed to be the main expectations of their trainees. This variable was useful to guide the centre on how to design an effective programme through the lens of the trainees’ needs and their own learning goals and objectives. The variable intended to establish the relationship between the manager/trainer’s knowledge of trainees’ felt needs for the training and programme effectiveness. In the same way, the trainees were asked to mention their own main expectations after graduating from the selected skills training programme. The combined results on trainee’s expectations after graduating from the training centre by the type of the centre are presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Expectations after graduating from training centre by centre type (n=472)

Expectation of the trainees	Public centre		Private centre		Total trainees		Trainers & Managers	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
To find a job in public or private sector	75	25.8	26	20.2	101	24	10	19.2
To open an own small business	55	18.9	56	43.4	111	26.4	20	37.6
To be linked with job opportunities	45	15.5	32	24.8	77	18.3	2	4.8
To be linked with banks for credit/loan	1	0.3	-	-	1	0.2	1	2.4
To continue with higher education	112	38.5	15	11.6	127	30.2	19	36
Other	3	1	-	-	3	0.7	-	-
Total	291	100	129	100	420	100	52	100

A comparative analysis in Table 6.7 shows that there is a relationship between trainees’ expectations and the type of the centres. In the public centres, the highest percentage (38.5%, 112/291) of trainees expected to continue with higher education. This was also confirmed by 36% (19/52) managers and trainers. The second expectation was to find a job in the public or private sector (25.8%, 75/291) which a few managers and trainers (19.2%, 10/52) agreed with. According to the managers and trainers (37.6%, 20/52), those who could not further their studies should rather opt for self-employment.

In private centres, the highest percentage of trainees (43.4%, 56/129) expected to open an own small business after graduating from the training centre. This expectation was also anticipated by 37.6% (20/52) of managers and trainers. In the case where self-employment would be impossible, private centre trainees (24.8, 32/129) were expecting to be linked with job

opportunities in order to raise money for start-up capital. However this was not the perception of the managers and trainers of whom only 4.8% (2/52) agreed.

For both types of the centres, “to be linked with banks for credit/loan” was the least important expectation. Only one trainee (out of 420) and one manager (out of 21) mentioned it. This finding reveals a serious contradiction in terms of main expectations. According to Table 6.7, if the percentages of both trainees and managers/trainers are added together, the expectation of opening an own small business occupies a second preference “to continue with higher education”. Yet, the great majority of the trainees were absolutely and chronically poor (see section 6.3.2), and the centres had financial challenges. The obvious question is thus: Where would the sources for start-up capital for small business come from if not from bank loans or credits?

Furthermore, focusing only on managers and trainers responses, Table 6.7 reveals another weakness on the TNA. The low scores on believing that trainees expected to be linked with job opportunities (4.8%, 2/52) and to be linked with banks for credit/loan (2.4%, 1/52) are significant indicators of a lack of conducive factors from the programme design. Firstly, concerning wage-employment, 4.8% (2/52) indicate that only few centre managers were of the opinion that there was a need of linking trainees with low-skills job opportunities in the community. Thus, at the programme design stage there were no plan and mechanism in place aiming at assisting a graduate with finding wage-employment. Secondly, with regard to self-employment, 2.4% (1/52) indicate that the majority of the centre managers did not think that there was a need of linking trainees with financial institutions for soft loans or credits. Thus, at the programme design stage there were no plans and mechanisms to help a trainee with starting a small business or a micro- enterprise.

The qualitative research findings reveal different findings from the quantitative data presented in Table 6.7 regarding the expectation “to be linked with banks for credit/loan”. They confirm the inference made above according to which, at the programme design stage, there were no plans and mechanisms to help a trainee in starting a small business or a micro- enterprise. In the last question of the trainee questionnaire, in an open question, the trainees were asked to give any specific comments or suggestions on adult education and training programmes in KZN. In response, 28.8% (121/420) of trainees suggested that the centres should provide financial

assistance after graduation and negotiate networks with banks to offer them financial assistance. They further mentioned that centres should link them specifically with financial institutions working with entrepreneurs such as ABSA Bank, Standard Bank and Ithala Bank. The comments indicate that a significant number of trainees was interested in self-employment, and also expected to be linked with banks for credit or loans. In the one-on-one interviews, all six self-employed trainees reported the need to be linked with financial institutions.

A thorough examination of Table 6.7 reveals that trainees had mainly three expectations. These were: To find a job in the public or private sector; to open an own small business, and to continue with higher education. However, seeing that the unemployment rate in KwaZulu-Natal at the time of the research was 35% (0.9 million), the probability of finding a job in either public or private sector (24%, 111/420) and being linked with job opportunities (18.3%, 77/420) was very low. Therefore, to open an own small business (26.6%, 111/420) and to continue with higher education (30.2%, 127/420) would be the more suitable main expectations for the trainees (see Table 6.7 above). Chart 6.9 below shows the categories of trainees and main expectations after graduation according to age cohorts.

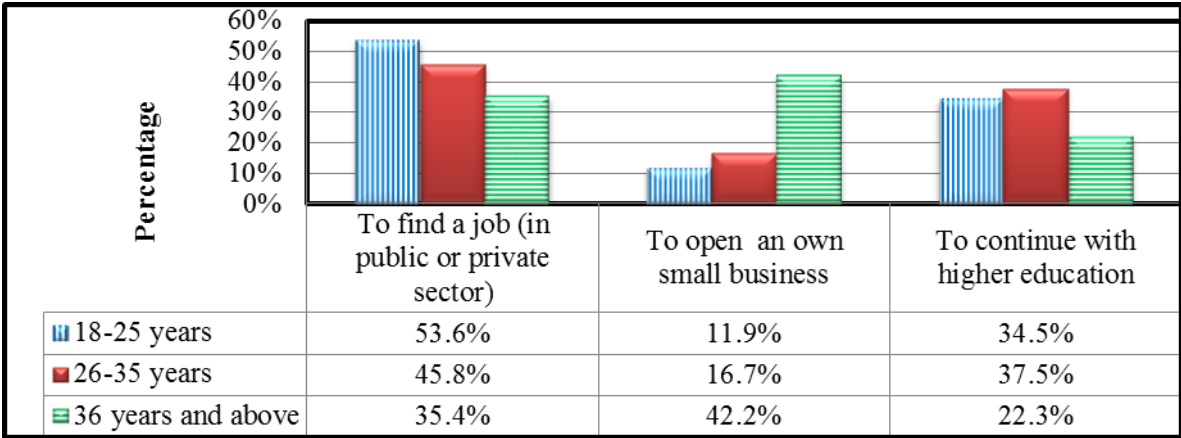


Chart 6.9: Major expectations after graduating from training by age cohorts (n=420)

Note: % within age cohorts

There is a relationship between three major expectations after graduation and the age of the trainees. The analysis of Chart 6.9 indicates that the major expectations are high or low according to the trainee’s age. Firstly, the expectation ‘to find a job in public or private sector’ was high among the youths of age cohort 18-25 years (53.6%, 45/84), it becomes lower in the aged group 26-35 years old (48.8%, 66/114) and very low in the older trainees of 36 years and

above (35.4%, 68/192). Secondly, ‘to continue with higher education’ was moderate among the youths of age cohort of 26-35 years (37.5%, 54/144); it becomes lower among the 18-25 years old (34.5%, 29/84) and very low in the older trainees of 36 years and above (22.3%, 43/192). Thirdly, ‘to open an own small business’ was high among the older trainees of 36 years and above (42.2%, 81/192). This expectation becomes low for youths of 26-35 years (16.5%, 24/144) and very low for those aged 18-25 years. From the quantitative research data, the overall finding on the main expectations by age cohorts reveals that the older trainees are more inclined to aim at opening an own small business.

This finding was substantiated by qualitative findings on trainees’ comments to an open question (see Appendix 1A, question 38). For most of the trainees aged from 36 years and above and who had family responsibilities, their expectation was to open an own small business after graduating from the training. One female trainee of 45 years old mentioned:

When I was selling sweets in the street, my neighbour advised me to attend adult training at our community centre so to have skills in order to open a good small business. As an unemployed woman, I agreed and registered for SMME and other learning areas. When I completed the skills training, I asked myself what knowledge have I added? I realised that I have added only a certificate.

A self-employed graduate trainee in tailoring micro- enterprise said:

The reason of enrolling at a training centre was that I did not have the fund[s] to go to the university or technical college. In order to get out of poverty, I decided to register for a cheap training but effective and which would help me become self-employed.

A self- employed graduate trainee in co-operative stated:

I chose to study agricultural technology and small medium and micro- enterprise at my Adult Centre because I am now old (48 years old), I cannot be employed any more. The only way I can earn a living is to be involved in small business.

It appears from these quotes that for older trainees, skills training courses were mostly intended for self-employment in micro-enterprise. Therefore they could have benefited from being linked with financial institutions during completion of their training. However, the majority of the centre managers did not think that there was a need of linking trainees with financial institutions for soft loans or credits. In addition, the programme design did not include strategies or mechanisms to help a trainee in starting a small business or a micro-enterprise.

6.4.1.3 Training content relevance

In this study, content relevance was assessed in terms of the curriculum design, facilities used during the training and the programme package to help adult trainees become wage- or self-employed. As a significant element of internal training delivery environments for skill acquisition, content relevance looked at the way centres tailored the training programmes to respond to the needs of the trainees since they could not wait for a long time to see the outcomes of the training impacting on their lives.

In the quantitative research, the centre managers, trainers and trainees were asked to give their opinions whether the training programmes were relevant to the needs and objectives of the trainees. Based on the responses, 92% (48/52) of the centre managers and trainers stated that the training contents were very relevant or relevant to trainee's needs and objectives. Only 8% (4/52) said that it was fairly relevant. It is significant to note that these respondents (92%) agreed only on the suitability of the training courses as related to the local economic context of the trainees, not on curriculum design. For example, agricultural technology and ancillary health care were relevant in the rural areas due to agricultural activities as sources of economy. In the same way, health care and social services from the government are limited in the rural areas of KZN. In the urban areas, SMME, fashion design and sewing were also suitable.

The general finding reveals that the majority (76.2%, 320/420) trainees are of the view that the training courses were very relevant or relevant to their needs and objectives. For 13.1% (55/420) of respondents, it was fairly relevant and the other 2.9% (420) said that it was irrelevant. Table 6.8 below shows the extent trainees view the relevance of the programmes in relation to three central expectations.

Table 6.8: Training relevance according to trainees' expectations after graduation

Expectations after graduation	Very relevant		Relevant		Fairly relevant		Irrelevant		Neutral		Total (n=420)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
To find a job in public or private sector	62	34.6	70	39.1	31	17.3	4	2.2	12	6.7	179	100
To open an own small business	39	33.9	54	47	11	9.6	5	4.3	6	5.2	115	100
To continue with higher education	43	34.1	52	41.3	13	10.3	3	2.1	15	11.9	126	100
Total	144	34.3	176	41.9	55	13.1	12	2.9	33	7.9	420	100

Note: % within the expectations after graduation

A thorough analysis of Table 6.8, reveals a positive link between training programmes and trainees' three central expectations. Firstly, for those trainees (179/420) who expected to find a job in the public or private sector (wage-employment), 73.7% (132/179) viewed the skills trainings as very relevant or relevant, as compared to 17.3% (31/179) who said that they were fairly relevant. Only 2.2% (4/179) said that they were irrelevant. Secondly, for those trainees (115/420) whose expectations were to open an own small business (self-employment), 80.9% (93/115) viewed the training programmes as very relevant or relevant. Only 4.3% (5/115) judged the programmes as irrelevant, and 5.2% (6/115) were neutral. Thirdly, for the 126 trainees who aimed to further their education at FET colleges after obtaining certificates, 75.4% (95/126) stated that the training programmes were very relevant or relevant.

However, the qualitative research findings from interviews seemed to be different from the above results with regard to the majority of the public centres. Findings from interviews with managers and trainers show that the curriculum design, a lack of resources and a capacity-based training approach rendered the training programmes irrelevant to meet the objectives of the adult trainees. It was also observed that there were weaknesses in training programmes' design which also negatively impacted on training delivery for skill acquisition. One of the public centre managers said:

The curriculum is not designed to suit adult trainees in the world of work today in our community. The AET curriculum should be tailored according to the local environment in the process of transferring livelihood skills to adults. The centre managers just received a programme from the provincial Department of Education. I

will tell you an example in the context of my centre. In 2010, I did a research regarding training need assessment for the centre and discovered relevant and employable technical skills which could help trainees become employed in small enterprises or self-employed after training completion. I sent the training proposal to the Department of Education for the approval of the implementation of the training courses. But up until now I have not received any response regarding whether I can implement the skills programme or not.

The main point in this quote is that, in the majority of public centres, the skills training design and implementation were not tailored according to the local market environment. The above statement of a public centre manager is similar to the findings from the document analysis. These findings reveal that curricula of the majority of the centres were designed by external public or private institutions and hence outside the labour market context of the local communities. For instance, in the public centres, the curricula were from the Department of Education of the KZN. They were written in many cases by government officials who have little or no exposure to training for work in the informal micro-enterprise sector. In the same way, some private centres received their curricula from other organisations outside the socio-economic context of the trainees and environment of the local community.

Practically, the findings from the interviews and document analysis reveal that the majority of adult education and training provided in public centres have been designed for wage-employment after studies at FET colleges. The curriculum was a pre-employment training for adults without on-the-job-training in field work. Taken in the strictest sense, such type of adult skills training design only holds limited relevance for the poor and unemployed adults. This is because jobs are very scarce in the community for low-skilled job seekers. Findings from field observation reveals that, since there are few firms and job opportunities in the public sector in the rural areas, training for wage-employment imply migration of the trainees to the urban areas. For the rural poor, this type of NFET is less relevant because of other factors already mentioned (for example, the expense of transport, food, family responsibilities). The main finding with regard to training content relevance is that some of the training courses provided (particularly in the peri-urban and rural areas) were not adequately linked to realistic job opportunities in the area.

Though the quantitative findings in Table 6.8 show that the programmes were relevant to each group, in the next sub-section, the training contents relevance is measured in terms of internal training delivery environment for skill acquisition.

6.4.2 Internal training delivery environment for skill acquisition

Following the discussion above of the elements of access to the training programmes, this sub-section focuses on the human and material resources needed to deliver the programmes; the approach of training delivery and certification. These elements form the core part of the internal training delivery environments.

6.4.2.1 Challenges in human and material resources

The examination of the resource challenges was an attempt to determine how the skills delivery environment may be affected by human and material resources (including tools and equipment in the training workshops). Human and material resources lay a good foundation for an approach of training delivery for skills acquisition. Table 6.9 below presents the findings from the combined views of trainees, managers and trainers.

Table 6.9: Challenges facing the delivery environment for skills acquisition (n=472)

Insufficiency of resources	Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
There is insufficient provision of training materials for theory lessons	87	18.43	243	51.48	41	8.68	87	18.43	22	4.66
There is insufficient provision of training materials for practical lessons	67	14.19	258	54.66	66	13.98	67	14.19	21	4.44
There is insufficient provision of basic workshop tools and equipment	58	12.28	273	53.38	49	10.38	97	20.55	23	4.87
Trainers are not motivated	24	5.08	59	12.5	41	8.68	281	59.53	66	13.98
The centre lacks qualified trainers	72	15.25	56	11.86	30	6.35	228	48.3	86	18.22

As reflected in Table 6.9 above trainees, managers and trainers agreed that all centres were actually facing material resource challenges for skills delivery. The great majority of trainees, managers and trainers strongly agreed or agreed that there was insufficient provision of training materials for theory lessons (70%, 330/472); there was insufficient provision of training

materials for practical lessons (68.85%, 325/472); and there was insufficient provision of basic workshop tools and equipment (65.66%, 331/472). It is evident from the findings that a lack of training equipment and materials may affect the effective training delivery for skills acquisition.

With regard to human resources, the majority of the trainees, managers and trainers strongly disagreed or disagreed that trainers were not motivated (73.51%, 347/472). This implies that trainers are motivated. With regard to qualification of trainers, 66.52% (314/472) of the trainees, managers and trainers strongly disagreed or disagreed that the centre lacks qualified trainers, which affirms that the centres have mostly qualified trainers. Nevertheless, the insufficiencies in material resources may negatively impact the activities of human resources. The insufficient supply of training tools and equipment could both lead to trainers focusing on more theoretical training in classrooms, which in turn would influence the level of trainees' competency in practical skills acquisition.

Nevertheless, in public centres, there was a lack of well-qualified trainers (instructors) in the specific skills training courses. Some had a matric certificate (21.7%, 5/23), others had college certificates (30.4%, 7/23), college diplomas (43.5%, 10/23) and one (4.3%) had a bachelor's degree in education and training. But they lacked practical experience as related to the skills training, business or industry. As a result, they generally could not succeed to provide the trainees with sufficient technical and business skills they needed for immediate employment after graduation. This is why the public centre trainers had little attention to link training to industries, business or other work places; a task reserved for FET colleges. In private centres, 25% (2/8) trainers had a matric certificate; 37.5% (3/8) had a college certificate; 25% (2/8) had a college diploma and 12.5% (1/8) had a bachelor degree. Although no trainer had a university degree in adult education, private centre trainers were qualified in the specific technical skills training courses. The survey's findings and field observations reveal that many of the private centre trainers had practical experience related to industry and business.

Qualitative research findings reveal the same challenges in human and material resources and shed more light on centre copying mechanisms. With regard to human resources and private centres, they were using part-time trainers who were contracted for the duration of the skills training course. In the case of the ancillary health care course in the rural areas, interviews with managers revealed that the centres were receiving short-term trainers from the provincial

Department of Social Development and local public hospitals. Other private centres were in partnership with the Department of Agriculture whose experts in the field of agricultural technology usually came to train trainees. These trainers had the technical experience and business skills in poultry and agricultural co-operatives (Private centre manager, interview: 27/11/2013).

In urban areas, private centres were relying on part-time trainers who were contracted for duration of the training programmes. These trainers from other organisations or institutions were also experts in the area of technical training courses and had experience in business skills. In addition to the outside trainers, the private centres were using the same former trainees as mentors in technical skills such as crafts and sewing courses. They are very helpful to trainees in gaining work experience and provide technical assistance in the new micro-enterprises.

With regard to material resources the qualitative research findings reveal that all centres experience an inadequate supply of training tools and equipment. All managers involved in the study reported that a lack of financial resources was a major challenge which has caused little investment in training materials and equipment. Unfortunately, many public centres, and especially in the rural areas, could not afford to buy training aids and materials for skills training courses. Only one public centre in a peri-urban area had a computer training room furnished with new computers. No workshops for practical sessions were observed, and most of the public centres were even lacking training aids and material for theory lessons. During an interview one public centre manager said that, “It is very difficult to continue with our skills training programme because the centre lacks financial support to buy training materials and equipment” (AET centre manager, interview: 20/01/2014).

Public centre managers and trainers were making financial contributions from their own meagre salaries to buy training materials for trainees. Public centre manager 1 explained:

The municipality gave us two machines for a sewing training course. They even donated us some money to buy materials for sewing practicals. Unfortunately it was once. For other training needs and maintenance of the material resources, my educators and I have to contribute from our own personal money.

Public centre manager 2 confirmed that they were making financial contributions:

Concerning agricultural training, educators and I contribute money each month to support trainees so they may get training materials for practical works. They cannot afford buying the materials because they are very poor. Only last time we received seeds and tools for the gardening project from KZN-Department of Agriculture.

These statements from public centre managers are an indication that the lack of training equipment and materials constitute a challenge in training delivery and skills acquisition. The lack of technical training equipment explains why in many public centres the common training courses offered were ancillary health care, small medium and micro-enterprise, travel and tourism.

Although the private centres also had material resource challenges, they were better off. The researcher observed the availability of training facilities and workshops furnished with materials and equipment. With regard to training course materials and equipment in agricultural technology, poultry and co-operatives, the rural private centres had projects used as field work for practical training and at the same time sources of financial income for both the centre and the trainees. The projects were funded by the Department of Agriculture whose experts in the field of agricultural technology usually came to the practice sites to train adult trainees.

Furthermore, private centres managed by FBOs are among the most significant NFET providers in KZN in terms of training equipment and materials, though not sufficient. It was observed that some of them had sophisticated equipment relative to the type of training they provide. For instance, two centres observed in urban areas had computer training rooms well furnished with new computers and accessories, and industrial sewing machines for training and production.

In summary, all centres surveyed have challenges in human and material resources hindering effective skills delivery. In relation to human resources, there are skilled trainers in urban areas for a number of skills programmes within agencies and organisations. Private centres could hire them as external resource trainers since they could afford paying them. However, public centres have qualified trainers in adult education and training but they are not skilled or competent in skills areas. Rural centres have the lowest skills trained staff and no specialists in the skills

training subjects. A few centres in urban areas have operational materials and equipment for technical training; yet there were none in the rural areas. Except in one private centre in a rural area, agricultural technology is taught using the black board only. As it will be seen in the next sub-section, the acquisition of competence-based skills depends on training materials and equipment used in conjunction with the mode and approach of training delivery.

6.4.2.2 Mode and approach of internal training delivery for skills acquisition

During the field work observations it was noted that delivery of NFET programmes for employment are complicated by the difficulty of integrating classroom learning with workplace based training. Therefore, the main focus of the assessment at training delivery level was on the approach the centres use to ensure trainees are prepared for employment at semi-skilled levels or to start their own income-generating activities. The responses from managers, trainers and trainees are presented in Table 6.10 below.

Table 6.10: Approach of training delivery by type of the centres (n=472)

Statement on the training approach	Public (KZN-AET), n=329						Private (NPO,CBO,FBO), n=143					
	Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Trainees have sufficient time to practice skills at centre during training	157	47.7	31	9.4	141	42.9	121	84.6	8	5.6	14	9.8
The practical component in technical curriculum is well used	158	48	72	21.9	109	33.1	110	76.9	20	14	13	9.1
Little attention is given to link training and industries or workplace	179	54.4	64	19.5	86	26.1	44	30.8	40	28	62	43.4
The training consists of 75% practice	56	17	54	16.4	234	71.1	92	64.3	14	9.8	37	25.9
The training consists of 25% theory	83	25.2	48	14.6	198	60.2	76	53.4	12	8.4	55	38.5
Training focuses on technical skills only	158	48	55	16.7	104	31.6	52	36.4	26	18.9	66	46.2
Each training focuses on both technical skills and business skills	119	36.2	49	14.9	171	52	73	51	27	18.9	43	30.1

Note: % within respondent group

A comparative analysis of the approach of training delivery in Table 6.10 reveals a huge gap between public and private centres. With regard to public centres, managers, trainers and trainees were asked to indicate whether trainees had sufficient time to practice skills at the centre during training. Less than half (47.7%, 157/329) of the managers, trainers and trainees agreed and 42.9% (414/329) disagreed. In the private centres, the great majority of respondents

(84.6%, 121/143) agreed on the statement, while only 9.8% (14/143) disagreed. Less than half (48%, 158/329) of the public centre respondents agreed that the practical component in technical curriculum was well used; whereas 76.9% (110/143) of private centre respondents agreed with the statement. When asked about the specific attention given to the training, more than half (54.4%, 179/329) of the public centre respondents agreed that little attention was given to link training and industries or workplace in public or private sector and 26.1% (86/329) disagreed. Less than half (43.4%, 62/143) of private centre respondents disagreed and 30.8% agreed on the little attention given to the training link.

When asked about the time allocated between practice and theory, public centre respondents (71.1%, 234/329) disagreed that the training consisted of 75% practice; and 60.2% (198/329) also disagreed that the training consisted of 25% theory. This means that the skills training consists of 75% theory in classroom and 25% practice. However, for the private centre respondents, 64.3% (92/143) agreed that the training consisted of 75% practice in the workshops or projects and 53.4 (76/143) agreed that theory consisted of 25% in classrooms. Lastly, more than half (52%, 171/329) of public centre respondents disagreed that the training programmes focused on both technical skills and business skills; but more than half (51%, 73/143) of private centre respondents agreed with the statement.

Qualitative research findings based on the interviews, field observation and document analysis, shed more light on mode and approach of training delivery for skills acquisition. With regard to public centres, data reveal that the approach of training delivery for skills acquisition was traditional. Meaning, it was centre-based instead of being on-the-job training or a project-based training approach. The researcher could identify only one public centre in an urban area where working and learning were closely integrated. In others, be in rural or urban areas, this integrated approach was non-existent. As far as the approach of training delivery is concerned, findings reveal three inferences. The first is the lack of workshops which means that there was no balance in the training delivery system between theory and practice. In other words, the trainees had no extensive practicum under the supervision of an instructor.

The second is the lack of on-the-job training in firms, projects or businesses which means that the trainees did not have an opportunity to practice what they learnt in class in order to acquire more experience. The third is the lack of project-based training for the agriculture course which

means that a delivery system was not based on specific requirements for the development of an agricultural project. In rural areas, the agricultural technology course was taught without a chance of being either wage-employed or self-employed, but for the purpose of academic credit and a General Education and Training (GET) Certificate. It is a real blackboard agriculture training course. In three public centres offering agricultural technology, trainees expressed their anger to the researcher saying that the centres were producing frustrated and unemployed adults. One female in a group of public centre trainees reported:

I have been a domestic worker for seven years now. As you can see around in our township, there are so many farms belonging to white people. They employ black people who have at least little knowledge in agriculture. When I decided to study agricultural technology at our AET centre, I was thinking to be employed in the farms like other women or start my own vegetable garden of tomatoes, carrots and cabbages so I can sell them to the shops such as Jwayelani, Checkout and Cambridge. During our training, the centre never took us to the farms in order to do practicals. We were taught some types of fertilisers, but I never saw them. The knowledge I have in planting vegetables is what I have learnt in classroom only. I cannot go and apply for a job to these farms because the managers do not know me and they do not recognise our centre. I feel bad because I have wasted a whole year studying agricultural technology and still remain a domestic worker.

A male trainee with disability angrily spoke on behalf of his class mates as follows:

We have agreed all learners [trainees] to meet you and ask some questions. In your papers you ask about starting a business after completing our skills training, our current types of small business and support we received from our AET centre. We have finished our exams but we do not know that our centre was supposed to help us to start a small business and get loan from banks. We are poor and unemployed; please tell people of the department in Maritzburg [KZN-Department of Education in Pietermaritzburg] that we appreciate the free adult education, but they should help us find jobs in these farms around here or give us lands for garden projects.

It was also observed that the pressure for more academic and examination-oriented training was another factor affecting skills acquisition in the public centres. They strictly follow the standardised curricula designed by the Department of Education. The trainers had to prepare the trainees for departmental final examination appropriate for AET level-4, in which they generally do well. During the interview, managers were asked to describe the programme structure and approach which have been designed to meet the training objectives. One of the public centre managers said:

In the skills training areas, for example in travel and tourism subject, they [trainees] study theory in class, and on practical side of it they go to the travel and tourism centre to get more knowledge about the industry. The objective is that in case they can enrol to FET colleges for further studies, they must be able to understand what it is all about.

Beside the examinations, the approach is also aimed to prepare trainees for further studies at FET Colleges. These two aims resulted in the centres limiting the training approach to theory in the classroom. When asked about how the centres integrated entrepreneurship skills with the technical training content, all interviewed public centre managers responded that there was not enough time to teach theory and practice at the same time because trainees must be ready for departmental examinations. It is significant to mention that the public centres operate alongside the formal education system. The implication is that trainees were learning a ‘skills training programme’ only for examination purposes.

Qualitative research findings further revealed that the training programmes in most of the public centres were for a certificate, not for self-employment. It was evident from field observations that skills training programmes in the public centres served a dual purpose: self-employment for older trainees and a national certificate for youths. In the case of youths, some graduates residing in the cities gained access to FET colleges. These trainees placed a great emphasis on gaining the certificates, and the trainers taught aspects covered in the official examinations. By so doing, trainers were overlooking the training approach for a self-employment objective of the older trainees. Interviews revealed that older trainees were unable to go to the FET Colleges because of their advanced age and family responsibilities.

However, it was observed that there is in both public and private centres an aspect of good practice unique for an ancillary health care course only. The training course does not require the centre to have workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training. According to 47.6% (10/21) of managers whose centres were offering ancillary health care course, trainees used to go to a nearest clinic to do some practical work. For instance, they could test people with diabetes, check their blood sugar levels; help people who have diseases by caring for them and making them aware of the danger of these diseases. The point of similarity between public centres and private centres is on the use of a pre-employment approach. This means that the centres are not in close relationship with enterprises for on-the-job training purposes.

However, the private centres differed with their counterpart in many aspects of training delivery approaches. In the majority of private centres, the field observation and interviews revealed that the approach of training delivery was practice-oriented; it consisted of 75% practice (see Table 6.10 above). Since most of the trainees had a low formal education level, the use of workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training are very important for skills acquisition. This means that there is a balance between theory in class and practice in the workshops or field work. The approach of training delivery for skills acquisition is practice and self-employment oriented (see Chapter 7 sections 7.4.2 and 7.6). During interviews, the private centre managers highlighted common elements of the training approach which were designed and implemented to meet the training objectives. For the purpose of training effectiveness in private centres, skills training follows a sequential pattern starting with pre-counselling sessions, followed by technical skills training, business skills training and ultimately trainees forming groups while being on the programme. The sequence in the training approach is described below as emerging themes of the interviews.

Pre-counselling sessions are used at the beginning phase of the skills training sessions in order to identify the potential and learning objectives of a trainee. One manager whose centre offers SMME training stated the purpose of these sessions as follows:

The sessions help us recruit the right trainees on the programme. We cannot take in [the] programme any trainees without knowing what he/she wants to do or what type of business he/she is interested in. Basically, we inform them about our SMME training and the outcomes of the programme. As soon as a trainee or a group of

trainees decide to establish a small business or a co-operative, they undergo further training programmes.

Pre-counselling sessions also help the trainers to orient the training approach according to future types of self-employment. Interviews with managers and trainers of some private centres revealed that the courses start off with an introductory period. During this phase, trainers become aware of what each individual trainee knows about the specific skills training, his/her training needs and life expectations. In the case of the centre training in business entrepreneurship, this phase consists of informing trainees about SMME training and the outcomes of the programme. After establishing a small business or a co-operative, they undergo business skills trainings relating to the type of the micro-enterprise, and writing of a business plan. For the centres focussing on technical skills training, this phase consists of making trainees acquainted with hand tools, materials and the basic elements of the principal products in the trade.

Technical skills training: During this phase much attention is paid to progressive skills acquisition in order to ensure the proper development of skills. The approach entails achievement of a good balance between theory in class and practice in the workshops or field work (gardens). The theoretical component of the technical skills training consists of introduction to hand tools, machines and their use; measuring instruments and their use, and safety precautions. For the sewing programmes there are usually a number of electrical machines as well as industrial machines. Trainees also learn to use and maintain the equipment and make drawings and patterns. The training dolls are available to the trainees to use and learn how to design different styles of fashions. While spending more than five hours in the classroom and in workshops, the researcher observed that the theoretical approach to the learning with materials and tools in hand helped to create competition among trainees who were mostly women, to improve their creativity and their interest in the skills. In agriculture, trainees learnt about the use of different tools and chemicals in small agricultural projects.

The examination of the training syllabuses revealed that some private centres imitate the formal training institutions whereby trainees are confronted with a well-prepared package of knowledge and skills. They use accredited syllabuses from the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) and the Sectoral Education Training Authority (SETA) in fashion design and sewing,

and computer training courses. In the interviews, the managers were asked whether their centres were implementing any inclusive Competency-Based Training (CBT) package and to describe major activities in the package designed to ensure that each of the training objectives is attained. Below are the responses of two managers providing fashion design and sewing, and computer training courses, emphasising the use of inclusive Competence-Based Training packages. Private centre manager 1 said:

Yes, we do have a learning programme subdivided into competence learning areas. It is a professional programme for sewing and fashion designing. Also we have a sort of a time table. For instance, for each month we allocate learning activities such as a proper use of the sewing machine and its maintenance, cutting the materials, designing a fashion, and so forth.

Private centre manager 2 said:

We do have the Competency-Based Training package because we used SAQA accredited programme. The curriculum we use is from SAQA. There are three different levels for both computer training and fashion design and sewing courses. Each level has a source material from SAQA with an identity number.

The quotes imply that the approach of internal training delivery for skills acquisition in private centres is aimed at enabling and ensuring that trainees acquire knowledge, practical skills and competencies to perform a task, job or occupation to a benchmarked level. With regard to the integration of theoretical and practical components of the skills training, the interviews and field observations revealed three significant approaches to adult skills acquisition. These approaches are the use of workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training.

The use of workshops: In the case of sewing and fashion design, and craft training programmes, the trainees had extensive practicum under the supervision of an instructor. It is even estimated that trainees were spending up to a maximum of 75% of their training time in these practical training workshops. The researcher used to meet the trainers and trainees in the respective practical training workshops for the survey. For the computer training, a manager mentioned that, “Trainees come to the centre from Monday to Friday to be trained by a trainer;

but on Saturdays they have to practice alone what they have learnt the whole week.” (Private centre manager, interview: 29/11/2013).

On-the-job training: Some private centres were using their practical training workshops and equipment for skills training purposes and a source of production. As part of their practice and in-job-training, the trainees are involved in the production for the centre. They receive orders from schools to sew for learners and company and school workers’ uniforms. Thus, trainees were part-time paid and employed in the workshops while learning. Though trainees were not linked to any companies, factories or business for external training, this approach gave them the opportunity to practice what they learnt in classrooms and to acquire more experience and income in being casually employed by the centre.

Project-based training (for agriculture course): In two private centres in rural areas the delivery system is based on specific requirements for the development of agricultural projects such as gardens, poultry and co-operatives while in training. These projects serve as field work for practical training and at the same time are a source of financial income for both the centre and the trainees.

Business skills training: In the case of the most of private centres offering technical skills training in tailoring, handcraft, agricultural technology, poultry and co-operatives, the provision of business skills training was at the end of the programme. In other words, teaching business skills follows on the technical skills training. The training is aimed at empowering individual trainees to be creative and self-reliant after graduation. When they have acquired technical skills, the centres train them in how to start and manage a business relative to the area of technical skills training. Business skills training entails teaching basic knowledge in entrepreneurship, bookkeeping, simple business management, marketing, financial management and a business plan.

However, managers reported that business skills training was not formally or well-integrated with technical skills from the designing to the implementation phase. During interviews, all managers were asked to explain how they were integrating entrepreneurship skills with the technical training content. One private centre manager summarised this effort as follows:

Our programme consists of providing them with technical skills in first stage; then the business skills training in order for them to acquire knowledge on how to manage their small businesses and market the products in the local community and elsewhere. But as they are on technical skills training, we keep them informed about business opportunities and business marketing. We make sure that they are well-informed about the competition in the market. Therefore, they must try their best to sew good quality products which will be very marketable compared to others in the community. At last stage of the training, they attend [a] three-day workshop on business marketing.

Another private centre manager explained the integration context of her centre in the following words:

I think that there is no formal integration between entrepreneurship skills with the technical training content. That is because when trainees start the technical skills, they are also taught the business skills at the same time. But the business training is still informal which means it is not well-integrated as it should be. At the end of the training, trainees are able to make business plan and marketing strategies for their small businesses. We also train BEST game (business economic support training). It is a programme we use to teach our trainees small business entrepreneurship. We teach them bookkeeping, business records and costing which is the key that has been implemented during the mentoring programme.

The overall findings from private centre managers reveal that there is still a problem on how to integrate the technical skills with business skills. There is uncertainty thus to present the business training integrated with the technical skills training versus separately; thus following the technical skills as a separate course. On the other hand, most of the private centre managers preferred to integrate the technical and business skills training at the same time. Still others preferred to send their trainees to the Business Development Services (BDS) for special business training. Similar to the private centre managers, half of public centre managers interviewed were of the opinion that there was a great need of formally integrating the technical skills with business skills from designing to implementation phases in order to maximise the impact of the NFET on self-employment. The implication is that all managers involved in the study viewed

the importance of business skills as a means of creating sustainability of the technical skills acquired.

These findings were similar with another private centre specifically focusing on entrepreneurship training. The manager explained the approach of training delivery for skills acquisition by saying:

To develop entrepreneurs, we assess their objectives and type of informal business, then they undergo an informal skills training in business. We train them in business management and planning, and financial management. We train them how to articulate business plan and present it to the funders. Basically, we train those whose focus is on micro-enterprise, small business and co-operative. The centre provides a template that they can fill in according to the type of each individual's small business. In case of a co-operative, they need to write a constitution which will be submitted to the registration office and funders.

The training programme entailed the provision of extensive and practical knowledge in business venture, bookkeeping, business management, marketing, financial management and business plan. The implication of this findings is that the training programme was meant for those trainees who could start an own small business immediately during the middle phase.

Forming groups while being on the programme: Trainees at private centres were urged to start their micro-enterprises in groups or co-operatives. According to the managers, doing business in groups would help achieve the effectiveness of the skills training programmes in creating employment and in sustaining trainee's micro-enterprises. In some types of training such as handcraft, forming a group before the training sessions start was a requirement for enrolment in the programme. In other programmes such as sewing, SMME and agricultural technology, trainees form groups in the middle phase of the programme or toward the end of the training programmes; but not after graduation. In the last two cases, one manager said:

To ensure that they are able to start a business, we urge them to form a group which will allow them to register as a co-operative. So, they start working as a group while

still being on the training programme. The income they gain is used for buying raw materials and a stipend.

Another private centre manager emphasised the relevance of already existing groups in the training:

With regard to craft, we take the existing craft groups in the community. They must be an existing group already functioning within the community for them to be considered for further training. Each one should already have a plan to start a craft business whether individually or in group. The aim is to provide craft skills or improve their existing ones. We also train them in business skills, such as marketing, business plan and financial management. The business skills enable them to start a small business while being on the training programme or immediately after graduation.

Forming business groups could be regarded as an approach of training delivery for skills acquisition in the private centres. Firstly, it could contribute to the sustainability of the skills learnt. Secondly, it helps trainees work in a collaborative way by forming a co-operative or partnership. Thirdly, according to three managers interviewed, it facilitates the drafting of a business plan required for business registration and funding because a group of entrepreneurs are more credible to funders than an individual.

In summary, quantitative research findings reveal that both public and private centres had insufficient attention to link training and industries. This was due to the type of trainings which were pre-employment or based on supply side. The skill training programmes are not placed at institution, firm or industry. But the training contents are determined by a specific skills competence of the micro-enterprises. With regard to public centres, the approach to adult skills training was predominantly theoretical (75% of the sessions). The trainees had no extensive practical sessions in the workshops, firms or projects. The result of this classroom-based approach would be that trainees could not acquire abilities they needed for immediate employment. However, in the private centres, the approach of training delivery was 75% practice-oriented. Since most of the trainees had low formal education levels, the use of workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training was very important for skills acquisition.

Qualitative research findings from the public centres revealed that the training approach could not provide skills and competencies required for a gainful wage-employment or self-employment. The majority of public centres did not take the practical aspect of training into consideration as the key focus of adult NFET. The practical skills training objective of adult NFET was diverted as a result of pressure for an academic and examination approach of training delivery. The outcome of this classroom-based approach was that trainees could not learn from their own experience and practice what they needed to learn for immediate employment. Thus, the approach the public centres use do not prepare most of the trainees for low-skilled employment nor starting own income-generating activities.

Qualitative research findings from private centres reveal that creating earning opportunities for trainees while being on training is one of the most significant findings. The analysis of the findings above shows that the training delivery for skills acquisition in the private centres was characterised by three main approaches for adult skills trainings. They are: ‘learning by doing, learning by producing and learning by earning’. Firstly, ‘learning by doing’ is a common approach used for adult training; it is also called experiential learning. In interviews, the private centres managers mentioned that it was enhancing the learning skills. Secondly, ‘learning by producing’ created a motivation in the trainees to master the skills and it enhanced a smooth transfer of the skills to the real world of work.

Thirdly, ‘learning by earning’ was vital to the many trainees because of their socio-economic background. They have been coming from very poor families, some have never been employed before; some were homeless, single mothers and some were disabled. Therefore, they were in urgent need of an income for daily survival ‘here and now’. Certain private centres were using training equipment and materials to help trainees earn an income. The centres were using the projects or workshops for didactic purpose and a way of engaging adult trainees in suitable income-generating activities.

The effectiveness of the training delivery environment contributing to skills acquisition was also measured through the mode of training assessment and certification at the end of the training programmes. The training assessment and certification consists of determining the

extent the trainees have acquired knowledge, practical skills and competencies to perform a task, job or occupation to a benchmarked level. It will next be discussed.

6.4.2.3 Assessment and certification

Only centre managers were asked to indicate the strategies used to conduct final assessment and certification to the trainees. As far as the skills training programme is concerned and its accreditation, the survey data revealed that none of the centres use a workplace certification conducted by an external company. Only one private centre (4.8%) assessed the trainees by a workplace assessment conducted by a certification body namely the Sectoral Education and Training Authority (SETA). Private centre training in ancillary health care had its trainees tested using a professional assessment conducted by an organisation of employers. The rest of the private centres (38.1%, 5/21) had no recognised certification. For the private centres that do not have a recognised certification, their graduates receive certificates of attendance issued by the respective centre at a graduation ceremony.

However, for all public centres (71.4%, 15/21), training certification is provided by the Umalusi Council which issues to graduates General Education and Training Certificates (GETC). Umalusi is an accreditation body for Quality Assurance guided by the National Qualifications Act 67 of 2008. Umalusi assesses adult centre trainees through written examinations. It does not use workplace environments or practical assessments in the form of the trade test system in the Republic of South Africa. Umalusi provides GETC just to facilitate graduates' access to further education and training at FET colleges. Information provided by public centre managers, trainers and trainees revealed that the GETC does not help trainees find wage-employment in the public sectors, mostly in urban and peri-urban areas.

With regard to the assessment and certification, it appears that a lack of accredited skills training certification is a disabling factor for skills utilisation in the labour market. It may hinder trainees to be considered for wage-employment by prospective employers in the informal sector. Yet, it may be helpful for them to get access to wage-employment in the informal micro-enterprises (IMEs) sector for the purpose of gaining work experience before they become self-employed. Furthermore, it may help self-employed trainees to get customers' credibility in their small business.

This sub-section analysed the components of internal enabling environments which are the human and material resources, mode and approach of internal training delivery for skills acquisition and the assessment and certification. The next sub-section on skills training and internal enabling environments for skills acquisition will look at the effectiveness of the training delivery environments.

6.4.3 Effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment

To assess the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment, trainees, managers and trainers were asked for their general opinion on the skills acquisition by the trainees. To this end, the assessment of skills acquisition on courses focused on two main indicators, namely, the ability of trainees to work for others without supervision, and business skills knowledge.

6.4.3.1 Skills acquisition by the trainees

Both current and past trainees were asked to mention the extent to which they have gained the knowledge, skills and competencies necessary to work for others without supervision. The question was also applicable to current trainees because the data collection process occurred at the completion of the training programme. The responses indicated that 27.86% (117/420) of trainees felt very able to work without supervision, 45.71% (192/420) were able; 19.05 (80) were fairly able and only 7.38% (31) of them were not able. From the trainees' point of view, the finding is that 73.57% (272/420) of the trainees felt confident (very able and able) of acquiring skills and that they could work for somebody without supervision.

However, this high extent of the acquired skills (73.57%) should be viewed with caution because in most of the centres the trainees were not tested using practical methods of assessments to determine the level of competence at benchmark. As seen in sub-section 6.4.2.3 above (Assessment and certification), none of the centres used workplace certification conducted by an external company. Only one private centre (4.8%) assessed the trainees by a workplace assessment conducted by a certification body namely Sectoral Education and Training Authority (SETA). In this case it is difficult to conclude that the great majority of the trainees were able to work without supervision after graduation.

6.4.3.2 Business skills and knowledge

In both public and private centres, some trainees studied SMME as a course on its own as part of business skills training. Yet others, in the case of most of the private centres offering technical skills training in tailoring, handicraft, agricultural technology, poultry and co-operatives, the provision of business skills training was taught alongside with technical skills or at the end of the training programmes (see sub-section 6.4.2.2 above). Therefore, all trainees, managers and trainers were asked about the new entrepreneurship skills and legal aspects of business that they felt the trainees gained from the training programmes. The question sought to investigate the extent to which trainees have gained the knowledge, skills and competencies necessary for managing small businesses individually or in a team. The responses are presented in Table 6.11 below.

Table 6.11: Business skills acquisition by types of the centres (n=472)

Business skills and knowledge	Public(KZN-AET) n=329						Private(NPO, CBO, FBO) n=143					
	Good		Average		Poor		Good		Average		Poor	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
To start/ grow a business	194	59	77	23.4	57	17.3	83	58	32	23.4	19	13.3
Managing a business	166	50.5	94	28.6	98	29.8	86	60.1	27	18.9	21	14.7
Making use of entrepreneurs' network	123	37.7	117	35.6	88	26.7	58	40.6	49	34.3	29	20.3
Marketing of business	117	35.6	111	33.7	80	24.3	77	53.8	27	18.9	33	23.1
Legal part of business registration	81	24.6	85	25.8	165	50.2	52	36.4	23	16.1	59	41.3
Financial management	115	35	86	26.1	25	7.6	68	47.6	30	21	36	25.2

Note: % within type of the centre

It appears from Table 6.11 that starting or growing a business and managing a business were the highest skills acquired after the training programmes. Yet the legal part of business registration and financial management were the lowest rated knowledge and skills. Moreover, the private centres had higher scores on acquiring business skills and knowledge. The reason may be that they conduct skills training for income-generating activities to enable trainees to become micro-entrepreneurs. To this end, they teach most of the business skills and knowledge. The very low scores on making use of the entrepreneurs' network (37.7%, 123/329), marketing of business (35.6%,117/329) and financial management (35%, 115/329) by the public centres implies that

most of their trainees have a low level of competence necessary for managing small businesses individually or in teams.

In this study, the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment was measured firstly by technical and business skills acquisition; secondly by skills utilisation in the wage- or self-employment of the trainees. The effectiveness of skill acquisition was presented above; in the existence of the centre linkages, it would lay a foundation of post-training activities of NFET graduates in the labour market which will next be discussed.

6.4.4 Post-training activities of NFET graduates in the labour market

Exploring post-training activities of the graduates in the labour market was a paramount focus of the study. As it was revealed earlier (see sub-section 6.4.1.2), trainees entered the training programmes with very high expectations of finding a job or opening an own small business. Even for the centre managers, the main objective of the training programmes is to successfully integrate the skilled adults in the labour market. Chart 6.10 below presents the findings on wage-employment and self-employment of the trainees. Findings on how the centres helped ex-trainees to become wage-, or self-employed will be presented in the next chapter.

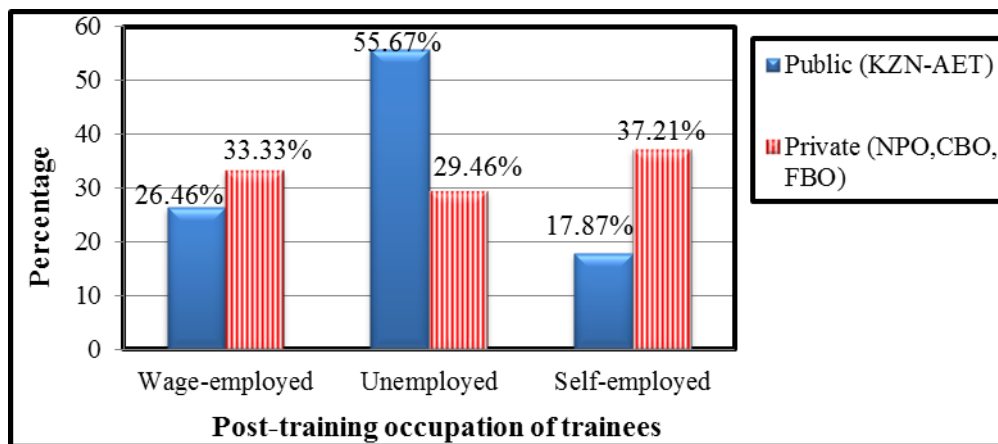


Chart 6.10: The wage- and self-employment of the trainees by types of the centres

Note: % within type of the centre

There is a significant difference between public and private centres in terms of employment outcomes of the trainees. It is evident from Chart 6.10 that those trainees in the private centres were more likely to become employed (70.54%, 91/129) as compared to public centres (44.33%,

129/291). Similarly, the unemployment rate after graduating from skills training was higher in public centres (55.67%, 162/291) and lower in private centres (29.46%, 38/129). It was noted earlier (section 6.2.2) that the great majority of public centres trained for wage-employment. However, the finding in Chart 6.10 reveals the contrary. The wage-employment (33.33%) and self-employment (37.21%) were again higher in the private centres. The probability of being employed after completing adult education and training was high in private centres because of the main focus on self-employment or income-generating activities in micro-enterprises. In other words, individual trainees who participated in the private centres had a higher probability of being employed.

The link between the distribution of types of work before training and post-training occupations of the trainees was determined with the purpose to assess the effectiveness of both the internal training delivery environment for skills acquisition and the external environment in fostering the utilisation of skills in the labour market. The distribution of types of work before training by post-training occupations is presented in Table 6.12 below.

Table 6.12: The distribution of types of work before training by post-training occupations

Types of work before training	Wage-employed		Unemployed		Self-employed		Total (n=420)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Unemployed	45	21.84	120	58.25	40	19.41	206	49.04
Domestic worker	10	25	12	30	18	45	40	9.52
Full-time job	16	47.05	12	35.29	6	17.6	34	8.1
Part-time job	27	38.6	32	45.7	11	15.7	70	16.64
Contract worker	18	56.25	12	37.5	2	11	32	7.61
Farmer (Agric worker)	-	-	2	12.5	14	87.5	16	3.8
Paid gardener	2	40	3	60	-	-	5	1.19
Other	-	-	1	50	1	50	2	0.5

Note: % within type of work before training

The analysis of Table 6.12 reveals that for those trainees who were unemployed (49.04%, 206/420) before enrolling to the training programmes, 41.25% (85/206) became wage- or self-employed immediately after graduating from their respective adult centres. Many trainees reported to be in both wage- and self-employed at the same time, especially for those trained in the private centres. Some were wage-employed in the Department of Social Development, CBOs or NGOs; and having an own micro-enterprises at home. Since the adult training in KZN also targets the domestic workers, the findings show that 70% (28/40) of them became wage- or

self-employed after the training. The employment rate of 41.25% of previously unemployed trainees and 70% of domestic workers is significant in this study in view of the objectives of NFET in KZN. Thus, there is a possible link between adult training and aggregate employment. These findings suggest the increase of more skills training in the adult centres for unemployable and underemployed (domestic workers) citizens.

The employability of a trainee also depended on his/her main expectation after graduation. In this case, the expectation may also become an enabling or disabling environment for employment after graduation. The fact was observed in older trainees with family responsibilities and whose expectations impacted on their determination of achieving their objectives and visions. The findings in Table 6.13 below reveal that relationship.

Table 6.13: The post-training occupations by main expectation after graduating

Post-training occupations	To find job in public or private sector		To open an own small business		To continue with higher education		Total (n=420)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Wage-employed	58	32.4	16	13.91	46	4.76	120	28.57
Unemployed	101	56.42	35	30.43	64	50.79	200	47.61
Self-employed	20	11.17	64	55.65	16	12.69	100	23.8
Total	179	100	115	100	126	100	420	100

Note: % within main expectation after graduating

The examination of Table 6.13 shows that there is a relationship between the main expectation that a trainee had prior to the training programme and the employment outcome (post-training occupations). Matching the post-training activities of graduates in the labour market with their expectations, the analysis generated three results. Firstly, the wage-employment outcome was very low (32.4%, 58/179) among those who expected to find a job in the public or private sector after graduating. Secondly, the unemployment rate was high (56.42%, 101/179) among those who expected to find a job in the public or private sector. Thirdly, the employment rate was high (55.65%, 64/115) among those who expected to open an own small business. In combining the findings from Chart 6.10 and Table 6.13 above, the reality is that trainee individuals who participated in the private centres and who expected to become self-employed had a higher probability of starting a micro-enterprise or co-operative. They were involved in income-generating activities. Thus, there is a positive link between a self-employment outcome and the expectation of opening an own small business.

The relationship between a particular training course and employability of a trainee is presented in Table 6.14 below.

Table 6.14: The relationship between trainees' training courses and employability

Training courses	Wage-employed		Unemployed		Self-employed		Total (n=420)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Agricultural technology	18	15	67	55.83	35	29.17	120	28.57
Ancillary health care	63	40.38	75	48.08	18	11.54	156	37.14
SMME*	37	25.52	76	52.41	32	22.07	145	34.52
Travel and tourism	35	36.46	44	45.83	17	17.71	96	22.87
ICT*	15	20	50	66.67	10	13.33	75	17.85
Craft	19	39.58	19	39.58	10	20.83	48	11.42
Sewing and fashion	12	19.05	15	23.81	36	57.14	63	15
Poultry	2	11.11	-	-	16	88.89	18	4.28
Co-operative	2	11.11	-	-	16	88.89	18	4.28
Basic paramedic	-	-	-	-	1	100	1	0.23
Beauty training	-	-	-	-	1	100	1	0.23
Other	-	-	4	100	-	-	4	0.95

Note: % within trainee's skills training course

On an individual level, there was a strong link between a skills training course taken and employment outcomes. For those who trained in agricultural technology, the probability of being unemployed was 55.83% (67/120); in ancillary health care, it was 48.08% (75/156) with regard to unemployment as compared to 40.38 (63) of wage-employment. In SMME, 52.41% (76/145) of trainees were likely to be unemployed and in information and computer technology 66.67% (50/75). The probability of being self-employed was very high in sewing and fashion skills (57.14%, 36/63), in poultry (88.89%, 16/18) and co-operatives (88.89%, 16/18). The training programme in these later three courses was directly linked to income-generating activities in micro-enterprises or co-operatives. Thus, the employability of a trainee also depended on his/her training course.

In summary, the three main areas of focus of section 6.4 were on the assessment of different components of the internal training delivery environments; the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment of the NFET centres contributing to skills acquisition and the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment in terms of post-training activities of the graduates in the labour market. Firstly, in the internal training delivery environments, according to their different expectations, in quantitative research findings, the majority of the

trainees reported that the skills training was relevant to their needs and objectives. But in qualitative research findings with regard to public centres, the main finding on training content relevance is that the skills training was not relevant because the training programmes were not associated with practical components or on-the-job training in the field work. In addition, some of the training courses provided (particularly in peri-urban and rural areas) were not adequately linked to realistic job opportunities in the area.

The internal training delivery environments in public centres are challenged by a lack of human and material resources. There is an inadequate supply of training tools and equipment. Only a few centres have training workshops and an agricultural project for training purposes. Trainers are well-qualified in adult education and training, but lack practical skills as related to the industry or business. As result, trainers focus more on theoretical training in the classroom, and hence there is a high probability to contribute to a lack of competence in practical skills acquisition. However, to overcome this problem, the private centres, are using part-time instructors who are contracted for the duration of the course.

The approach of training delivery for skills acquisition in the public centres is centre-based. The delivery mechanism does not closely link the training to the world of work, thus is not able to provide skills and competencies required for a gainful employment or self-employment. The training approach is not suitable for skills acquisition and cannot provide skills for a gainful wage-employment or self-employment. However, the approach of training delivery for skills acquisition in the private centres is based on self-employment. It constitutes an enabling environment because it is practice-oriented and consists of a 75% practical component and is based on the use of workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training.

Secondly, on the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environments contributing to skills acquisition, trainees reported to have gained the knowledge, skills and competencies necessary to work for others without supervision in wage- or self-employment. The majority of trainees acquired the business skills knowledge necessary for starting or growing a business and managing a small business. However, the training programmes had very little focus on the legal part of business registration and financial management. With regard to the public centres, the impediment resided on low acquisition of skills in making use of entrepreneurs' network, marketing of business and financial management. It is an indication that most of their trainees

have gained a low level of competence necessary for managing small businesses individually or in teams.

Thirdly, on the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environments in terms of post-training activities in the labour market, the trainees in the private centres were more likely to become employed as compared to public centres. This is because in the private centres the main focus was on self-employment or income-generating activities in the micro-enterprises. Similarly, the unemployment rate after graduating from skills training programmes was higher in public centres. The most significant change in the employment status of the previously unemployed respondents was in the number of trainees starting their own small businesses and thus becoming self-employed rather than being job seekers. In order to determine whether there had been a change in the benefits from skills training, the trainees' original expectations prior to training intervention and the result after graduating were compared. The wage-employment outcome was very low and the unemployment rate was high among those who expected to find a job in the public or private sector. Nonetheless, the wage- and self-employment rates were high among those who expected to start an own small business.

6.5 Summary

This chapter presented the research findings by focusing on the internal enabling environments of NFET centres in fostering trainees' employment in KwaZulu-Natal by presenting a detailed comparative analysis of public and private NFET centres. These two types of NFET centres were investigated in terms of their profile, socio-economic characteristics of the trainees, training delivery internal environment for skill acquisition, the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment for skills acquisition and post-training activities of NFET graduates in the labour market. From the data analysis and interpretations, a number of findings emerge. Considering the wide context of the internal enabling environments of the centres contributing to skills acquisition, the chapter reveals five major findings.

Firstly, the selection criteria and training objectives constitute an enabling environment on the side of private centres, and disabling environment in public centres. Private centres only admitted to the programme those who had planned to start a small business because the training was linked to the future establishment of a small business, either as an individual or in groups.

However, most of the public centres enroll trainees through manifesting interest and willingness to complete the training programme. Another disabling environment factor concerns the disagreement on objectives for both public centres and trainees. The majority of public centres focus on wage-employment after a trainee has completed FET college training; whereas adults with family responsibilities want to become self-employed immediately after graduation.

Secondly, most of the centres consult trainees for their training needs before enrolment. Nonetheless, the training needs assessment had two substantial weaknesses. It is mostly based on trainees' interest in the type of the training, and not on felt needs for income or for the survival of the family. Furthermore, it does not consider closing the gap between the felt needs on one side, and trainee's knowledge, experience and understanding of the opportunities of employment, on the other.

Thirdly, the training delivery internal environments are weakened by a lack of human and material resources, albeit more in public centres than in private centres. In public centres, trainers are well-qualified in adult education and training, but lack practical skills as related to the specific training course and real world of work. However, to overcome this problem, the private centres are using part-time trainers who are contracted to facilitate a specific course. In addition, in the case of public centres, the training courses are relevant but the design and implementation fail to respond effectively to the self- or wage-employment needs of the trainees. As a result, some of the training courses provided (particularly in the peri-urban and rural areas) are not adequately linked to realistic job opportunities in the area. For the private centres, the design and implementation plan could be adjusted along the training delivery.

Fourthly, the approach of training delivery environment for skills acquisition in the public centres is more focused on theoretical skills training than practical skills in workshops, meaning it is centre-based. The delivery mechanism does not closely link the training and the world of work. Thus, the training delivery environment is not conducive for the majority of the public centres to provide trainees with practical skills to establish micro-enterprises or co-operatives. However, in the private centres, the approach of training delivery environment for skills acquisition is practically oriented. It is based on workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training. At the same time it is characterised by three main elements namely: 'learning by doing, learning by producing and learning by earning'.

Fifthly, with regard to the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environment in terms of post-training activities of NFET graduates in the labour market, at individual level, there is an association between skills training and employment outcomes. Those trainees who were unemployed (49.04%, 206/420) before enrolling to the training programmes, 41.25% (85/206) became wage- or self-employed immediately after graduating from their respective adult centres. The analysis of the post-training occupations after graduation reveals that 28.57% (120/420) of trainees have become wage-employed, 23.8% (100/420) of the trainees have become self-employed and 47.61% (200/420) of the trainees were still unemployed during the data collection period. The probability of being employed after completing adult NFET is higher in private centres because of the main focus on self-employment or income-generating activities in micro-enterprises. However, trainees in the private centres are more likely to become employed (70.54%, 91/129) as compared to public centres (44.33%, 129/291).

These findings on the internal enabling environments of NFET centres imply that the final outcome of adult skills training programmes depends to a large extent on the delivery environment - irrespective of the goal pursued by a centre, whether wage-employment or self-employment. The findings also reveal that some skills programmes for self-employment are implemented without matching training delivery environments and the focus of the training programme (whether for wage-or self-employment).

Empirical findings on the NFET centres' internal enabling environments presented in this chapter revealed the status of the foundation phase of adult education and training for employment for skills acquisition. The internal enabling environments should provide linkages central to the second phase of adult and education training for employment which is skills utilisation in wage- or self-employment within external environments. Therefore, the next chapter will focus on the external enabling environments in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage- or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal.

CHAPTER SEVEN

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS ON NFET CENTRES' EXTERNAL ENABLING ENVIRONMENTS FOR EMPLOYMENT

7.1 Introduction

The chapter complements the previous Chapter Six. It focusses on the external enabling environments in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal at macro-level. The chapter aims to answer the following research questions: How effective is the external environment in fostering links for skills utilisation in the wage-employment or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal? To what extent do the external enabling and disabling environments influence the graduates entering the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal? How can the disabling environments be improved to contribute to the coordinated efforts for wage-employment and/or self-employment capacity of NFET's graduates?

The data presentation, analysis and interpretation follow the same procedure outlined in the introduction of Chapter Six. The data presented in this chapter was gathered using a mixed data collection methods both, quantitative survey and qualitative (one-on-one semi-structured interviews, field observations and document analysis). The quantitative data was generated from 420 trainees, 21 centre managers and 31 trainers. The qualitative data was generated from one-on-one semi-structured interviews with five centre managers and six self-employed trainees; field observations and document analysis. The one-on-one semi-structured interviews also provided data which helped the researcher to constitute two categories of case studies; one for a comparative analysis between public and private NFET centres, and another for success stories of five self-employed trainees.

The rest of the chapter is divided into five main sections which are organised according to the relevant sections in the survey questionnaire (sections 2-5). Section 7.2: *The effectiveness of the external environment in fostering the utilisation of skills into employment*, deals with wage-employment of the trainees and self-employment of the trainees. Section 7.3: *Transforming external environment fostering the utilisation of skills into employment* focusses on analysing different centres' institutional linkages. Section 7.4: *A comparative analysis of enabling*

environments of public and private NFET centres, looks at case studies from public and private centres. Section 7.5: *The enabling/disabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market*, analyses the legal and regulatory environments for NFET, the SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises, small business registration and licensing, the access to credit and financial services, the access to Business Development Services and information, and the access to business premises. Section 7.6: *Success stories of five self-employed trainees*, wraps-up the internal and external enabling and disabling environments fostering links for skills utilisation in self-employment of NFET graduates.

7.2 The effectiveness of external environment in fostering the utilisation of skills into employment

Internal training delivery environment for skill acquisition is the first component of adult NFET for employment followed by post-training support for skills utilisation in the labour market. Though skills training by itself cannot create jobs, it was seen in Chapter Six, section 6.4 that an effective internal training delivery is fundamental for employment outcomes. The last subsection in the previous chapter (see 6.4.4) focussed on the effectiveness of the training delivery internal environment in terms of post-training activities of the graduates in the labour market. This section provides the findings on the effectiveness of the external environment in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal. It examines the enabling and disabling environments for the graduate trainees to enter into the labour market.

7.2.1 Wage-employment of the trainees

This section reports on the main area of wage-employment, means of getting jobs and post-training support for wage-employment. Given the scarcity of wage-employment in both the formal and informal sectors in KZN, it is crucial to first look at the type of labour markets accessible to trainees. This will be followed by examining the ways of getting access to those jobs and the post-training supports the trainees received in this regard.

7.2.1.1 Types of wage-employment of trainees by centre areas

Respondents who indicated that they were wage-employed trainees were asked to mention whether or not their current jobs were related to their respective skills training. The majority (72.35%, 89/123) of wage-employed trainees said “yes”, it was related to the training; and 27.64% said “no”, but the training helped in finding a job. The types of labour market where the graduates from NFET are likely to be employed according to the geographical areas are presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Distribution of types of wage-employment of trainees by centre areas (n=181)

Type of wage-employment	Urban (n=39)		Peri-urban (n=90)		Rural (n=51)		Total sample (n=181)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Working for someone in small business area	11	28.2	17	18.88	3	5.88	31	17.12
Working for someone in small service areas/ small enterprise	11	28.2	13	14.44	5	9.8	29	16.02
Working in big business area	-	-	17	18.88	1	1.96	18	9.94
Working in big services area	1	2.56	6	6.66	1	1.96	9	4.97
Working for government/public sector	6	15.38	14	15.55	21	41.17	41	22.65
Working for community-based organisation	10	25.64	23	25.55	20	39.21	53	29.28

Note: % within centre areas

Table 7.1 indicates that in the urban areas, only a few trainees (28.2%, 11/39) started working for someone in a small business or in small service areas (small enterprises). The chance of working for the government/public sector was very low (15.38%, 6/39). The probability of finding jobs in the peri-urban areas was very low; and only 25.55% (23/90) could be employed in community-based organisations. However, wage-employment chances increased in the rural areas for those who studied ancillary health care. Less than half (41.17%, 21/51) of trainees started working for the Department of Social Development, and 39.21% (20/51) respondents found jobs in community-based organisations. According to all managers in the rural areas, the reason for this increase of wage-employment was the insufficiency of social service delivery in the rural areas.

7.2.1.2 Means of getting jobs

It was reported in Chapter Six, section 6.4.4 (Post-training activities of NFET graduates in the labour market) that some trainees found wage-employment after completing the training programmes. Among those trainees who were unemployed (49.04%, 206/420) before enrolling to the training programmes, 28.57% (120/420) have become wage-employed. Table 7.2 below presents the distribution of means of getting wage-employment.

Table 7.2: Distribution of means of getting wage-employment types of respondents

Means of getting jobs	Trainees (n=130)		Managers & trainers (n=52)		Total (n=182)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I owned a small business	9	6.92	5	9.61	14	7.69
The training centre arranged a placement	23	17.69	5	9.61	28	15.38
Through a friend	31	23.84	12	23.07	43	23.62
My own efforts	35	26.92	14	26.92	49	26.92
Through an employment agency	12	9.23	5	9.61	17	9.34
Through newspaper advertisements	16	12.3	11	21.15	27	18.83
Other	4	3.07	-	-	4	2.19
Total	130	100	52	100	182	100

Note: % within group

The quantitative data in Table 7.2 show that only 15.38% (28/182) of total respondents reported that trainees find wage-employment through training centre job placement. The overall result from the responses is that 26.92% (49/182) of trainees could find jobs by their own efforts and 23.62% (43/182) being connected through a friend. It is evident from the findings that in all centres involved in the study, there were no mechanisms utilised by the training centres to assist graduates with finding wage-employment.

The qualitative data below provide explanations on the difficulties of training centres to find wage-employment opportunities for trainees. During one-on-one interviews, managers were asked about the effectiveness of the NFETs linkages with local business enterprises and NGOs in enabling trainees to find wage-employment. Four out of five public and private centre managers interviewed reported that the centre linkages with role players were not effective in

fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment of graduates. One private manager reported a connection with fostering wage-employment of graduates:

We have got linkages with social networks. Our adult centre belongs to a forum called PCB (Pietermaritzburg Chamber of Business) and NGOs. But employment opportunity is so bad here in Pietermaritzburg. These linkages are not helping trainees to get jobs.

Another public manager added:

It is very difficult for our AET learners to get jobs. Sometimes the employers advertise jobs in the newspapers for AET learners. Our learners did apply by submitting CV. But no one was taken for any job.

The implication of these two statements is that both public and private managers were striving to create linkages for wage-employment. However that is in vain because of the scarcity of jobs and low level of skills. The analysis of these quotes reveals that because of the scarcity of wage-employment, the centre managers could not collaborate with government departments, agencies concerned, private institutions and various stakeholders to create enabling environments for the utilisation of the trainees' skills learnt in the labour market.

Two private centre managers were optimistic in creating effective linkages for wage-employment with prospective employers. One private centre manager said that prospective employers promised to consider some graduates for job interviews. She reported that:

We always call for people who are members of institutions and organisations to come and see our training programmes and the types of skills we provide to our adult trainees. They observe the performance of our trainees on the types of skills and the quality of their products. Then, we advocate on behalf of them [trainees] to the prospective employers by saying that after the completion of the training programme, please come to interview some of the trainees and employ those who qualify for the available offers the agency, enterprises, organisation or business may have. We are very confident with our trainees because at the completion of the training programme

they will be well qualified to be employed for the low-skilled jobs in any institution or organisation. We believe that these departments and organisations will place our trainees in the post after completion.

Another private centre manager mentioned:

We are in very good network with the Departments of Education, Health and Social Development. They always come here and see what we do. They always inform the centre when there are some vacancies in the Department so that our trainees may apply for the jobs. Since we are training disabled people, our trainees will be the first called for interviews.

Despite the job scarcity in the communities, these two quotes indicate that private centre managers were using a strategy of inviting institutions, organisations and prospective employers to visit the centres in order to interact with the trainees. At the time of data collection it was too early to determine the outcomes of the institutional linkages. However, there was no agreement of partnership for employment formally signed between these private centres and the role-players.

7.2 .1.3 Post-training support for wage-employment

As mentioned in Chapter Six (sub-section 6.4.2.2), trainees have been coming from very poor families, some have never been employed before; were homeless, single mothers and some were disabled. Therefore, they were in urgent need of an income for daily survival after graduation. Table 7.3 below indicates responses from trainees, managers and trainers on the types of post-training supports for wage-employment by type of the centres provided and the training received from the centres.

Table 7.3: Post-training support for wage-employment by type of centres

Post-training supports		Public (KZN-AET), n=329				Private(NPO,CBO), n=143			
		Trainees		Managers & Trainers		Trainees		Managers & Trainers	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Arranging opportunities for trainees to gain work experience	Agree	131	45.02	16	42.1	58	44.96	8	57.14
	Neutral	31	10.65	11	28.94	22	17.05	5	35.71
	Disagree	129	44.33	16	42.1	49	37.98	1	7.14
Assistance in job placement	Agree	51	17.52	10	26.31	53	41.08	7	50
	Neutral	41	14.08	8	21.05	10	7.75	6	42.85
	Disagree	199	68.39	20	52.63	66	51.16	1	7.14
Linking you with employers	Agree	34	11.69	15	39.47	27	20.93	3	21.42
	Neutral	34	11.69	9	23.68	28	21.71	6	42.85
	Disagree	223	76.63	14	36.84	74	57.37	5	35.71
Total sample (472)		291	-	38	-	129	-	14	-

Note: % within group

The analysis of Table 6.17 reveals a similarity of responses from both types of centres and respondent groups. Both categories of trainees and managers of public and private centres agreed to respectively receive or provide limited assistance in terms of arranging opportunities for trainees to gain work experience. Concerning assistance in job placement by public centres, 68.39% (199/291) trainees and 52.63% (20/38) managers and trainers disagreed that it was provided.

For the private centres, 51.16% (66/129) of trainees disagreed that assistance in job placement was not provided. But 41.08% (53/129) of trainees and 50% (7/14) of managers and trainers agreed that trainees were assisted with job placement. This means that the private centres provided assistance to half of the trainees who could approach the centre for post-training support. Moreover, in both public and private centres, post-training supports in linking trainees with employers was very limited. The majority (76.63%, 223/291) of public centre trainees and more than half (57.37%, 74/129) of trainees in private centres disagreed that the centres link trainees with employers. All five managers interviewed confirmed that there was no post-training support mechanisms utilised to assist trainee graduates with finding wage-employment.

7.2.2 Self-employment of the trainees

According to the findings mentioned in Chapter Six, sub-section 6.4.1.2, the major expectation to start an own small business was high among the older trainees, that is 36 years and above (42.2%, 81/192). These findings imply that self-employment is an option for poverty reduction when there is not wage-employment in the community. With regard to post-training activities of NFET graduates in the labour market, the findings show that out of those trainees who were unemployed (49.04%, 206/420) before enrolling for the training programmes, 23.8% (100/420) have become self-employed (cf. Chapter Six, section 6.4.4 and Table 6.13). Therefore, this section examines the types of small businesses and business ownership, source of start-up capital, challenges and post-training support for micro-enterprise development.

7.2.2.1 Types of small businesses and business ownership

Trainees were asked to mention the types of small business that graduates were mostly involved in. Since the researcher could not reach all self-employed trainees, it was important to ask the managers and trainers the types of small business their trainees were likely to start and manage successfully. The responses are presented in Table 7.4 below.

Table 7.4: The distribution of trainees' current types of small businesses (n= 195)

Types of small businesses	Trainees (n=147)		Managers & Trainers (n=48)		Total (n=195)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Small businesses area	63	42.85	15	31.25	78	40
Small services area	46	31.29	22	45.83	68	34.87
Agricultural projects	38	25.85	11	22.91	49	25.12
Total	147	100	48	100	195	100

Trainees were involved in three main types of small businesses after being trained by the respective centres. The analysis of Table 7.4 reveals that 42.85% (63/147) of trainees became entrepreneurs in small business areas such as tuck shops, food and co-operatives. The first motivation to venture into this type of small business was to become their own bosses (55.78%, 82/147). The second motivation according to 44.22% (84/147) of trainees was the fact that they were not qualified for other types of economic activities and could not find jobs anywhere else;

but they saw opportunities to initiate profitable businesses in the community. The other types of small businesses were small services areas. Trainee respondents (31.29%, 31/147) became entrepreneurs in the small services area mostly in tailoring micro-enterprises. This finding on the small services area was also confirmed by the managers and trainers (45.83%, 22/48). Very few trainees became involved in agricultural projects such as vegetable gardens and cooperatives farming. This is understandable in view of the fact that there is no practice training attached to training in agriculture projects as was discussed in Chapter Six, sub-section 6.4.2.2 (Mode and approach of internal training delivery for skills acquisition).

With regard to whether or not trainee's started small enterprise were related to the skills training programmes that they enrolled for at NFET centres, a great majority (91.83%, 135/147) said "yes" and only 8.16% (12/147) said "no". In addition, as presented in Chart 7.1 below, 71.42% (105/147) of the trainees were self-sole owners of the micro-enterprises. Yet, very few jointly worked with other trainees (19.42%) or spouses (8.62%). The business ownership of trainees is presented in Chart 7.1 below.

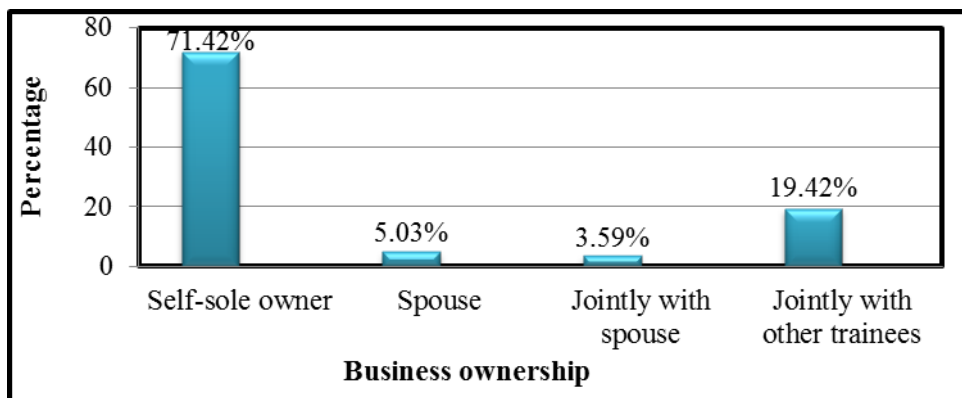


Chart 7.1: Business ownership (n=420)

7.2.2.2 Sources of start-up capital

The availability or provision of start-up capital is an element of enabling environments for self-employment. In Chapter Six, sub-section 6.3.2 findings revealed that more than half of the respondents (50.5%, 212/420) had been unemployed for more than five years, thus they were chronically poor. Furthermore, almost half (48.8%, 205/420) were not working during the time of application for skills training at adult centres (see Chapter Six, section 6.3.2, Table 6.6).

These facts support the findings that trainees need funds and equipment from Micro-Finance Institutions (MFIs) to start small businesses. Table 7.5 below presents the main sources of the start-up capital for small business.

Table 7.5: Sources for start-up capital for small business⁴

Source of start-up capital	Trainees		Managers & Trainers		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Own money (savings)	105	61.76	24	36.36	129	54.66
Stokvel	17	10	20	30.3	37	15.67
Spouse (husband or wife)	6	3.52	8	12.12	14	5.93
Gifts from parents/relatives	34	20	8	12.12	42	17.8
Organisation	2	1.18	2	3.03	4	1.7
Loans from bank or a friend	6	3.52	4	6.06	10	4.24
Total	170	100	66	100	236	100

According to the total respondents (trainees, managers and trainers) as reflected in Table 7.5, the major source of start-up capital was trainee's own money raised by savings (54.66%, 129/236). However, 61.79% (105/170) of the trainees reported to have started small with own money raised by savings. Only 3.25% (6/170) of trainees reported to have received loans from a bank or friends. Very few of them obtained start-up capital from relatives (20%, 34/170) or stokvel involvement (10%, 17/170). A lack of start-up capital from micro-finance institutions to start small businesses was a major challenge as more than half of the respondents (50.5%, 212/420) had been unemployed for more than five years, thus they were chronically poor.

Interviews with trainees and managers confirmed the quantitative findings on difficulties to find start-up capital. They reported that the lack of start-up capital is one of the major causes hindering trainees from starting micro-enterprises or progressing in small businesses after graduation. In this regard, two self-employed trainees reported the following:

⁴ Frequency in the above Table 7.5 was a multiple question and refers to the number of times each source of start-up capital was mentioned. Although few trainees, managers and trainers mentioned only one of the six sources of start-up capital, there were many who ticked more than one source of start-up capital.

Our training centre always organises workshops as a post-training assistance. We meet twice a year to attend a seminar on technology and marketing support. But as an entrepreneur, the type of support I need to improve my small business is business money. The most needed support is money to buy good quality machines and to purchase fabrics. By my own savings I cannot it is very hard to buy machines.

Business skills are not a problem because we were taught intensively how to manage a small business and finance. We also attended SEDA business plan workshop which took us about a month. During the training they used to give home work like at school. The only type of support I need is finance. The money I saved helped me buy the business equipment, materials and to pay five month rent of the room.

Two managers also reported the same financial challenge facing the trainees by saying:

A lack of start-up capital for our trainees is the real problem in self-employment. I thought the government was bringing in Khula [a Micro-Finance Institution] system which was meant to help the poorest of the poor. First of all they charge little percentage of interest. Since Khula was closed, it is now hard to get soft loan. As result, it is so hard to start a business. The main problem is that there is nowhere for the poorest of the poor to get start-up capital at reasonable interest rate.

Our trainees are keen to open small businesses. Educators are trained to teach entrepreneurship skills because they attend workshops organised by institution like Rotary Club and others. The problem resides on how to enable our trainees to start small businesses while there is no start-up capital.

As a solution to the lack of start-up capital, all five managers interviewed reported that the majority of those who succeeded to start a small business with their own money savings were working in the centres' workshops. Certain centres were using training equipment and materials to help trainees earn an income. This is the way trainees managed to save money during the training period and start a micro business. Thus, the mode and approach of training delivery in some centres has fostered both skills acquisition and self-employment by helping trainees save money for start-up capital (cf. Chapter Six, section 6.4.2.2). A significant finding from both quantitative and qualitative data is that, though these new micro-entrepreneurs were chronically

and absolutely poor and unemployed prior to the training programmes, they managed to save money to start an own business. However, despite own savings, self-employed trainees were still facing the financial challenge to sustain their small businesses. The lack of start-up capital from any other sources was one of the leading causes of small business stagnation or failure as the findings reveal in Chart 7.2 below.

7.2.2.3 Causes of business failure

Some graduate trainees reported that they had started small businesses but they failed due to various factors. Chart 7.2 below presents the causes of trainees’ business failure according to both types of centres. The responses are from trainees, managers and trainers grouped according to public and private centres.

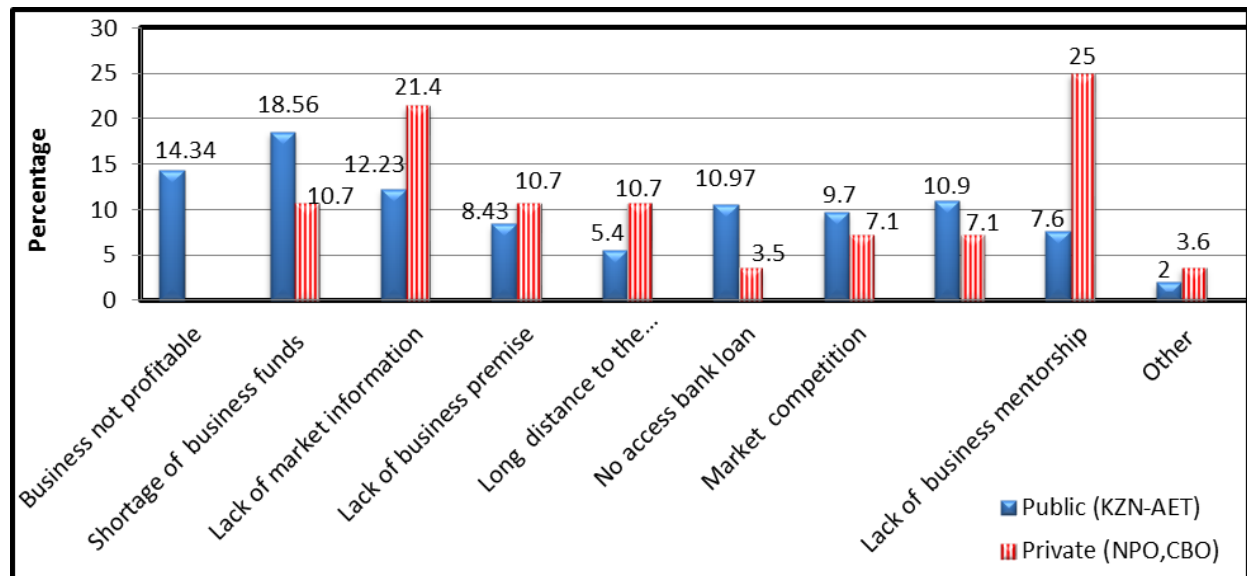


Chart 7.2: Causes of business failure by type of the centre

Firstly, in the public centres, the highest cause of business decline was the shortage of business funds (18.56%, 44/237). The next main cause was the fact that business was not profitable and little (14.34%, 34/237), followed by the lack of access to business market information (12.23%, 29/237), no access to credit services from banks which in turn impacted on insufficiency of materials for the small enterprise (10.97%, 26/237) and lack of business premise (8.43%, 20/237). Respondents (7.6%, 18/237) also expressed the lack of mentorship as a cause. Secondly, in the private centres, there were two main causes mostly mentioned namely the lack

of business mentorship (25%, 7/28) and access to business market information (21.42%, 6/28). The shortage of business funds (10.7%, 3/28) and lack of business premise (10.7%, 3/28) were equally important in the third instance. The findings reflect that there is a link between the causes of trainees' business failure and the type of centre.

In the open question in the respective questionnaires most of the suggestions on adult education and training programmes in KZN were related to the challenges trainees face in starting and developing small business. Table 7.6 below, report the main themes which emerged from the trainees' responses and which they regarded as important to sustain their small businesses.

Table 7.6: Themes for small business sustainability

No	Themes as suggested by trainees to sustain their businesses	n=106	%
1	Provision of start-up capital for small businesses after graduation	72	67.92
2	Provision of financial and material assistance in business	63	59.43
3	Partnering with banks to offer financial assistance	40	37.73
4	Training in small business loan application from the banks	57	53.77
5	Provision of marketing assistance to attract many customers	35	33.02
6	Provision of business guidance/mentorship	83	78.3

In the quantitative study one private centre manager commented on the lack of provision of business guidance/mentorship as cause of business failure as follows:

Small entrepreneurs are not remaining in the business after starting it because there is a lack of mentorship. In business sales depend on marketing of the business. Both sales and marketing depend on the customers. The reason why South Africa has such a poor record of SMME development is because there is very little mentorship of start-up business. We believe that every new business must have a mentorship programme for at least two or three years. A mentor is able to make a follow-up of the trainee's business. This will help him/her pay VAT and increase accountability.

Both quantitative and qualitative findings confirm that the shortage of business funds and lack of business mentorship or assistance were the two major causes of business failure. In interviews, three private centre managers and six self-employed trainees shed more light on the root causes of these two challenges. They reported three deficiencies in the skills training, namely poor quality of skills training provided by many adult centres in KZN; inadequate

follow-up on how trainees are implementing what they have learnt in the programmes, and insufficient knowledge of the entrepreneurship training.

The causes of business failure by type of the centre and suggestions by trainees for small business sustainability reflect a need of post-training support in business start-up and development. The next section examines the types of post-training support for micro-enterprise development trainees received from their respective centre and other external role-players.

7.2.2.4 Post-training support for micro-enterprise development

Some trainees could not start an own small business and others found it difficult to sustain theirs because of the factors presented in Chart 7.2 above. Table 7.7 below indicates responses from survey questionnaires on the types of support the trainees received from centres and other external role-players to enable them to start and develop their small businesses.

Table 7.7: Post-training support for self-employment by type of centres

Post-training support		Public (KZN-AET), n=329				Private (NPO,CBO), n=143			
		Trainees		Managers & Trainers		Trainees		Managers & Trainers	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Support in small business start-up	Agree	86	29.56	14	36.84	69	53.49	7	50
	Neutral	24	8.25	4	10.52	10	7.75	3	21.42
	Disagree	181	62.2	20	52.63	50	38.75	4	28.57
Support in accessing loans/credit	Agree	41	14.09	8	21.05	24	18.6	1	7.14
	Neutral	34	11.68	10	26.31	28	21.71	3	21.42
	Disagree	216	74.23	20	52.63	77	59.69	10	71.42
To grow my business	Agree	80	27.49	12	31.57	42	32.56	8	57.14
	Neutral	35	12.03	5	13.15	20	15.5	3	21.42
	Disagree	176	60.48	21	55.26	67	51.93	3	21.42
To operate my business on day to day basis	Agree	77	27.49	13	34.21	45	34.88	7	50
	Neutral	43	14.78	4	10.52	10	7.75	1	7.14
	Disagree	171	58.76	21	55.26	74	57.36	3	21.42
To compile a business plan	Agree	107	36.77	22	57.9	69	53.49	12	85.71
	Neutral	37	12.71	9	23.68	10	7.75	-	-
	Disagree	147	50.51	7	18.42	50	38.76	2	14.28
Assistance in business registration	Agree	60	20.62	10	26.31	44	34.11	4	28.57
	Neutral	39	13.4	7	18.42	13	10.08	6	42.85
	Disagree	192	65.98	21	55.26	72	55.81	4	28.57
	Agree	118	40.54	10	26.31	58	44.96	8	57.14

Connecting with other entrepreneurs	Neutral	12	4.12	2	5.26	13	10.08	3	21.42
	Disagree	161	55.32	26	68.42	58	44.96	3	21.42
Marketing assistance	Agree	83	28.52	11	28.95	51	39.53	9	64.28
	Neutral	37	12.71	8	21.05	12	9.3	1	7.14
	Disagree	171	58.76	19	50	66	51.16	4	28.57
Assistance in finding a business site	Agree	63	21.65	10	26.31	37	28.68	5	35.71
	Neutral	43	14.78	4	10.52	12	9.3	2	14.28
	Disagree	185	63.57	24	63.15	80	62.02	7	50
Technical assistance in business	Agree	66	22.68	11	28.95	27	20.93	8	57.14
	Neutral	41	14.09	6	15.78	12	9.3	2	14.28
	Disagree	184	63.23	21	55.26	90	69.77	4	28.57
Support in forming business groups	Agree	146	50.17	23	60.52	78	60.47	8	57.14
	Neutral	32	11	10	26.31	12	9.3	4	28.57
	Disagree	113	38.83	5	13.15	39	30.23	2	14.28
Assistance in forming co-operatives	Agree	103	35.39	13	34.21	73	56.59	9	64.28
	Neutral	33	11.34	4	10.52	8	6.2	2	14.28
	Disagree	155	53.27	21	55.26	48	37.21	3	21.42
Total sample (472)	Agree	291	100	38	100	129	100	14	100

The examination of Table 7.7 indicates that trainees received limited support to start or manage small businesses from the centre or external role-players. With regard to the public centres, more than half of the trainees (62.2%, 181/291) together with managers and trainers (52.63%, 20/38) disagreed that there was post-training support in small business start-up. Trainees (74.23%, 216/291), and manager and trainers (52.63%, 20/38) disagreed that there was post-training support in accessing loans/credit. Trainees (60.48%, 176/291) and managers and trainers (55.26%, 21/38) disagreed on support in growing trainees' businesses.

Again in public centres, trainees (58.76%, 171/291), and manager and trainers (55.26%, 21/38) disagreed or strongly disagreed that there was post-training support in operating trainee's businesses on a day to day basis. Likewise, trainees (65.98%, 192/291), and manager and trainers (55.26%, 21/38) disagreed that there was assistance in business registration. About a half (50.51%, 147/291) of trainees disagreed that they received support in compiling a business plan. Yet, 57.9% (22/38) of managers and trainers agreed that trainees received assistance in compiling a business plan. However, 50.17% (146/291) of trainees and 60.52% (23/38) of managers and trainers agreed that the centres helped some trainees to form business groups. With regard to private centres, Table 7.7 shows that 53.49% (69/129) of trainees together with managers and trainers (50%, 7/17) agreed that there was post-training support to some extent in

small business start-up. Trainees (53.49%, 69/129) together with managers and trainers (85.71%, 12/14) agreed that there was support to some extent in compiling a business plan. Likewise, trainees (56.59%, 73/129) together with managers and trainers (64.28%, 9/14) strongly agreed or agreed that there was support in forming co-operatives. However, 37.21% (48/129) of trainees and 21.42% (3/14) of manager and trainers disagreed that trainees received assistance neither from the centre nor any other agency in terms of support in accessing loans/credit. Similarly, 55.81% (72/129) of trainees disagreed that they received assistance in business registration and finding a business premise (62.02%, 81/129). The inadequacy of post-training support on both types of the centres implies that the internal and external environments were not effective in fostering links for skills utilisation in self-employment for the majority of the trainees.

In interviews, both public and private centre managers were asked to indicate the mechanisms utilised to assist a graduate with establishing a micro-enterprise or co-operative. Among the managers interviewed, 3/5 reported that there were no mechanisms yet utilised to assist a trainee graduate with establishing a micro-enterprise or co-operative. However, two private centre managers said that their centres were referring the trainees interested in micro-enterprise to SEDA as a part of the mechanisms utilised to assist a trainee graduate with establishing a micro-enterprise or co-operative. This particular centre works in partnership with different business support programmes in the area, and the post-training assistance also entails a mentoring programme.

Stressing the necessity of the post-training assistance for small business, a private centre manager argued that his centre works in accordance with the principle that entrepreneurship training is a process. This particular centre had mechanisms in place utilised to assist a trainee graduate with establishing a micro-enterprise or co-operative. The manager said the following:

In business a trainee never graduates. We start a training programme which produces an entrepreneur who can work independently. The training is a process which starts from lower stage to higher stage in business. At the end of the training programme, the centre trained how to articulate a business plan and present it to possible funders. Every trainee was given an opportunity to orally present his/her business plan in a workshop attended by different delegates from micro-finance institutions such as

ABSA Bank, Ithala Bank, and Capitec Bank, NGOs and local businesses. After the training the centre used stakeholders to facilitate the transition from training to small business implementation.

Graduate trainees also reported in interviews that there was a lack of post-training support for micro-enterprise development. Six successfully self-employed trainees were asked to indicate the types of assistance received from any institution, agency or municipality to develop their micro-enterprise or co-operative. The findings revealed that in most of the centres, there were no mechanisms utilised to assist a trainee graduate with establishing a micro-enterprise or co-operative. For instance one female graduate in a peri-urban area angrily said:

I have come to realise that there are a lot of things to know in order to start a business. But in the classroom our educators [trainers] were just telling us, “start business, start business”; and then what? We train them and then leave them!”

Another self-employed graduate with a tailoring micro-enterprise reported:

I have not received any assistance from any private or public institution beside the one from our NGO [training centre] which gave me a new sewing machine and start-up capital. I don't receive mentorship in the business. So, I just use the skills and knowledge acquired from the training programme to sustain my business. However, in case I have a technical problem with the machines or how to sew a certain style of fashion, I just walk to my trainers for more advice. I wished if I could receive mentorship on operating my businesses on day-to-day basis. The other problem is that I do not know where to get supplementary assistance outside my training centre, whether from institutions, agencies or local municipality.

These quotes infer that trainees expected to receive post-training assistance for their businesses. Those who could not be assisted by their respective centres were frustrated. Nevertheless, it was observed during data collection that some trainees in the private centres received only technical assistance in small business such as equipment use and maintenance and catching up with new ways of making products for the customers. The qualitative findings from these two selected

quotes from participants suggest that a major problem to access external post-training support was the unawareness about agency or municipality programmes for micro-entrepreneurs.

The problem of unawareness about external post-training support is evident in the document analysis presented in sections 7.5.2.2 to 7.5.2.5 below. There are in KZN agency and municipality programmes in small business or co-operative incubation available. Qualitative findings confirmed that trainees benefit from support and advice of agencies or the municipality with regard to their small businesses. This is evident in the views of three self-employed trainees. A first successful trainee in the tailoring micro-enterprise reported the following:

I have not yet received any material or financial supports from my training centre. But I usually receive help from other agencies and my local municipality to develop my small business. For instance, the municipality has a workshop furnished with industrial sewing machines. The purpose of the workshop is to help poor residents involved in sewing and fashion self-employment to use the machines for their customers' clothes. We use the municipal machines for free and get some advice on our small business.

A second successful trainee working in a group of five graduates who formed a poultry and agricultural co-operative echoed the support from the 'inside out', referring to assistance from the municipality and SEDA:

The training centre helped us to form a co-operative. After that, we have not yet received any support in terms of money from any institution or agency. We use the same money received from member contributions and our customers to buy chicken food, medicines and equipment. The Municipality has offered us a premise for the agricultural project, and we have now started planting vegetables. The municipality has again promised us to give more support[s] for the success of the project.

Regarding a loan, a certain bank in town has been aware of our poultry project. They are calling us every time to go and apply for a business loan. But we have not applied because we are not yet ready with a business plan and we want the project to grow a

little bit before we can apply for a bank loan. At the moment SEDA is helping us to work on business plan to submit to the bank.

A third successful trainee in small business who received continual post-training support from SEDA said:

Financially I only dealt with SEDA. Since I have attended several trainings in small business development, they continue informing me about other relevant business workshops on business and financial management, business plan and marketing. They have been a great help to me in marketing strategy such as producing business cards, flyers and advertisements. SEDA has also helped me with renting a place. I was paying R 9,500 per month for private premises. Then I got another one for R 8,000 which was still a lot. But at SEDA's premise I am paying nothing. I am grateful to them.

The findings reflect that both public and private centres' inadequate post-training support is seen by self-employed trainees as not linking them with available business incubation programmes provided by local agencies and municipalities. This gap in knowledge can be summarised in three significant findings which emerged from the above three quotes. Firstly, most self-employed trainees expected post-training support to derive from the centre and thought only in terms of money for business, forgetting technical, financial management and legal aspects of the business. Secondly, most of the managers and trainers lacked information and knowledge about possible post-training support provided by local agencies and municipalities. Thirdly, as will be seen in section 7.3 below, because the centre did not create adequate linkages with other role-players, trainees were not aware of the post-training support outside the centres.

In summary, the focus of this section was on determining the effectiveness of the external environment in influencing the skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of NFET graduates. With regard to wage-employment of the trainees, the examination of the distribution of means of getting wage-employment and post-training support reveal that the centres did not sufficiently create conducive factors to foster graduate trainees' wage-employment. The chance of working for government/public sector after completing the training was very low. The probability of finding jobs in the peri-urban areas was very low; and only a

very few trainees could be employed in community-based organisations. Trainees used diverse means of getting jobs. The overall result from the responses is that 50.54% (92/182) of the trainees could find jobs by their own efforts or being connected through a friend.

Both public and private centre managers reported that in most of the cases the linkages with the external role-players or other stakeholders for fostering skills utilisation in wage-employment of graduates were not effective. However, the analysis of the data reveals that most centre managers did not locate potentially interested low-scale enterprises, firms and businesses in the private sector. Managers did not visit them to find out whether they could be interested to take graduates or send them the curriculum vitae of trainees in the hope that they will be interviewing them. The exception was in the case of one private centre manager, who regularly invited prospective employers to come and observe the trainees in the centre's training workshops. Furthermore, post-training support for wage-employment was very limited. Except for the only one private centre mentioned, all other 20 centres involved in the study had utilised no mechanisms to assist graduates with finding wage-employment.

With regard to self-employment of the trainees, more trainees (42.85%, 63/147) became entrepreneurs in small business areas such as tuck shops, and in food and co-operatives than in other types of business. To ascertain the effectiveness of the external environments in fostering the utilisation of skills into self-employment, a great majority (91.83%, 135/147) of trainees said that their present small enterprises were related to the skills training programmes; and only 8.16% (12/147) said they were not related. This positive finding is an indication that some centres whose training programmes were on self-employment in micro-enterprises strived to create an enabling environment in assisting graduates to establish a micro-enterprise or co-operative.

The major source of start-up capital was trainee's own money raised by savings (41.34%, 129/312). Both quantitative and qualitative findings confirm that, though these new micro-entrepreneurs were poor and unemployed prior to the training programmes, they managed to save money to reach their objectives. This was possible through diverse training delivery approaches; a few centres helped trainees to save money for their future small businesses. Only six trainees (2.3%) reported to have received loans from banks with the assistance of SEDA.

Some trainees started an own business but it failed due to various causes relative to the type of NFET centre, whether public or private. In the public centres, the highest causes of business failure were the shortage of funds for a business and the lack of access to business market information. In the private centres, there were two main causes, the lack of business mentorship and access to business market information. Both quantitative and qualitative findings confirm that the shortage of business funds and lack of business mentorship or assistance were the two major causes of business failure for all centres.

The cross analysis of quantitative and qualitative on finding the root cause of the business failure was attributed to the lack or inadequacy of the post-training support for micro-enterprise development. In the public centres, more than half of trainees together with managers and trainers disagreed that there was post-training support in small business start-up, in accessing loans/credit, growing trainees' business, operating trainee's businesses on a day-to-day basis and in business registration. The assistance consisted in the public centres of helping some trainees to form business groups. In private centres, more than half the trainees together with managers and trainers agreed that there were post-training support to some extent in small business start-up, growing trainees' businesses, compiling a business plan, connecting trainees with other entrepreneurs, assistance in forming co-operatives and technical assistance in business.

Except in only one private centre, there were no formal mechanisms in place designed to assist NFET graduates with establishing a micro-enterprise or co-operative. A graduate willing to establish a micro-enterprise or co-operative could be assisted based on their motivation to approach the respective centre for this purpose. In this connection, the qualitative research findings further show that the inadequate post-training support in micro-enterprise was basically caused by the lack of knowledge about the available business incubation programmes provided by local agencies and municipalities. In other words, most of the managers and trainers lacked information and knowledge about possible post-training support provided by local agencies and municipalities and the trainees were not aware of the post-training support outside the centres. Both quantitative and qualitative research findings reveal that all these deficiencies mentioned above had one unique source which is that the centres did not create adequate linkages with other role-players. In relation to post-training support, the next section will look at centres' linkages with external role-players in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of graduates.

7.3 Transforming external environment fostering the utilisation of skills into employment

In section 7.2, the effectiveness of the external environment in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment was assessed through the post-training activities (wage- or self-employment) of graduates in the labour market. It was mentioned in Chapter Two, section 2.3.2 that an adult training centre does not operate in a vacuum, but in an environment with social, economic and political entities. This section focuses on analysing different links in relation to the centres, namely: the linkages with public institutions and agencies, the linkages with social networks, associations and employers. Chart 7.3 below displays the linkages according to the types of the centres.

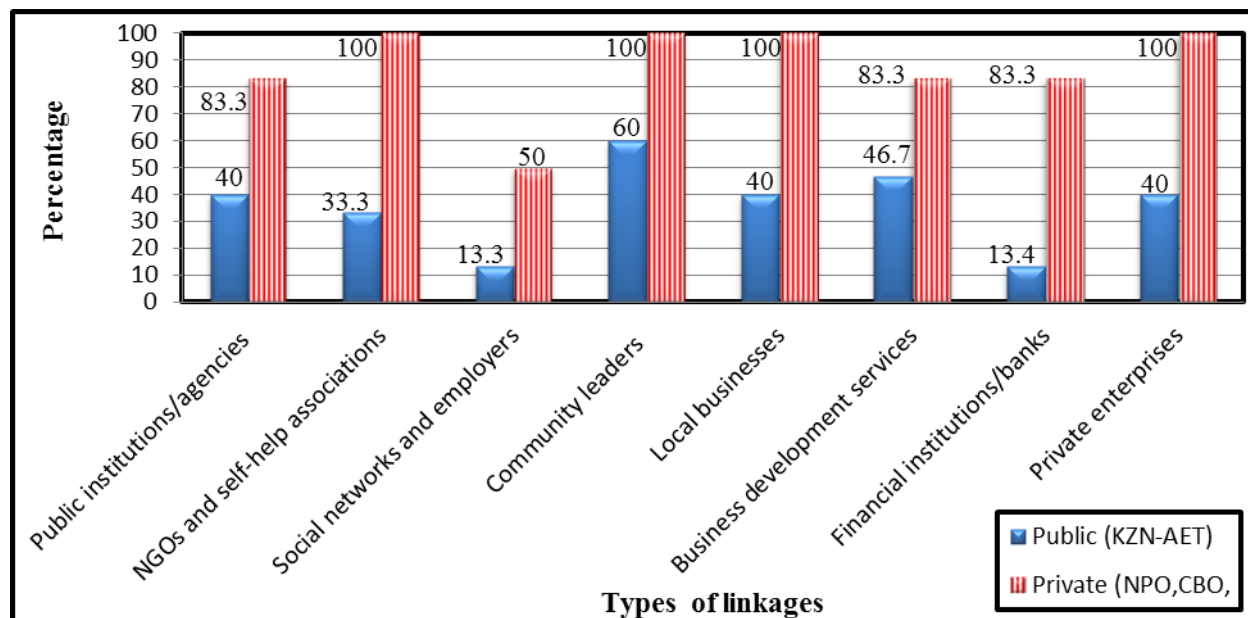


Chart 7.3: A comparative analysis between types of linkages according to type of centres (n=52)

Note: % within the type of the centre.

It is evident from Chart 7.3 that private centres are more linked to external environments than the public centres. According to their managers and trainers, all six (100%) private centres investigated had linkages with NGOs and self-help associations, community leaders, local businesses and private enterprises. The majority (83.3%, 5/6) had links with public institutions and agencies, Business Development Services (BDS), financial institutions/banks; and half (50%, 3/6) of them were linked to social networks and employers within their local communities. The respondents stated that these links with other external role-players aim at

fostering skills utilisation in self-employment; or assisting graduates to establish micro-enterprises and co-operatives.

On the contrary, public centres had no strong links with the external environments as compared with the private centres. The findings indicate that less than half (40%, 6/15) had linkages with public institutions or agencies namely KZN-Department of Education and Umalusi for education and training quality assurance. Only 33.3% (5/15) of the centres had linkages with NGOs and self-help associations; 13.3% (2/15) with social networks and employers, and financial institutions/banks (60%, 9/15) with community leaders, and 40%, 6/15) with local businesses. Less than half (46.7, 7/15) worked with Business Development Services (BDS) to assist some trainees in small business skills training. Others (40%, 6/15) collaborated with private enterprises. However, it is important to note that these linkages of both types of the centres are not formal in terms of a signed partnership, including a memorandum of understanding.

It was observed that the lack of centre linkages with external enabling environments was one of the major challenges of adult NFETs in KZN. It also impacted on the data collection process. The study was supposed to select ten managers for semi-structured interviews. The sampling method was based on one of the following criteria: firstly, the centre should have linkages with public institutions and agencies or the private sector; secondly, it should have linkages with social networks, associations and employers; and thirdly, it should have mentorship support programmes for self-employed trainees. Only two public centre managers were selected for interviews because of having minor linkages with public institutions and agencies.

The central point of the study was the centre linkages fostering the utilisation of skills for employment. These linkages entail public institutions and agencies on the one hand and social networks, associations and employers on the other. Findings in Chart 7.3 above, field observations and interviews revealed that private centres have strong linkages whereas public centres have weak linkages with external environments. It was observed that there was diverse reasons for weak linkages of public centres; but the most common were: manager's time constraint, types of training programmes offered (wage-employment or self-employment), and manager's professional training.

Firstly, With regard to time constraints, document analysis revealed that it was intended that centre managers would make exploratory visits to prospective stakeholders within different socio-economic sectors of the communities (see sub-section 7.5.1.1 below). The exploratory visits would serve to select potential partner organisations. However, public centre managers were unable to consult and create linkages with stakeholders as they were at the same time employed with a teaching workload as educators in the main stream schools (formal educational system) from 7:30 am to 15:00 pm, Monday to Friday. They also had to attend district and departmental meetings in connection to adult education and training. In addition, they were also trainers at the NFET centre having one or two subjects to teach. On the contrary, private centre managers were working as full-time volunteers or employees of the centres. So they had sufficient time to consult the prospective stakeholders and to create the linkages with different socio-economic sectors.

The second area where public centre managers had weak linkages with the external environment was related to the types of training programmes offered (wage-employment or self-employment). Though 9/15 public centres stated that they focus on both wage- and self-employment (see Table 6.2 in Chapter Six), the reality is that the main focus was on wage-employment after graduating from FET colleges. Therefore it was of little importance to create linkages with other stakeholders. On the contrary, the six private centres involved in the study reported in interviews to have taken into consideration the fact that their trainees were not wage-employable due to the low level of educational achievement. In addition, the interview findings revealed that a perception of this limitation of the trainees to access wage-employment after training, positioned private centres well to conduct skills training for income-generating activities which enabled them to start small businesses. To this end, private centres brought together other training providers as well as agencies and organisations to link the trainees to other services in order to provide post-training support for micro-enterprises.

Thirdly, manager's professional training played a major role on the endeavour to create linkages with stakeholders. The public centres were characterised by managers and trainers who were academically qualified with college diplomas or university degrees in adult education and training. But they lacked training and practical experience in community development, project management and entrepreneurship (see chapter 6, sub-section 6.4.2.1). This is why they failed to conduct a stakeholder analysis at the early stage of the training programme. On the contrary,

most of private centre managers had the background and practical experience in community development, project management, business management and entrepreneurship. It was reported during interviews that they make use of their professional skills, experience and social networks to start training programmes with consulting stakeholders in the local community in order to maximise the effectiveness and impact of training.

The study did not only look at whether centres had linkages with external environments but also focused on how they networked with them. The findings on the networking are next presented in the form of a comparative analysis of case studies from public and private centres. The five case studies that will be discussed reflect a thorough, holistic and in-depth exploration of the aspects of each centre regarding the enabling environments for employment.

7.4 A comparative analysis of enabling environments of public and private NFET centres

The case studies were constituted from findings drawn from the interviews with managers. The headings of the case studies emerged from the interview questions. Though the headings are different, the information complement the findings presented and discussed in Chapter Six with regard to access to the training programmes (6.2.2.2); internal training delivery environments (6.4); and in Chapter Seven with regard to post-training support for wage- and self-employment (7.2 .1.3 and 7.2.2.4); the extent to which a centre has established effective links with institutions (7.3) and the internal and external enabling/disabling environments for trainees' micro-enterprises.

The assessment focuses on the aspect of co-operation between a training centre and different partners in order to provide opportunities for trainees to access post-training support outside the centre. In addition, it looks at how a centre uses the institutional linkages to foster the utilisation of acquired skills in the labour market (wage- or self-employment). The examination of case studies was based on the following questions: What are the objectives of the centres? What are the instructional strategies for training delivery? To what extent has the centre established effective links with institutions? What were the types of post-training support? To what extent did the external enabling and disabling environments influence the graduates entering the labour market? What lessons on enabling environments do they offer? Although it is not possible to generalise the findings from the limited evidence offered by the case studies, the intention is to

seek directives towards general conclusions about NFET centres' enabling or disabling environments for employment.

7.4.1 Public adult education and training centres

Public adult education and training centres are still dominant in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. They are under the administration of the Department of Education and dependent on the funding from the government. As indicated above, the study could only select two public centre managers out of 15 involved in the survey instead of five because others did not meet the selection criteria for the interviews. The examination of all case studies consists of programme profile of the centre, training programme delivery, the extent to which the centre has established effective links with institutions; post-training support for employment and lesson learnt.

7.4.1.1 Case study A: AET centre in urban area

Programme profile of the centre: Skills training programmes at centre A started in 2012 after its establishment by the KZN-Department of Education. The focus of the skills training programme is on both self-employment and wage-employment. It also caters for trainees desiring to further their training at FET Colleges. The centre has been offering training courses in travel and tourism, ancillary health care and sewing. The duration of the skills training programme is for one year (AET level-4). The skills training programmes were basically designed as a pre-employment training in both formal and informal sectors. However, the centre had financial challenges to continue implementing the skills training programme. To sustain the programme, the manager and trainers had to contribute from their own personal money for the purchase and maintenance of the training materials (AET centre manager, interview: 28/01/2014).

Training programme delivery: The programme structure designed to meet the goal was standardised for all trainees, divided into set sequences. Learning was subject-based, teacher-centred, more rigid arrangement of time table and the centre calendar followed a formal system of the National Department of Education. The programme content had a variety of theoretical and practical activities done in classrooms; more attention was given to technical theory, but little to business skills. For the travel and tourism training course, trainees studied theory in the

classroom, and then used to visit the travel and tourism centres to get more knowledge about the industry. The objective of the visits was, that in case they could enrol to FET Colleges for further studies, they must be able to understand what travel and tourism was all about (AET centre manager, interview: 28/01/2014). For the ancillary health care, they used to go to a clinic to do some practical work. For instance, they tested people with diabetes, checked their sugar levels; helped people who have diseases such as HIV/Aids, TB by caring for them and making them aware of how they can live with diseases.

The extent to which the centre has established effective links with institutions: The centre had a very limited collaboration with the local municipality which once donated some training equipment. The municipal officials sometimes came to the centre to provide business skills training related to the sewing trade. The training entailed small business management and entrepreneurship skills. They also taught trainees how to open a business account, and to register a small business so that they might be able to apply for a bank loan when the business would be viable in terms of criteria of the bank. The centre had no other links with external environments such as public institutions, NGOs, business enterprises, employers and other local partners in fostering skills utilisation in wage- or self-employment. Thus, it was difficult to assess the way this centre co-operated with partners in order to provide opportunities for trainees to access post-training support services.

Post-training support for employment: There was no mechanism that the centre utilised to assist a graduate with finding wage-employment. Similarly, the time constraint made it difficult to assist a graduate with establishing a micro-enterprise or co-operative. During an interview the centre manager pointed out that:

We do not have enough time to teach trainees how to form a co-operative. We rarely receive officials from the municipality to train them, but our adult trainees do not have enough time to learn business skills which can help them start a micro-enterprise or co-operative. They are more interested in wage-employment. The other problem we have is that our trainees only have theoretical and basic knowledge on how to start a small business or a co-operative, but not in practical way.

This statement above is an indication that the internal training delivery environments were not facilitating post-training support for employment (wage- and self-employment). The challenges in human and material resources, on one side and the approach of training delivery for skills acquisition, on the other, could not motivate the centre management to establish a mechanism in order to assist a graduate with finding wage-employment. Likewise, the training delivery environment was not conducive for the centre to assist a graduate with establishing a micro-enterprise or co-operative. Thus, in conclusion this centre did not succeed in assisting graduates to set up their own small business after completion of the skills training.

Lessons learnt: There are some lessons learnt from this case study. Firstly, the connection between skills training delivery and support activities was not planned at design stage. Secondly, the skills training was delivered on a “once-off basis”; not provided on a continuous basis. Thirdly, there was no link between the overall goal and target groups of the skills training programme on one hand, and on the other hand, the training design and implementation.

7.4.1.2 Case study B: AET centre in peri-urban area

Programme profile of the centre: Adult education and training centre **B** was established in 2004 by the KZN-Department of Education. The focus of the programme was on both self-employment and wage-employment. It also trained youth drop-outs to gain the minimum entry level requirements to access the NFET Colleges for diploma programmes. The centre offered training courses in travel and tourism, ancillary health care, SMME and agricultural technology. The skills training programme was basically a pre-employment training in both formal and informal sectors. According to the manager, the overall goal was to increase household income, improve living conditions of the trainees through skills training, self-employment and wage-employment (AET centre manager, interview: 20/10/2014). The specific objectives of the centre are:

- To empower unemployed adults by providing them with livelihood skills and knowledge to enable them to become self-reliant;
- To provide adult trainees with training in vegetable farming, managerial skills, and equip them to manage a business;

- To assist the trainees in the formation of self-help groups or co-operatives, and to educate them how to apply for business loans/credits.

However, the centre had a financial challenge to continue implementing the skills training programme. During an interview the manager said:

It is very difficult to continue with our skills training programme because the centre lacks financial support to buy material resources. The centre is located in a community where tourists most often come and buy some artefacts. But we cannot produce artefacts like beads they need because our centre lacks sponsorship for material resources.

As a strategy to keep the skills programme functioning, the manager and trainers had to contribute from their own personal money to buy training materials and other products. For the agricultural training, the centre manager and the trainers were contributing money each month to support trainees so they may get training materials for practical work in the classroom. The majority of the trainees could not afford buying the materials because they were very poor. In one occasion, the centre received seeds and tools for the gardening project from the Department of Agriculture.

Training programme delivery: Except for agricultural technology, learning in other subjects was subject-based, teacher-centred, had a more inflexible time table and the centre calendar followed a formal system of education designed by the National Department of Education. In travel and tourism, ancillary health care and SMME training courses, the content was more theoretical than practical. It was observed that most of the learning activities occurred in classrooms with more attention given to technical theory and little to business skills.

The extent to which the centre has established effective links with institutions: The centre had informal linkages with the Department of Agriculture for gardening projects and one local church. The manager had asked for permission from the nearest clinic to allow trainees in ancillary health care to do some practical work. It had no other links with external environments such as public institutions, NGOs, business enterprises, employers and other local partners in fostering skills utilisation in wage- or self-employment. Thus, it was difficult to assess the way

this centre co-operated with partners in order to provide opportunities for trainees to access post-training support services.

The external disabling environments influencing the graduates entering the labour market: A lack of community leadership involvement in the training activities constituted a disabling environment for self-employment. The interview revealed that in June 2013, the centre trained 20 adults in agricultural technology and the objective of the training was to start a farming project in the community. The centre received a donation in money and farming tools from a certain church for the success of the project. But the centre failed to implement the project because of the lack of a piece of land. What happened is that the community is under a traditional leader (Inkosi) or chief who has control of the land. When the centre requested a piece of land for the project, the chief declined the application. Several meetings with other community leaders were held in this regard, but the chief would not allocate any land for the centre's farming project. This act caused a great anger to the adult trainees who felt they had wasted time in studying agricultural technology.

Lessons learnt: The finding on the disabling environment for self-employment highlights the need to involve key stakeholders at the planning stage of the training. Managers often underestimated the commitment and buy-in of stakeholders from the communities. The commitment and buy-in of stakeholders would facilitate an enabling environment for the success of a project. The lesson from this case study is that the community leaders and business owners tend to support adult training programmes they have been involved in creating and to resist those they have been excluded from.

7.4.2 Private adult education and training centres

In spite of their small number, NGOs, CBOs and FBO have played an important role in the provision of NFET in KZN. It was observed that their skills training programmes were often linked to income-generating activities for poor and marginalised adults. In addition to the selection criteria, the three case studies were selected according to different areas, type of private centres and innovative elements to NFET.

7.4.2.1 Case study C: NGO centre in urban area

Programme profile of the centre: The focus of the skills training programme was on self-employment. The centre offered training courses in agricultural technology, SMMEs and co-operatives. According to the manager, the overall goal was to promote and develop entrepreneurs for sustainable small businesses at the same time. Basically, the centre trained those whose focus was on micro-enterprise, small business and co-operatives; as well as potential entrepreneurs with a business idea (Private centre manager, interview: 20/01/2014). The mission of the organisation is defined as follows:

- To promote entrepreneurship the centre staff visited townships and conducted awareness workshops. The target groups were those people involved in informal trade, and who did not have any technical and business skills. They were often selling sweets, cigarettes and fruit on the streets; and others were shoe repairers.
- To develop entrepreneurship the centre assessed the target group's objectives and type of informal business, then they underwent a non-formal skills training in business. The business skills trainings entailed teaching basic knowledge in entrepreneurship, book-keeping, simple business management, marketing and financial management.
- To assist the trainees in the formation of self-help groups or co-operatives, and educate them how to apply for business loans/credit.

Training programme delivery: The programme used to start with pre-counselling or training need assessment sessions. The sessions helped to recruit suitable trainees by identifying what type of small business he/she is interested in. The centre informed the trainees well about the skills training and the outcomes of the programme. As soon as a trainee or a group of trainees decided to establish a small business or a co-operative, they underwent further training programmes. The philosophy of the centre was that in business skills training trainees never graduate. The manager stated that, "We start a training programme which produces an entrepreneur who can work independently. The training is a process which starts from lower stage to higher stage in business." (Private centre manager, interview: 20/01/2014). In the area of skills training where the centre did not have a specialisation, facilitators were part-time hired from other organisations.

The extent to which the centre has established effective links with institutions: The centre had linkages with public institutions and agencies, social networks and associations in Durban city. For example, in the area of developing entrepreneurship after skills training, the partners in the public sector were eThekweni Municipality and SETA for the accreditation of the certificate. From the private sectors, there were micro-finance institutions such as ABSA Bank, Ithala Bank, and Capitec Bank, NGOs and local businesses. At the end of the training programme, the centre trained how to articulate a business plan and present it to possible funders. Every trainee was given an opportunity to orally present his/her business plan in a workshop attended by different delegates from micro-finance institutions mentioned above. After the training the centre used stakeholders to facilitate the transition from training to small business implementation.

Lessons learnt: The centre has engaged in important networks with credible organisations active in informal micro-enterprises. Primary and secondary stakeholders were consulted at the beginning of the programme and were involved in the whole process of the training. For the programme to be effective, the strong commitment of the external partners is regarded as vital. The provision of post-training support, including micro-credit and technical assistance were also planned in order to sustain the new micro-enterprises.

7.4.2.2 Case study D: Faith-based organisation centre in urban area

Programme profile of the centre: Since its establishment in 1992, the centre aimed at meeting the skills training needs of the poor and empowering the disadvantaged in KwaZulu-Natal. The skills training within the NGO were part of empowerment programmes which are aimed at providing skills, jobs and mentorship. The manager stated that, “Our empowerment programmes seek to raise up well-equipped entrepreneurs running sustainable businesses in a number of sectors, and provide training and mentorship opportunities for learners in starting up small and micro-businesses.” (Private centre manager, interview: 29/11/2013). The target groups were the poorest of the poor. The centre provided hard skills training in fashion design and sewing, computer literacy and crafts.

Training programme delivery: The centre implemented an inclusive Competency-Based Training package from SAQA to ensure that each of the objectives are attained. The fashion

design and sewing programme was a SAQA accredited curriculum for clothing, textile, leather and footwear in line with SETA standards. With regard to crafts, the centre has been taking the existing craft groups from the communities which have to be already functioning within the communities for them to be considered for the training. A trainee should have already owned a craft business, whether individually or in a group. The aim is to improve trainees' skills and teach them business skills, such as marketing, writing a business plan and financial management.

Training in basic computer skills provided trainees with job-related skills and thus empowered the disadvantaged. It consisted of Basic Word which consists of 12 lessons, and then the trainees advance to the Excel programme which involve 12 lessons. Their formal training is done from Monday to Thursday and they go to the centre on Fridays and Saturdays to practise the skills that they have learnt during the week. The centre trains 100 trainees each year (Private centre manager, interview: 29/11/2013). The assessment and certification of the trainees are conducted twice a year - in June and in December - using written examinations and practical tests in the sewing workshop. At the end of the training they receive certificates of competence.

The way the centre integrated entrepreneurship skills with the technical training content is informal. Trainees are taught the technical and business skills at the same time, "But the business training was still informal which means it was not well-integrated as it should be." (Private centre manager, interview: 29/11/2013). At the end of the training, trainees were able to write a business plan and implement marketing strategies for their small businesses. The centre also used the Business Economic Support Training (BEST) game. It is a programme the centre used to teach trainees small business entrepreneurship.

The extent to which the centre has established effective links with institutions: With regard to the links with the Department of Education and Skills Training Agencies, the centre has applied for the skills training accreditation to the Sectoral Education and Training Authority (SETA). It operates in informal partnership with the Chamber of Business, other NGOs in the area and the business support centre. It sometimes receives officials from SEDA, and ABSA small business programmes and also has a link with prospective employers but it is on an informal level. Furthermore, the centre established an informal partnership with Standard Bank and ABSA Bank for granting small business loans. For the post-training support in self-employment, the

centre refers the trainees to the external partners mentioned above. However, these linkages are not helping trainees to get wage-employment.

Lessons learnt: A different element noted in this case study is that the training approach was learner-centred. Like other private centres, the observations reveal that approaches such as workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training are used. Trainees in sewing and crafts were earning an income while being in training. It was observed that the internal training delivery environments are characterised by three main approaches for adult skills training, which is ‘learning by doing, learning by producing and learning by earning’ in the workshops.

7.4.2.3 Case study E: Church-based CBO centre in peri-urban area

Programme profile of the centre: Since its establishment in 2003, the centre aimed at developing the livelihood skills of the youths and adults so that they might find employment within the local community. The centre provides skills training in fashion design and sewing, and crafts. It mostly targets the unemployed citizens who are disabled and provides them with technical and business skills to enable them to become self-reliant. While being in a skills training programme, the centre assists its trainees in forming self-help groups or co-operatives, and educates them how to apply for business loans/credits (Private centre manager, interview: 05/11/2013).

Training programme delivery: Prior to admission into the programme, prospective trainees undergo a rigid training needs assessment. The training programme is structured on two levels, namely (1) adult basic education and (2) skills training. Once trainees complete adult education and training level 4, they are registered for sewing or craft skills training. The centre also implements an inclusive Competency-Based Training package with major activities designed to ensure that objectives are attained. Within the programme, each training course is subdivided into competence skills learning areas. For instance, for each month the centre allocates learning activities such as a proper use of the sewing machine and its maintenance, cutting the materials and fashion designing.

The programme consists of a practical component of on-the-job training. The first component of the programme is to teach technical skills. After trainees had acquired technical skills, the centre

trains them in business - relative to the area of training. Business skills training is aimed at acquiring knowledge in small business management and marketing of products in the local community and elsewhere. To ensure that trainees are able to start a business, the centre management urges them to form groups which would allow them to register as co-operatives. So they start working in different groups while still being on the training programme. The income that they earn is used as a stipend and to buy raw materials. The assessment and certification of the trainees is conducted in December using written examinations and practical tests in the sewing workshop. At the end of the training they receive certificates of competence.

The extent to which the centre has established effective links with institutions: The centre operates in formal partnership with the Department of Education. It has links with local business enterprises and NGOs which helps the centre with training materials and other expenses. At the time of the field work research the centre had not yet any links with banks and/ or micro-credit schemes (financial institutions). This was the case because the programme had only operated for one year (from October 2012). The manager indicated that the process to create links was underway. Since the centre collaborates with the municipality, it usually helps trainees to start a business by providing facilities and technical assistance to gain more experience in their area of skills training.

In order to foster skills utilisation in wage-employment or in assisting graduates to establish a micro-enterprise or co-operative, the centre networks with other external role players such as public institutions, NGOs, business enterprises and other local partners. It invites them at the training centre on a regular basis to come and observe the skills performance of the trainees. These external role players have contributed a lot to the progress of the training by commenting on the trainees' work, making recommendations for improvement which also motivating them (Private centre manager, interview: 05/11/2013). In addition, "The centre also used to advocate on behalf of trainees to the prospective employers by saying that after the completion of the training programme, please come to interview some of the trainees and employ those who qualify for the available offers the agency, enterprises, organisation or business may have." (Private centre manager, interview: 05/11/2013).

Lessons learnt: Like the previous case study **D**, the innovative elements of NFET consist firstly in the training approach which was learner-centred. The observations reveal that approaches

include workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training. Secondly, the centre motivates trainees to form groups which would allow them to register as co-operatives. Thirdly, the centre maintains good collaboration with main stakeholders for the effectiveness of the skills training programmes.

7.4.3 Discussion of the case studies

It is evident from the case studies that the public centres contribute little to the utilisation of acquired skills in the labour market (wage- or self-employment). This is due to weak instructional strategies for training delivery. Though the training delivery environment is standardised with accredited certification after training, it is more theoretical and directed to the wage-employment. The technical training programmes are not coupled to business skills to help trainees to become involved in micro-enterprises. No special efforts are made to create effective links or networks with other external role players such as Business Development Services (BDS), public agencies, NGOs, business enterprises and other local partners in assisting trainees to establish micro-enterprises or co-operatives. Thus, no type of post-training support was planned for graduates.

Case studies at private centres revealed that NGOs played a limited, but in some ways, significant role in adult training programmes. They endeavour to create an enabling environment for skills acquisition and for self-employment. It was observed that they focused much on income-generating activities. The training delivery environments were based on workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training. At the same time it is characterised by three main approaches namely: learning by doing, learning by producing and learning by earning. Though the linkages and networks with other external role-players were not yet formalised, to some extent, they help to foster skills utilisation in assisting trainees to establish micro-enterprises or co-operatives and post-training supports. Table 7.8 below provides a comparative analysis between case studies at public and private centres with regard to the core elements of enabling environments.

Table 7.8: Comparative analysis of case study programmes by content

Elements of enabling environments	Public centres		Private centres		
	A	B	C	D	E
A. Access to the training programme					
Training needs assessment	√	√	√	√	√
Pre-counselling sessions	x	x	√	√	√
B. Training delivery environments					
Technical skills training	√	√	√	√	√
Training workshops	x	x	x	√	√
Competency-Based Training package	x	x	√	√	√
Technical with business skills	x	x	√	√	√
On-the-job training	x	x	√	√	√
Project-based training	x	x	√	√	√
Accredited certification (SAQA)	√(credits)	√(credits)	√ (credits)	x	x
Workshop-based assessment	x	x	√	√	√
‘Learning by doing’ approach	x	x	√	√	√
‘Learning by producing’ approach	x	x	√	√	√
‘Learning by earning’ approach	x	x	√	√	√
Group or co-operative formation	x	x	√	√	√
C. Post-training supports					
Wage-employment support	x	x	x	x	√
Self-employment support in SME	x	x	√	√	√
Technical support in business	x	x	√	√	√
Business counselling	x	x	√	√	√
Loan/credit application from banks	x	x	√	x	x
D. Centre linkages with:					
Public institutions	√	√	√	√	√
NGOs and self-help associations	x	x	√	√	√
Social networks and employers	x	√	√	√	√
Community leaders	√	√	√	√	√
Local businesses	x	x	√	√	√
Business development services	x	x	√	√	√
Financial institutions/ banks	x	x	√	√	√
Private enterprises	x	x	x	√	√

√ = this element is included in the programme; x = not included in the programme.

Three of the programmes (case studies C: NGO centre in urban area, D: NGO centre in urban area and E: CBO centre in peri-urban area) provided self-employment support in small and micro-enterprise, and technical support in business and business counselling, although it was unclear whether the majority of the trainees benefited. Generally, centre E appeared to include

almost all elements of enabling environments investigated in the study. However, except centre C, other centres had a low interest in applying for bank loans for their graduate trainees as seed capital to start a small business. All centres have linkages with public institutions and community leaders, though the objectives were not well defined in relation to the effectiveness of the training programmes. It is significant to note that the comparative analysis of case studies by content reveal that the public centres by and large do not include most of the elements of enabling environments investigated in the study as opposed to the private centres who do. The next section will examine both enabling and disabling external environments in terms of legal and regulatory environments, the SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises at macro-level.

7.5 The enabling/disabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market

It was discussed in Chapter Two (sections 2.3.2 and 2.3.3) that for purposes of transforming learnt skills into employment outcomes, other factors, external to adult NFET centres, are required at macro-level. This section answers the research question: To what extent do the external enabling and disabling environments influence the graduates entering the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal? Labour market refers to both wage-employment and self-employment in the formal and informal sectors. The purpose of this section is two-fold. Firstly, to examine the impact of the so-called “quiet disincentives” (such as barriers to enter the labour market) in relation to regulation, policy, institutions and agencies to see how they constitute enabling or disabling environments. Secondly, to find out whether or not the centre managers and trainers were aware of the policies and institutions and used them to create enabling environments for self-employment of NFET graduates.

This section examines the laws, regulations, and SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises discussed in Chapter Four (section 4.5) contributing to enabling environments in relation to the empirical study. It presents the views of the respondents (centre managers, trainers and trainees) regarding SME promotion policies and institutional environment for micro-enterprises, small business registration and licensing; access to credit and financial services; the access to business development services; the access to business premises; access to Business Development Services and to business information.

7.5.1 SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises

As discussed in Chapter Four (section 4.5), the intention of the *White Paper on the National Strategy for the Development and Promotion of Small Business in South Africa (1995)* is to promote and improve access to finance and markets by spreading information about domestic marketing opportunities through business information centres. Another intention is to abolish unduly restrictive or inappropriate requirements as critical constraints to the growth and development of small businesses (DTI, 2005b:8). The SME promotion policies and institutional environments examined in relation to the study are Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act 53 of 2003, Integrated Small Enterprise Development Strategy (ISEDS), Small Business Development Agency (SEDA) and Ithala Development Finance Corporation.

7.5.1.1 Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act 53 of 2003

In the survey the centre managers and trainers were asked to indicate the extent of their knowledge of Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act 53 of 2003. The purpose of asking was to find out whether or not they utilised the Act to create enabling environments for self-employment of NFET graduates. The responses show that 37.56% (19/52) of managers and trainers had little knowledge of the B-BBEE policy. Less than a quarter (22.43%, 12/52) of the managers and trainers indicated to have knowledge at a moderate level. Less than half (40.02%, 21/52) indicated that they knew about it to a large extent. This percentage of awareness of B-BBEE policy is adequate to allow centre managers and trainers to create enabling environments for starting and developing small businesses of graduates. However, those few managers and trainers who were aware of B-BBEE were poorly informed about the application processes and the respective custodian institutions in order to create an enabling environment for trainee's self-employment. Thus, according to the findings, B-BBEE cannot be considered as an external enabling environment.

7.5.1.2 Integrated Small Enterprise Development Strategy (ISEDS) in KZN

The significance of ISEDS in relation to NFET is that it aims to create an enabling environment for those trainees interested in self-employment by starting-up micro-enterprises. Firstly, the promotion of small business includes facilitating access to information and advice, marketing, finance; affordable physical infrastructure and business premises, access to appropriate technology, and encourage joint ventures of small business (DTI, 2005b:3). Secondly, the policy resulted in creation of SME development institutions and agencies that have important roles in the implementation of the strategy.

The responses from the survey indicated that 51.92% (27/52) of the managers and trainers had a large knowledge of the ISEDS operating in KZN. Less than a quarter (23.07%, 12/52) reported to know it to a moderate extent, and 23.07% (12/52) had little knowledge of it. Although 51.92% of the managers and trainers knew about the ISEDS implemented by the KZN Office of Premier, no manager or trainer reported to have approached the officials in the Office of the Premier of KZN for trainees' post-training support in SMME. In addition, those few who were aware of ISEDS reported being poorly informed about the application processes in order to create an enabling environment for trainee's self-employment. In other words, centre managers and trainers could not use ISEDS to create enabling environments for starting and developing small businesses of graduates due to their inaction to link trainees to the Office of Premier of KZN.

7.5.1.3 Small Business Development Agency (SEDA)

In KZN, SEDA has a provincial office in Durban, as well as smaller branch offices in different districts where various services are provided. Most of these services are informational in nature (such as helping entrepreneurs identify business opportunities) (DTI, 2008:114). Besides providing information to micro-entrepreneurs, SEDA also helps its clients to access financial services, assists small enterprises with business plan development and referral to commercial banks and development finance institutions. However, it does not lend money directly to small enterprises (KZN, 2012:24).

Only 36.53% (19/52) of the managers and trainers had a large knowledge of SEDA in KZN and how trainee graduates could benefit from its SMME development programme. A few managers and trainers (25%, 13/52) had moderate knowledge, and the other 38.46% (20) of respondents

had little or very little knowledge of it. Those few who were aware of SEDA programmes in KZN reported being poorly informed about its SMME programmes in order to create an external enabling environment for trainee's post-training support in self-employment. These findings reveal that centre managers and trainers could not use SEDA programmes to create enabling environments for starting and developing small businesses of graduates.

7.5.1.4 Ithala Development Finance Corporation

In KZN, Ithala provides innovative financial packages that are designed to get a business. Ithala's loans department is responsible for Ithala's small, medium, and micro-enterprise (SMME) development programme. It provides start-up capital in terms of a loan to new or existing SMMEs (DTI, 2010:35; KZN, 2012:25). The target people served by Ithala Bank are basically persons from previously disadvantaged communities.

Ithala Bank is well known in KNZ for the fact it is close to people who are in need of its services. However, less than half (40.38%, 21/52) of the managers and trainers indicated that they had knowledge of Ithala Bank to a large extent; 28.84% (15/52) of them knew it to a moderate extent, and 30.76% (16/52) had little knowledge. The findings reveal that the extent of knowledge centre managers and trainers had could not allow them to approach Ithala Bank in order to create enabling environments for starting and developing small businesses of graduates. Those managers and trainers who knew about Ithala's SMME programme mentioned being poorly informed about the application processes of start-up capital in terms of a loan.

7.5.1.5 KwaZulu-Natal SMME and Co-operative Strategies

The objective of KwaZulu-Natal SMME and Co-operative Strategies is to encourage the establishment of SMMEs and other entrepreneurial ventures such as co-operatives in the lead sectors of the economy (KZN, 2012:34). Underpinning this objective is the recognition of the importance of mentorship programmes for the owners of SMMEs and co-operatives in the formative stages of their businesses – as well as on-going support to facilitate their adaptation to changing markets and market conditions (KZN, 2008:107; KZN, 2012:24). One of the implementation strategies is to organise training and support for the co-operative movement through a system of compulsory incubation for newly formed co-operatives.

The survey findings reveal that less than half (44.23%, 23/52) of the managers and trainers knew the KZN SMME and Co-operative Strategies to a large extent. More than a quarter (28.84%, 15/52) reported to know the strategies to a moderate extent; and the other 13.46% (7/52) of managers and trainers have little knowledge of the strategies. Though an adequate number of managers and trainers indicated to have known about the SMME and Co-operative Strategies, they could not utilise them to create enabling environments for starting and developing SMMEs and co-operatives for graduates.

In summary, at macro-level, the findings reveal that the SME promotion policies and related institutions are enabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market in self-employment. The government provides the required support to ensure that there is sufficient local capacity to undertake self-employment in SMMEs or cooperatives. However, the SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises cannot be considered as external enabling environments for self-employment of the graduate trainees because of two main impediments. Firstly, the centre managers and trainers had inadequate knowledge or information on the policies. Those few who were aware of the policies and institutional environments were poorly informed about the application processes and the respective custodian institutions in order to create an enabling environment for trainee's self-employment. Secondly, in connection with the findings on centre linkages (see section 7.3 and Chart 7.3), poor institutional linkages of mostly public centres to promote trainee's entrepreneurship have resulted in limited access to information, services and business opportunities that the state provides graduate trainees. In connection with the SME promotion policies and institutional environments, the next section will examine whether or not the access to credit and financial services constitutes external enabling/disabling environments.

7.5.2 Access to credit and financial services

The objective of this sub-section is specifically to determine the levels of access to business funds for the SME sector and to describe the drivers of, and the barriers to the usage of financial services for the small business sector in KZN. The document analysis reveals that there are a number of institutions and agencies to providing financial and non-financial support for SMME start-up and development in KZN (see Chapter Four, section 4.5). SEDAs are present in every

district; Ithala has a business support function and are also geographically wide-spread in KZN. One main question was to determine the extent to which the financial supports were available and accessible to the graduate trainees.

It will be revealed in this section that the findings are contrary to those in Table 6.7 (see Chapter Six, sub-section 6.4.1.2) concerning the low scores on the expectation “to be linked with banks for credit/loan” on the side of trainees (0.2%, 1/420) and managers (2.4%, 1/52). Furthermore, in the qualitative findings (see Table 7.6) the themes that emerged as suggested by trainees to sustain their businesses were: Provision of start-up capital for small businesses after graduation (67.92%; 72/106); provision of financial and material assistance in business (59.43%, 63/106) and bringing banks to offer financial assistance (37.73%, 40/106). These findings are an indication that there was a great need to link self-employed trainees to micro-finance institutions for the sustainability of their small businesses. In view of this need, the next sub-section seeks to determine the reasons for trainees not applying for a bank loan.

7.5.2.1 Reasons for not applying for a bank loan

It was mentioned in sub-section 7.2.2.3 that two of the reasons for failure of small businesses which were started after training was due to a lack of start-up capital (no access to bank loan) and shortage of business funds (18.56%, 44/237) to continue managing the small business (see Chart 7.2). Some did not want to apply for a bank loan and others applied but the application was unsuccessful. Table 7.9 below presents various reasons for not applying for a bank loan to start a small business.

Table 7.9: Reasons for not applying for a bank loan to start small business⁵

Reasons for not applying for a bank loan	Trainees (n=147)		Managers & Trainers (52)		Total (n=199)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Businesses not registered/ licensed	122	83	16	30.76	128	64.32
Fear of not having money to repay the loan	61	41.5	25	48.07	86	43.21
I have never needed it	53	56.05	30	57.7	83	41.7
I don't know where to get a loan	40	27.21	6	11.53	46	23.11
No place nearby to get a loan/credit	28	19.04	6	11.53	34	17.08
High interest charged by banks	20	13.6	-	-	20	10.05
Lack of collateral	61	41.49	18	34.61	79	39.69
Lack of a referee	24	16.32	16	30.76	40	20.1
I am too old	11	7.48	-	-	11	5.52

The analysis of Table 7.9 reveals nine reasons that hindered trainees from applying for bank loans. It is evident that the two main reasons which were more mentioned by the trainees, managers and trainers, are businesses not registered or licensed (64.32%, 128/199) and fear of not having money to repay the loan (43.21%, 86/199). The other reasons were the fact that trainees never needed the loan (41.7%, 83/199) and the lack of collateral (39.69%, 79/199).

The qualitative data from trainees shed more light on the findings in Table 7.9 above. During the interview, trainees again emphasised both the need for the business funds and the fear of not having money to repay the loan and the high interest charged by lending banks. A female graduate who started an own micro-enterprise articulated her dilemma as follows:

A lack of financial support is my major problem. I really need money to buy industrial machines. On the other side, I fear applying for a loan/credit from a bank or another financial institution. I don't even think of applying for it because I have no money to repay the loan. The banks charge high interest. Instead of the loan lifting me up, it can ruin my life.

Another graduate explained the reasons for not applying for a bank loan as follows:

⁵ Frequency in the above Table 7.9 was a multiple question and refers to the number of times each reason for not applying for a bank loan was mentioned. Although few trainees mentioned only one of the nine reasons, there were many who ticked more than one.

A lack of business money is my major challenge because I need to buy good machines and fabrics. But, when it comes to applying for a business loan or credit, I fear maybe I will not be able to repay back a loan because of high interest charged by banks. Also my Business is not registered. But if I had good business management skills, I could take a loan. I do have good technical skills in fashion design and sewing; but not enough in business management.

These two quotes indicate that self-employed trainees in KZN are facing a dilemma between the need for business funds from banks and the fear or restrictions to apply for bank loans. This dilemma is due to the fact that they were not sure of reimbursement due to high interest. The non-reimbursement of the loan in time could result in ruining their lives because of being blacklisted and not having access to any credit services.

7.5.2.2 Unsuccessful loan application and challenges in accessing credit

Some trainees did apply for bank loans and their applications were rejected. Table 7.10 below presents the reasons for unsuccessful loan applications to the banks.

Table 7.10: Reasons for unsuccessful loan application to the banks (n=101)

Reasons for unsuccessful loan application		Trainees		Managers & Trainers		Total		Decision
		n	%	n	%	n	%	
Small business was started less than 1 year ago	Agree	25	51.02	30	44.23	55	54.46	Agree
	Neutral	4	8.16	10	32.7	14	13.86	
	Disagree	20	40.81	11	21.15	31	30.69	
Lack of collateral	Agree	25	51.02	29	55.76	54	53.46	Agree
	Neutral	7	17.28	11	21.15	18	17.82	
	Disagree	21	42.85	12	23.07	33	32.67	
Poor business ideas/plan	Agree	11	22.44	11	40.38	22	21.78	Disagree
	Neutral	6	12.24	7	13.46	13	12.87	
	Disagree	20	40.81	34	65.38	54	53.46	
Little business experience	Agree	29	59.18	29	55.77	58	57.42	Agree
	Neutral	5	10.2	10	19.23	15	14.85	
	Disagree	15	30.61	13	25	28	27.72	
Lack of credit repayment history	Agree	31	63.27	21	40.38	52	51.48	Agree
	Neutral	8	16.32	15	28.84	23	22.77	
	Disagree	10	20.41	16	30.77	26	25.74	
Businesses not registered/licensed	Agree	30	61.22	38	73.07	68	67.32	Agree
	Neutral	14	28.57	6	21.15	20	19.8	
	Disagree	10	20.41	8	15.38	18	17.82	

Lack of a referee	Agree	29	59.18	31	59.61	60	59.41	Agree
	Neutral	5	10.02	7	13.46	12	11.88	
	Disagree	15	30.61	14	26.92	29	28.71	
Total sample (101)		49	100	52	100	101	100	

Note: % within group and responses

The analysis of Table 7.10 reveals that more than half (53.46%, 54/101) of trainees, managers and trainers disagreed that a poor business plan was the reason for unsuccessful loan applications to the banks. However, the majority of respondents agreed that little business experience, businesses not registered/licensed and a lack of a referee were more important reasons for unsuccessful loan applications. More than half (54.46%, 55/101) of trainees, managers and trainers agreed on other reasons being that the trainee's small business was started less than one year ago, a lack of collateral (53.46%, 54/101) and lack of credit repayment history (51.48%, 52/101). It appears that banks perceive it as a risk to lend money for trainee's micro-enterprises when they are still at formative stage. These reasons constitute the challenges in accessing credit and financial services and are examined in detail in the qualitative findings below.

The qualitative research findings from interviews with managers and trainees respectively, further explain the findings in Table 7.10 above, including the perceived risks of lending money to trainees for micro-enterprises. All interviewed self-employed trainees stressed that they face challenges in accessing credit and financial services. A self-employed graduate explained the challenge in accessing credit as follows:

For those who never worked anywhere, it is even harder to get a loan. It is even harder and harder. If a person has not been employed, this means he/she is poor, the bank cannot consider the application for a loan. This is because the bank will obviously want to track you. And if you had never had an account or you have not been using your bank account for a while because you have been unemployed, it is very difficult to get a loan. It is very difficult to look at you.

This quote shows that having a previous work was one of the requirements to get a business loan from a bank. Managers were also asked to mention the way finance and credit policies enabled or disabled trainees to access loans. In addition to trainee's employment history as a

requirement to obtain a loan, four managers reported that the other challenge graduates encounter are that they must prove that they are reliable and credible before a bank can grant them a loan. A manager stated:

They want to know about the loan applicant's finance or income in terms of employment and salary. If they are not employed nor have no income, they cannot get a loan. Unless they have got three years of business experience and show the bank statement to prove how the money was coming in and out. The banks justify their risk perception of lending to trainee graduates on the basis they are inexperienced in managing small business; have inadequate management structures and systems in place. The other difficulty faced by the loan applicants is that our self-employed trainees lack financial skills, lack an accounting record of their business and their low quality of business plan.

Another manager said:

Banks are keen to grant a loan to a self-employed trainee. But the main problem is that the applicant should prove that he/she is reliable and able to repay the loan. Yet, these adult trainees are from poor background and have never been employed. They have nothing to present to the bank as proof of reliability. They have no home, no record, be it financial, social or physical. They are just by themselves. From the record the banks will know who you are; what have you done in life, where you come from. You must answer the questions such as: who are you? Where do you come from and what have you been doing in life regarding employment? You must answer all these questions in documentations.

It is clear from three quotes that the banks are keen to grant loans to trainees. However, they need a proof of reliability and credibility of the loan applicant through his/her employment history. The graduate trainees are not eligible to obtain a bank loan or credit due to their socio-economic situation. However, a knowledgeable centre manager in micro-finance institutions and lending policies said the following in relation to SME promotion policy and institutional environment change for micro-enterprises:

A long time ago, South Africa focused on big businesses. Now the focus is on SMMEs. If we can go back to the history during apartheid time, most of black people in RSA were not allowed to own a house. This situation created a problem to the loan applicants who are Black Africans because they could not provide collateral. But over the years there have been policy changes after many interventions. Micro-finance institutions do not ask for a house as collateral any more. With the existence of Ithala Bank, Absa Bank, Standard Bank and the implementation of SMME Fund in KZN, the government provides guarantee so that poor people cannot refrain from applying for a bank loan because of a lack of house as collateral.

This quote indicates that the provision of the SME promotion policies for micro-enterprises has relaxed the proof of a property as collateral. As result, micro-finance institutions do not require a house as collateral so that poor people can access also access bank loans. However, there are other restrictions in accessing a loan based on specific conditions. Despite SME promotion policy and institutional environment change for micro-enterprises, currently two main challenges emerged which discourage people who are poor from accessing credit and financial services. A manager explained these challenges as follows:

Currently there are two main problems with regard to granting a loan to micro-entrepreneurs. Firstly, instead of collateral, the banks ask for a commitment fee before they can grant a loan for a small business. Commitment fee is the applicant's contribution to the business. For example, a person wants to buy a mini-bus in order to establish taxi business. He has to pay half (50%) of the amount to purchase it and the bank will also pay other 50% of the remaining money. The commitment fee policy applies to every type of business be small or big. In this case, it is very difficult for a poor person to afford the commitment fee.

Secondly, the other problem resides on National Credit Bureau. If a person's name does not appear anywhere for credit, for example from a shop, that person is disqualified for a bank loan. The reason is that, if a person has no record anywhere that means he/she cannot be trusted. The banks want to check your record on how a person has been regularly paying the credits so they can trace him/her. In this case,

poor people have no credit record anywhere and have never been employed and thus a member of a certain bank.

The analysis of the information above shows that although it is possible, self-employed trainees are highly unlikely to access small business loans as they are too poor. With the National Credit Bureau policy, poor trainees were still vulnerable because they could not possess a credit record reflecting that they could be trusted and traced through their payment history as a result of being previously unemployed.

All six trainees and five managers interviewed stressed that the loan applicant has to provide acceptable documents prior to a loan award. Proof of identification and physical address were needed for a trainee to obtain a bank loan. Managers confirmed that it is hard for self-employed trainees to get a loan. One manager reported the challenges faced in accessing a loan as follows:

Banks do assist those small business entrepreneurs with soft loans. But a loan applicant needs to provide some documents such as ID book. The bank also needs to know for how long the loan applicant has been staying at the current physical residence or permanent address. Other requirements depend on the amount of the loan. An applicant should also provide information on the next kin who knows him or her better; and how long has he/she been at the physical address.

Another manager reported:

So, they [graduate trainees] cannot start a small business by having a loan because they cannot qualify for it. That is the problem our adult trainees are facing in order to become self-employed. A person who qualifies for a loan is he/she has done something previously as an experience of something that he/she has done. Now, the bank must ensure that the loan will be repaid back because the applicant has got skills and an experience of what and he/she has done before.

These quotes above and information from interviews with other managers reveal that meeting security requirements for the loan was the critical requirement on the side of the trainees. Managers said that, due to their socio-economic condition, trainees were incapable to meet the security requirements of the banks by proving that they are reliable and credible.

Table 7.11 below summarises the findings from all interviews on challenges in accessing credit and financial services. It identifies the key themes which emerged from challenges in accessing loans and credit from banks.

Table 7.11: Summary of the challenges in accessing credit and the consequences

Key themes	Sub-themes	Consequences
1. SME promotion policies change	No more house as collateral	No property as collateral
	Government provides loan guarantee for poor people	Poor may access bank loan for small business
2. Two new loan requirements	Need of commitment fee	Poor cannot afford it
	National Credit Bureau	No credit record, no loan
3. Proof of employment history	No salary from employment	No income, no loan award
	No proof of good credit record	No repayment record, no loan
	No active bank account	Lack of proof of credibility
4. Proof of reliability	Permanent residence	Some lack permanent address
	ID and other documentations	Lack of official documentations
	A referee or surety person	Most of them lack social capital
5. Proof of business experience	Being in business for 3 years	Trainees are new graduates
	Credible accounting system	They have no bookkeeping skills
	Regular streams of income	Unable to meet security requirements

The above qualitative information has shed much light on one of the underpinning concerns of the problem statement of this study; why trainees do not enter self-employment after obtaining the required skills. The problem resides on access to credit and financial services. As revealed in the findings above, the graduate trainees were not eligible to obtain a bank loan or credit due to their socio-economic situation which explain why they did not meet the security requirements of the banks. In connection with a lack of start-up capital and challenges in accessing a loan or credit, small business registration and licensing were also mentioned in Table 7.10 above (see section 7.5.2.2) as reasons for unsuccessful loan application to the banks.

7.5.3 Small business registration and licensing

Registering a micro-enterprise is an important starting point for any entrepreneur, in order to adhere to and comply with the laws governing business activity in South Africa (SEDA, 2010:7). In addition, the success or failure to obtain a bank loan also depends on business registration (see Table 7.10).

The quantitative research findings shed light on the real cause of the trainees not being able to register their small businesses. Trainees, managers and trainers were asked to indicate the extent they agreed or disagreed about the constraints and risks in registering small businesses. Chart 7.4 below shows that the challenge reside on the cost of legal services to register a small business.

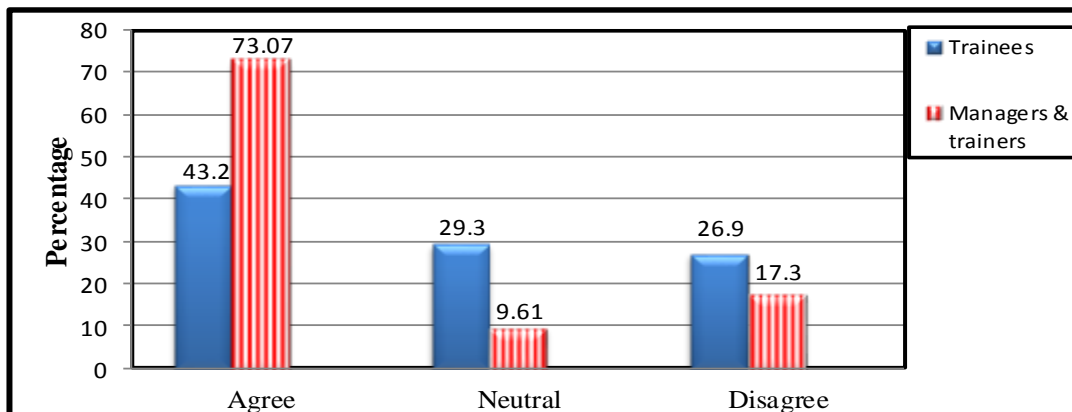


Chart 7.4: Is the cost of legal services the main challenge in registering a small business?

The examination of Chart 7.4 reveals that 73.07% (38/52) of managers and trainers agreed that the challenge of registering a small business was the high cost of legal services. Similarly, 43.2% (184/420) of trainees agreed on the high financial cost was the greatest challenge. A few trainees (26.9%, 11/420) and 17.3% (9/52) of managers and trainers disagreed that the high financial cost was a problem to register a small business. The remaining 29.3% (123/420) of trainees and 9.61% (5/52) of managers and trainers knew nothing about requirements and process of registering a small business. Furthermore, under the response to the question expressing an agreement on high cost of legal services to register a small business, a self-employed trainee said: “It was very hard for a poor woman and single parent living in a shack to obtain the amount of R450 for small business registration and licence.” Thus, in connection with Chart 7.4, many trainees could not afford registering a small business.

During one-on-one interviews, trainees were asked whether the process of registering a small business or co-operative was an enabling or disabling environment for self-employment. As mentioned in Chapter Four, section 4.5.1.3, SEDA provides information, business counselling, small business registration and business support services, targeting in particular, micro and small enterprises (including co-operatives) from all sectors throughout the country. The

responses from participants provide detailed information on the experience of trainees in registering their small businesses through SEDA. A female self-employed in tailoring business said:

I have tried to register my small business and it was not easy. But I went to Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA) office to find out how they could assist me to facilitate the registration of my small business. I came happy because the SEDA was willing to assist me in registering the business.

A self-employed trainee in ambulance service business mentioned being helped by SEDA:

It took me only one month to register my small business through SEDA. The only problem resided on obtaining ambulance accreditation from the Provincial Department of Health. I needed to submit my application for business registration to the head office in Pretoria with the accreditation certificate from the board of health in Pietermaritzburg. The certificate was to certify that my company was accredited as an ambulance service provider. I just had to comply with the requirements to register an ambulance company. It is very easy to register a small business because there are not too many requirements.

A female self-employed in beauty academy and salon business added:

It is not really difficult to register a small business if you know what you want. It requires R450 to register a business. In my case, with the help of SEDA, the process was not hard to register my business, it was as follows:

I sent five possible names of the business I wanted to register with to Pretoria; They told me that the name “Beauty Academy” was the only acceptable one and four other were not. If none of my names was accepted, I was supposed to give other five names; from there, it took a period of two months only.

These quotes indicate that registering small businesses of trainees was only easier once they were assisted by SEDA. The process of registering a small business is easy as also revealed in the document analysis (see Chapter 5, section 5.5). The interviews confirm that the process of small business registration was easy and simple if a trainee was assisted by SEDA. However,

many trainees could not afford the cost due to their financial situation. In connection with the failure of small businesses, a lack of access to Business Development Services (BDS) such as SEDA is among the major causes reported (see section 7.2.2.3 and Chart 7.2). The research findings reveal that there was no awareness about how SEDA could help self-employed trainees in business registration and post-training support in business.

7.5.4 Access to Business Development Services and information

The analysis of Chart 7.2 (see sub-section 7.2.2.3) reveal that one of the main causes of trainees' business failure in private centres were the lack of business mentorship or assistance (25%, 7/28) and access to business market information (21.42%, 6/28). Similarly on the side of qualitative findings, for both public and private centres (see Table 7.6 above), one of the suggested themes to sustain trainees' small businesses was the provision of business guidance or mentorship (78.3%, 83/106). The implication of these findings is that Business Development Services (BDS) is an important aspect of NFET creating enabling environments where SMEs would flourish. Table 7.12 below presents the sources of business information and advices trainees received for starting or developing small businesses.

Table 7.12: Sources of business information and advices

Sources of business information and advices		Trainees		Managers & Trainers		Total		Decision
		n	%	n	%	n	%	
No information and advice on business	Agree	193	59.02	22	42.3	215	56.72	Agree
	Neutral	34	10.39	3	5.76	37	9.76	
	Disagree	100	30.58	27	51.92	127	33.5	
Other entrepreneurs	Agree	77	23.54	20	38.46	97	25.59	Disagree
	Neutral	49	14.98	17	32.69	66	17.41	
	Disagree	201	61.46	15	28.84	216	57	
Friends who know my business	Agree	80	24.46	26	50	130	34.3	Disagree
	Neutral	33	10.09	8	15.38	41	10.81	
	Disagree	215	65.74	18	34.61	233	61.47	
Local municipality	Agree	53	16.2	16	30.76	69	18.2	Disagree
	Neutral	37	11.31	12	23.07	49	12.92	
	Disagree	237	72.47	24	46.15	261	68.86	
Agencies (SEDA)	Agree	79	24.15	22	42.3	101	26.64	Disagree
	Neutral	29	8.86	9	17.3	38	10.02	
	Disagree	219	66.97	21	4.38	240	63.32	
Total sample (379)		327	100	52	100	379	100	

On the part of trainees, Table 7.12 shows that the majority (59.02%, 193/327) of them agreed that they received no information and advice on micro-enterprise development from any agency or institutions, including other entrepreneurs, while 30.58% (100/327) of them disagreed. However, 51.92% (27/52) of managers and trainers disagreed that trainees received no information and advices on micro-enterprise development from any agency or institutions, including other entrepreneurs. This contradiction between trainees on one hand, and managers and trainers on the other implies that access to sources of business information and advices exists but it is limited.

Considering the sources of business information and advices, Table 7.12 shows that 57% (216/379) trainees, managers and trainers all together disagreed that trainees received business information and advices from other entrepreneurs; while only 25.59% (37/379) agreed. The majority (61.47%, 233/379) of the trainees, managers and trainers disagreed that trainees receive business information and advices from friends who know their businesses. In addition, 68.86% (261/379) of trainees, managers and trainers disagreed that trainees receive information or attend a mentorship programme of a local municipality; while only 18.2% (69/379) agreed. Furthermore, 63.32% (240/379) of trainees, managers and trainers disagreed that trainees have received advice from any agency such as SEDA, Ithala Bank and Khula, and only 26.64% (101/379) of them agreed that trainees receive business information and advice from the small enterprise agencies. As compared to previous findings in sub-section 7.2.2.4 (Post-training support for micro-enterprise development), these findings imply that most of the centre managers and trainers were not aware of where their self-employed trainees could receive post-training support in SMMEs. In connection with the failure of small businesses, as a lack of access to BDS, a lack of access to business premises is also mentioned among the major causes of business failure (see section 7.2.2.3 and Chart 7.2).

7.5.5 Access to business premises

It was mentioned in Chapter Two (section 2.3.3.6) that having a business premise was a requirement for accessing bank loans and financial services. It would also help the establishment of small business. In the survey questionnaire, respondents were asked to mention the extent they agreed or disagreed that accessing business premises was a challenge. The responses are displayed in Chart 7.5 below.

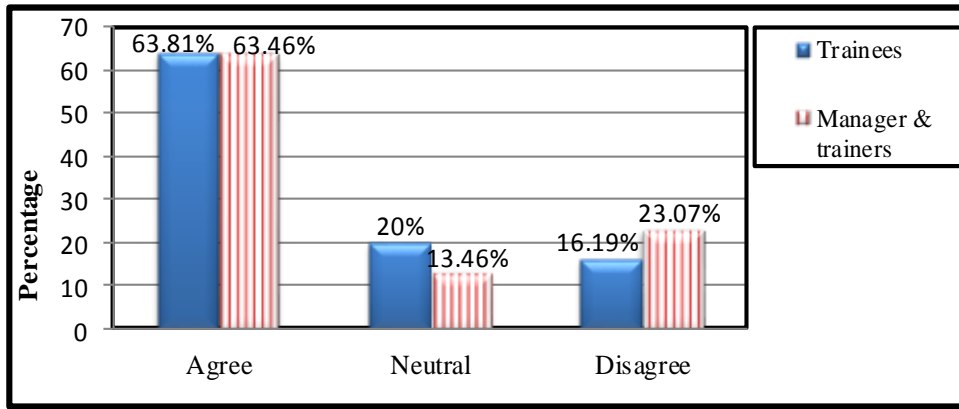


Chart 7.5: The extent of the challenges in access to business premises

It appears that finding a business premise was a second major challenge after accessing credit and financial services. Chart 7.5 above shows that 63.81% (268/420) of trainees and 63.46% of managers and trainers agreed that a lack of business premise was a challenge. Only 16.19% of trainees and 23.07% of managers and trainers disagreed.

Qualitative research findings further explain the challenges in accessing business premises. A graduate owning a tailoring workshop mentioned:

A lack of proper business premises is a major challenge we face in this sewing business. That is why the progress is slow. For this type of business to grow, I need orders from many customers. So, a lot of prospective customers do not come around because they do not know where my business is. I would like to rent a room for my business in a shopping mall, but at the moment I cannot do so because of a lack of money. What I mean is that it is very easy to find business premise within a shopping mall or at a suitable location. But the problem is the rent for rooms is high.

Another self-employed graduate owning a tailoring business reported the following:

Specifically in a shopping mall in town, business premises are easily found. But what is the problem is the cost of monthly rent fee. With my small business being at starting stage, I cannot afford paying the amount of money they always charge for a small room. What I am thinking is that when I will get at least two industrial machines, I will look for a partner to share monthly rent costs. But we will operate separately.

A self-employed trainee of a beauty salon explained the challenge as follows:

It is very hard to find business premises at reasonable price; the rent is unbelievable. The owners of the premises overcharge because they know people are desperately looking for premises. So, the rent prices are high. What I mean is that premises are available, but the rent fee is too much.

Managers also confirmed the challenge of accessing business premises. One manager mentioned the following:

As I am speaking now at this moment, there are some rooms in the shopping malls that are for rent. But the rent fee is too high for small business entrepreneurs. They cannot be selling chips yet paying R 2,000 per month. Premises and places for doing business are available; the only problem is our self-employed graduates cannot afford paying the rent fee as their income from the business is low.

It is evident from the above quotes that having fixed premises for small businesses was vital to trainees' micro-enterprise progress. The challenges were due to the affordability instead of availability. Trainees could easily find premises, but they were costly as compared to the size of the business and income.

In summary, this section focussed on examining the extent to which external enabling and disabling environments influenced NFET graduates entering the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal. At macro-level, the findings reveal that the SME promotion policies and related institutions are enabling external environments for the graduates entering the labour market in self-employment. However, the extent of knowledge of SME promotion policies and institutional environments is too little to allow centre managers and trainers to utilise the policies in order to create enabling environments for graduates to start and develop small businesses. Few managers and trainers who were aware of these external enabling environments were poorly informed about the application processes and the respective custodian institutions in order to provide post-training support of trainees in SMMEs. The little knowledge of SME promotion policies and institutional environments may be attributed to the poor institutional

linkages of the centre to promote trainee's entrepreneurship and as result, limited access to information, services and business opportunities that the state provides to graduate trainees.

With regard to access to business credit or loans, at macro-level, SME promotion policies constitute external enabling environments and graduate entrepreneurs may access bank loans for small business. Although the government provides loan guarantees for poor people, they are still subject to borrowing banks restrictions and other requirements. It is often the case that banks perceive lending trainee's micro-enterprises as risky. However, at micro-level (individual level), both quantitative and qualitative data confirm that a lack of start-up capital is the first disabling environment hindering trainees to enter self-employment after obtaining the required skills. Businesses registration and licensing fees, which the majority of self-employed trainees did not have, were the first and foremost requirements for a bank loan application. The second disabling environment is the lack of access to credit and financial services. The qualitative findings reveal that graduate trainees are not eligible for bank loans or credits because they cannot meet the security requirements of the banks. With regard to the nature of this second disabling environment, there are five main reasons for failure to meet the security requirements leading to unsuccessful loan applications.

Firstly, no loan is awarded without trainees' proof of employment history. Since the majority of trainees were unemployed prior to the skills training, the bank's requirement of proof of employment meant a total rejection for a small business loan being awarded. Secondly, there is no loan awarded without a trainee's proof of a good credit record or repayment history. Thirdly, there is no loan awarded without a trainee's financial record with a bank. In relation to the two previous reasons, it is difficult for an unemployed adult to have a bank account. For many of them the small business was their first employment in life. Banks required them to have firstly a bank account before receiving a business loan which they did not have.

Fourthly, though the SMME promotion policies seemed to be an external enabling environment, the findings reveal that trainees are unable to access business loans. The challenges occurred with the introduction of the commitment fee and Credit Bureau policy making graduate entrepreneurs unable to contribute or afford the half of the business fund required by a lending bank or to have a credit record. Fifthly, banks and micro-credit providers are not keen to provide loans when trainees just finished training programmes. This situation was worsened by the fact

that many trainees lacked financial management skills, accounting records and a poor quality business plan. However, the trainee's experience in business would allow the lending financial institution to check the cash flow and regular streams of income.

The process of small business registration and licensing constitute an external enabling environment for self-employment graduates at macro-level. The process is accessible and simple and the requirements are easy to comply with. SEDA provides assistance in registering small businesses or co-operatives. However, the challenge resides in the fact that many graduate entrepreneurs cannot afford the cost due to their financial situation. In other words, business registration is accessible but not affordable for trainees who are poor. In addition, it appears from the findings that there is a lack of knowledge about small business registration, the requirements, the procedure and the benefits in terms of applying for bank loans and the assistance from SEDA.

The findings from self-employed graduates reveal that Business Development Services (BDS) are external enabling environments for micro-enterprise start-up and development. However, the majority of graduates interested in self-employment did not have access to BDS because they were unaware about where and how to get information and advice on small business development. On the other hand, most of the centre managers are not aware of where their self-employed trainees could receive post-training support in SMMEs.

Business premises are available and accessible but not affordable. Self-employed graduates could easily find premises, but they are costly as compared to the size of the business and income from it. Due to financial constraints, trainees fail to find secure premises to establish a small business. The next section examines five individual case studies of graduates with regard to how the internal and external enabling environments were conducive for graduates to engage in self-employment.

7.6 Case studies of five self-employed trainees

The researcher selected five self-employed graduates for one-on-one interviews. The researcher had a particular purpose for interviewing individuals to determine if they were enabled in self-employment and what the determining factors were in this regard. The questions were based on

the following themes: Trainee's background, motivation for self-employment, the way a trainee started and progressed in self-employment, the post-training support for SME development, the constraints experienced in small business and the coping strategies, and the extent to which the new skills and the small business have enabled trainees to be successful in generating income and how this has change the lives of family members. The names in the stories are pseudonyms, used for anonymity and confidentiality purposes. The selection of the trainees was based on the following criteria as outlined in Chapter Five:

- Currently self-employed whether in informal business area or services area.
- Sole owner of the micro-enterprise or jointly owned with others.
- Reputable for excellence in their small businesses.
- Selected according to the type of technical and/or entrepreneurial course obtained on one side and type of micro-enterprise activity on the other.

The findings from this section supplement those in Chapter Six, sections 6.3; 6.4 and Chapter Seven, sections 7.2.2; 7.3; 7.4 and 7.5 above. The interviews was conducted by using a semi-structured interview schedule and the questions were drawn from the manager and trainee's survey questionnaires which were similar in both data collection instruments.

7.6.1 Case study 1: A sewing graduate in tailoring micro-enterprise

Mrs Mkize is 44 years old and married. She has two children. She studied sewing and fashion design skills and owns a sewing and fashion design business. She grew up in a poor family and her parents were not educated. Her father was constantly unemployed and died before she could complete her grade 12. In addition, her school was in a rural area of KwaZulu-Natal and the quality of education she received did not enable her to obtain a job afterwards. She got married at a young age without obtaining a Matric Certificate.

Marrying an unemployed man made her household life quite challenging. Her husband could not find a permanent job and the casual jobs he took provided very low wages because he had also not finished his basic education. He struggled to support his family, working very hard in bad conditions. As a result, he contracted tuberculosis and became chronically ill. When he could no longer work, Mrs Mkhize had only her husband's social grant to support the family.

When he could no longer work, Mrs Mkhize became the bread winner of the family. They used fire wood for cooking food.

Mrs Mkhize joined the adult training centre and chose to learn sewing and fashion design skills. She also wanted to start a sewing micro-enterprise in order to support her household. This was the only skill she could easily learn because she had started learning it from her widowed mother. She believed that her success in sewing and fashion design business was due to two factors: the practice of technical and business skills acquired at her centre; and non-financial external supports from her church and municipality. The training centre prepared her for the world of work in her current small business. Her trainers paid great attention to individual trainees before moving to another technical skill activity within a subject. After six months of training, she became competent and confident in technical skills in sewing any type of fashion garment and operating any type of sewing machine.

The centre also trained her in business skills. The business training focused on entrepreneurship, managing a workshop, marketing strategies, basic bookkeeping and quality insurance of their products. The training centre was organising visits and workshops outside in order for trainees to gain and learn new skills related to the sewing business. Mrs Mkhize with other trainees used to travel to conferences, workshops and industries. They also visiting fashion shops and stores in order to explore the latest models or clothing fashions. They also used to visit industries to buy fabrics.

The way Mrs Mkhize started her micro-enterprise and got where she is now in self-employment was very hard. At the beginning, her sister bought her a domestic sewing machine which she was still using by the time of research. She needed industrial machines to satisfy her customers with new fashions but she could not afford them because of a lack of start-up capital. Then she decided saving money every month in order to buy at least one industrial machine. Being a church member has helped her small business to grow. Her pastors and church members were her customers.

Mrs Mkhize did not receive any material or financial support from her training centre. But she usually received assistance from other agencies and Msundizi Municipality to develop her micro-enterprise. For instance, she got access to use the municipal workshop, furnished with

industrial sewing machines. The purpose of the workshop is to help poor residents involved in sewing and fashion self-employment to use the machines for their customers' clothes. Thus, she could use the workshop for free and get some advice on her small business.

Mrs Mkhize acknowledged that the skills in sewing and fashion design and micro-enterprise have helped her to improve her living conditions. The micro-enterprise has been generating an income sufficient to buy food, paying for school fees for her children and supporting her chronically ill husband. She has been very thankful to her training centre for making her who she is today with the family. "I have come very far in life. But today I am self-reliant earning an income from my small business, and living a dignified life. I thank God for our sewing and fashion training centre", she said.

7.6.2 Case study 2: A sewing graduate in tailoring micro-enterprise

Miss Gumede is 27 years old, a single parent with one child. She studied sewing and fashion design skills and owns a sewing and fashion design business. Her father was a dress maker and her mother was not employed. However, the father passed away when she was one year old. As a widow, the mother raised her and siblings in very difficult conditions. After completing her Matric Certificate, Miss Gumede could not pursue her university education because of poverty in the household. Before joining the training centre, she managed to provide for her basic needs by working on casual jobs, such as helping people in small businesses in her community and selling small products.

Miss Gumede joined the adult training centre and chose to learn sewing and fashion design skills for three reasons. Firstly, she did not have funds to go to the university or technical college. In order to get out of poverty, she decided to register for a cheap training but effective course and which would help her become self-employed. Secondly, she always wanted to be involved in sewing and a fashion career. Thirdly, she was not qualified for other types of activities. But in her community she saw opportunities to initiate a profitable business in fashion design and sewing.

Miss Gumede believed that her success in the micro-enterprise was due to the approach of skills training at her centre and centre's support. The curriculum consisted of technical or practical

skills in sewing and of business skills related to sewing industry. With regard to the technical skills training, all the resources and materials for practical training were in the centre's workshop. Trainers focused on each individual trainee to ensure that no one was left behind in mastering a particular task related to skills. The business skills training component consisted of training in entrepreneurship, marketing, basic bookkeeping and drawing up a business plan. Trainees also used to attend business shows and seminars outside their centre.

The way Miss Gumede started her tailoring micro-enterprise and got where she is now in self-employment was by the start-up capital received from her training centre. At the graduation ceremony the NGO managing the training centre donated a new sewing machine and R5, 000 to start a small business to each of the trainees. In her case, that new machine helped her to starting sewing from home. When the number of customers grew, she requested a workshop room in the premises of the same NGO managing the training. She continued to receive technical assistance from her trainers for the machines or advice on sewing a certain style of fashion.

Miss Gumede acknowledged that the training in sewing and fashion design and the micro-enterprise have helped to improve her living conditions. She was unemployed before the training and this was her first job in life after struggling with poverty and unemployment. Also the small business was generating an income sufficient to buy food, paying for school fees for her child and other relatives. "I can honestly tell you that I am who I am today in life because of the training and business in fashion design and sewing," she stressed. She was now a university student in financial accounting; and her micro-enterprise was helping her afford tuition fees.

7.6.3 Case study 3: A basic paramedic graduate in ambulance service business

Mr Mthembu is 35 years old, married and a father of five children. He studied a basic paramedic course and SMME at his training centre and is self-employed in ambulance service business in the rural areas of KwaZulu-Natal. Despite poverty in his family, he could not complete his basic education because he had been running away from school several times. He only completed Grade 11 while paying school fees himself. It was very hard to survive because he could not find any decent job anywhere. Whatever job he was finding was either to herd cattle in rural areas of Northern KwaZulu-Natal or garden work. He joined a training centre and chose to

study a basic paramedic course because of unemployment and he had basic skills in medical rescue. He met an Indian gentleman in Durban who used him as a helper in his ambulance service.

The way Mr Mthembu started his ambulance service business and got where he is now in self-employment was very difficult. As he was a helper in ambulance service after training, he just decided that enough was enough; he must stop working for someone and start his own ambulance service. But the problem resided on financial resources. His family was not financially able to support him. Moreover, he did not know how to register a business. So, he approached Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA) for assistance by telling them that he saw a business opportunity within the rural communities to initiate an ambulance service. SEDA did not support him financially, but assisted to register the business and was ready to provide business counselling and technical assistance.

In the beginning, his business consisted of approaching companies that were organising events and providing emergency services. He was hiring the ambulance vehicles of the company he worked for in order to provide the emergency services during events. He used to provide the emergency services for companies or organisations having special events and conferences. He also negotiated with the KZN-Department of Sport to provide ambulances during soccer matches in the rural areas for six months. While doing this type of business he succeeded to save R 150,000 which he used to purchase his own second hand ambulance. Later he bought another four.

Mr Mthembu recognised that the ambulance service business had an impact on his living conditions and that of his family. It was generating an income sufficient to buy food and paying for school fees for his children. He was also able to save money to develop the equipment and buy more vehicles. The five vehicles he bought are part of his personal assets and registered under his own name.

7.6.4 Case study 4: Agricultural technology and SMME graduates in a co-operative

Mrs Cele is 48 years old, a widow and mother of five children. She studied agricultural technology and SMME at her centre. After graduation, she and other four trainees formed a co-

operative for poultry and vegetables in her township. She completed matric but could not find a job. After the death of her husband, life became very hard. As a mother of five and an unskilled woman, she used to go to several shops and offices in her township and town seeking a casual job, but she could not get any. Sometimes she could get a piece job which lasted for two to five days with only a small remuneration. The little money she was getting was helping her to buy food only for her children. The family was also depending on social grant support for her children. Despite that, most of the days they used to go bed hungry.

Mrs Cele joined the adult training centre and chose to learn agricultural technology and SMME for two main reasons. Firstly, she needed an income to improve her household's life. Secondly, she was already 48 years old and could not be employed any easily. The only way she could earn a living was to be involved in small business. When they completed the training programme, the centre manager and trainers advised her to start a project in a group. But the group had to find out what type of small business was marketable in their township; and which could be profitable. Then, they decided to initiate a poultry and vegetable co-operative.

Mrs Cele believed that their success in co-operative was due to the skills training approach of the centre. The technical and business training were more practical than theoretical in order to prepare them for the world of work in the current small business. Their trainers were also advising them about each profitable business in the community and the proper season to undertake it in the year. Sometimes trainees could visit some small businesses in the local community and interview the owners. The reason for choosing the type of co-operative was to bring an income for their household and create jobs for other poor residents.

The way Mrs Cele started their co-operative and got where they are now in self-employment was very hard because of a lack of start-up capital. But they were determined with regard to the poultry co-operative and where to get the chicks. So, at the beginning, as a group of five members, they decided to contribute R 100 to buy chicks, food, medicines and useful poultry equipment and appliances. At first they worked without expecting any profit, this was a sacrifice. Though they suffered a lot, they hoped to reap one day. Mrs Cele mentioned that, "What I can say regarding our poultry project is that we work hand-in-hand with all members." At the time of data collection, they had not yet received any financial and material support from

any institution or agency. They were using the same income from sales of chickens to buy chicks, food, medicines and equipment.

The eThekweni Municipality has offered them premises for the agricultural project, and they have now started planting vegetables. The municipality and Absa Bank have again promised to provide more support for the success of the co-operative. However, beside the lack of financial support, the most important motivation that drove Mrs Cele and her team members to continue operating the co-operative was its profitability. In their township poultry farming is marketable and profitable as well. Customers prefer buying live chickens instead of frozen ones from the shops. This is why customers always came and bought chickens in advance, while they were still at the poultry enterprise.

Mrs Cele agreed that the skills in agricultural technology and SMME, and their co-operative have helped her to improve her living conditions. The poultry co-operative brings income to her family. She said, “I am now able to buy groceries and appliances that I need in the house. I can tell you that through this project, my life has changed a lot.” She honestly stressed that she expected more changes in her household when the project grows; because at the time they were still dividing the small allowance among members.

7.6.5 Case study 5: A beauty training graduate in beauty training academy and salon

Mrs Zondi is 32 years old, married, and has a family of two children. She studied beauty training and SMME and owns a beauty training academy and salon. She completed her Matric Certificate (Grade 12), but could not further her education at university because of poverty. To overcome poverty, she decided to train for beauty and SMME in her centre in order to open her own small business. After completing the training, there came a time she was selected by Revlon South Africa among eight women as its make-up artist. The company took her to Botswana to train women in beauty. By that time she realised that if a big company could take her outside her country to teach other women the beauty business that was the type of business she could undertake.

The way Mrs Zondi started her beauty training academy and beauty salon and got where she is now in self-employment was also hard due to financial constraints. From her training centre, she

knew how to start, manage and register a small business. But she had to use her savings as start-up capital. What actually drove her to continue with the business was the fact that she was receiving young women who wanted to be taken in the beauty industry. So, she felt compassionate to train them because they could not afford paying for the same training at private colleges. She used her salon as a workshop for practice and internship for her trainees to get more experience. This made her proud and happy to see that she was contributing towards young girls' lives.

Mrs Zondi did not receive any material or financial support from her training centre. But SEDA facilitated her to register the business and to get a bank loan from a financial institution. Since she has attended several training programmes in small business development at SEDA, it continued informing her about other relevant business workshops on business and financial management, business planning and marketing. It has greatly helped in her marketing strategy such as producing business cards and flyers advertisement. Moreover, SEDA has also assisted her to renting a place. At her previous business premises she was paying R 9,500 per month. At the time of data collection, SEDA had provided her with a free business premises.

Mrs Zondi acknowledged that the skills in beauty training and her beauty training academy and salon had helped her to improve her living condition. The impact of her business is that she could now pay for food, bills and afford children's school fees. She was also able to save money every month. There has also been a social impact with regard to the business in terms of improving the relationship with her husband. She had not ever been happy in marriage before the small business. So, she would advise unemployed young people to become self-employed.

7.6.6 Main observations from the case studies of five self-employed trainees

Some of the main observations emerging from the analysis of the five case studies of five self-employed trainees are highlighted in this sub-section. Themes and sub-themes are presented in Table 7.13 below. The main cause behind the success in starting micro-enterprises of the five self-employed trainees is the fact that the NFET was combined with livelihood skills and income generation for the target beneficiaries. The NFET programmes aimed at income generating activities to compensate disadvantaged adults living in absolute poverty faced in their lives.

Table 7.13: Themes and sub-themes emerged from case studies of self-employed trainees

Key themes and sub-themes	Observations from data analysis
1. Trainee's background	
1.1 Poverty due to unemployment	All five trainees were unemployed and had very hard living conditions prior to the training intervention. Their parents or spouses were also unemployed. The analysis shows that there is a causal link between the facts of being born from poverty entrenched household, quality of education and employment prospects at adult age.
1.2 Household headed by a female single parent	Trainees who were single parents were the most vulnerable due to the high responsibility of taking care of children alone while being unemployed. This appears to be the main motivation to gain livelihood skills at the training centres.
1.3 Poor quality education and a lack of livelihood skills	Four trainees who became successfully self-employed had at least considerable education achievement (grades 11 and 12) but could not find employment because of poor quality education, and not being taught livelihood skills and entrepreneurship at schools. Thus, they were wage- and self-unemployable.
1.4 Livelihood strategies for survival	In order to survive, their livelihood strategies ranged from casual jobs, street vending to volunteer work in the community. Only two were relying on inadequate social support grants for their children and sick husband.
2. Motivation for training	Observations from data analysis
2.1 Unemployability and unique opportunity for employment	Absolute poverty was the primary motivation to acquire practical skills for self-employment. The centre training programmes were their second and the last opportunity to enter labour market through self-employment. Without livelihood skills, they were still unemployable despite having a Matric Certificate.
2.2 Passion for skills training and opening own business	Though some had casual jobs, they were looking for a cheap but effective skills training course for self-employment. This would lead them into the types of small business envisioned. So, there was a link between a trainee's objective and needed training to achieve it.
2.3 Prior basic skills	It appears that there is an associative link between the basic skills a trainee learnt from home, the effectiveness of skills acquisition and the success in the SME. This link was the internal enabling factor of trainee's skills acquisition and utilisation in an own small business.
2.4 Seeing an opportunities for profitable business	Prior to training and becoming self-employed, trainees did market analysis and discovered business opportunities (enabling environment). They discovered a real demand for the types of small business within a community. An examination of the five case studies reveals that the key points in their market analysis were: supply of products or services, competition, customers and support.
2.5 Motivation from centre managers and trainers (enabling environment)	A start-up of a trainee's micro-enterprise is also depended on the centres' incentive and material support in fostering graduates starting the initiative immediately after graduation. The centre or

	SEDA had to nurture the young entrepreneurs at beginning phase of the SME.
2.6 Motivation from training delivery approach (enabling environment)	The analysis of the cases reveals that integrating technical skills with business skills (marketing, basic bookkeeping, entrepreneurship and business plan) motivated trainees to start SME after graduation with the small financial resources they possessed.
3. Training delivery approach	Observations from data analysis
3.1 A combination of practical skills with business skills (enabling environment)	The approach was trainee-centred and directly intended to solve a trainee's problem of unemployment. What made the training more relevant to the needs and objective of trainees was not the only practical aspect of the technical training, but also the combination of technical and business skills.
3.2 Training in workshops and in the world of work (enabling environment)	The analysis of the stories reveals that adult trainees were able to acquire skills efficiently because the training approach consisted of "learning by doing" in the workshops or in real world of work environment. There was a mixture of theory and on-the-job practical training, a fact which facilitated a transfer from skills acquisition to skill utilisation in the small business after graduation
3.3 Visits to workshops, businesses and industries (enabling environment)	This training delivery approach fostered the effectiveness of skills acquisition and utilisation for these particular trainees. During study tours, they could observe various income generating programmes in different settings. It appears that different successful businesses inspired them to imitate good practice for future endeavour.
4. From skills training to self-employment in SME	Observations from data analysis
4.1 Financial challenge (disabling environment and coping strategies)	All five successful trainees stressed that financing the small business was the major challenge hampering the process of utilisation of the skills in self-employment. However, it is clear from their stories that three factors helped them start and sustain the business: self-determination to improve their living condition, endurance without any income, own savings and financial contributions.
4.2 Alternative start-up capital and limited centre supports (enabling environment)	Since trainees could not easily access bank loans, financial contribution, own savings, stokvel and financial support from relatives were the alternative financial arrangement in order trainees to start and develop their small businesses. The case studies also reveal that some of the centre provided start-up capital, tools and equipment to help graduates establish their SMEs.
4.3 Lack of business experience and post-training counselling (disabling environment and coping strategies)	It is obvious that starting a small business was too hard not only because of financial challenge, but also because of a lack of business experience and post-training counselling in business. However, their endurance in the first phase of small business was due to four factors: they were not qualified for other types of economic activities; they needed an income to improve their household lives; the small businesses were their first job in life;

	and there was a demand for the service or business in the community.
4.4 Starting business from home, then to a premise (coping strategies)	Starting the business from home was the result of motivation trainees received from the centre management. This allowed the micro-entrepreneurs to save money for other work equipment.
5. Post-training support for SME development	Observations from data analysis
5.1 A limited post- training support: technical (enabling environment)	The support that a very few centres could easily provide to graduates was assistance in forming co-operatives and irregular technical assistance. These supports created confidence in trainees by relying on the counselling and network with their respective centres.
5.2 SEDA and support to trainee entrepreneurs (enabling environment)	SEDA acted as a referee in helping eligible trainees to access bank loans, to fulfil tax obligations; as mentor in business management and marketing. It has also assisted in business registration for those trainees who were aware of its programmes in SMME development.
5.3 Access to free municipal services for trainees (enabling environment)	It is evident that local municipalities have established free services and facilities available to help trainee entrepreneurs to promote and develop SMEs. However, the stories reveal that many trainees were not aware of the enabling environment for self-employment.
6. Needed post-training supports	Observations from data analysis
6.1 Financial support	While bank loans were not accessible due to security requirements, trainees expressed the great need for soft loans to sustain the newly established businesses. From the analysis of the stories, it appears that trainees would prefer applying for financial schemes that require low interest rates to young entrepreneurs. They wanted soft loan programmes designed to help those graduate trainees who are unemployed, over the initial start-up phase on their small business.
6.2 Business mentorship	This also was mostly stressed by the trainees in the stories. They expressed the need for mentors to overcome two major problems that face young entrepreneurs: business experience and lack of networks.
7. Constraints and coping strategies	Observations from data analysis
7.1 Lack of premise/household micro-enterprise	Finding a suitable and affordable business premise was a second major challenge after start-up capital. However, it was mitigated in two ways. Firstly, starting the business from home, and then shifting to affordable premises. The strategy allowed the trainees to save money for tools, equipment and rent fees. Secondly, some trainees were able to secure free business premises within the compound of the training centre and SEDA or using municipal facilities.
7.2 Lack of business finance/ working in group	Working in group enterprise organisation as seen in the story IV (graduates in a co-operative) had two advantages: overcoming

	financial constraints by contribution toward start-up capital and presenting small business to the municipality, commercial banks and other agencies that can help develop the livelihood of the poor in the community.
8. Impact of the training programmes	Observations from data analysis
8.1 Improved household income	Graduates were contributing to family income due to the profitability of the SMEs. There was also improved household income. Trainees also mentioned the increase of assets in the home.
8.2 Improved household nutrition	The stories suggest that there was improvement in diet. This may be attributed to the change in the household income.
8.3 Improved children education	They are not worried about the school fees and the future of children because of the income from the SMEs.
8.4 Improved marital relationship	A wife's contribution to the household income helped her earn greater respect from husband; and economic independence.
8.5 Improved living conditions of households	There are clear indications that NFET programmes make significant differences for those who became self-employed in micro-enterprises. The employment generation resulted in improved living conditions for the households were pointed out as the key positive impact mentioned in the stories.

Self-employed trainees appear to have succeeded in generating incomes not merely due to the practical skills acquired. Rather the overall process skills development and the strong emphasis on entrepreneurship and post-training support that has added value to NFET programmes.

7.7 Summary

This chapter considered the overall effectiveness of the NFET centre's external enabling environments in fostering trainees' employment in KwaZulu-Natal by presenting a detailed comparative analysis of public and private NFET centres. The investigation was based on the effectiveness of external environments in fostering the utilisation of skills into employment, transforming external environment fostering the utilisation of skills into employment and the enabling/disabling external environments for the graduates entering the labour market. Considering the wide context of the external environments of the centres contributing to skills utilisation into employment, both quantitative and qualitative research has revealed more of disabling environments than enabling environments.

With regard to wage-employment of the trainees, using the distribution of means of getting wage-employment and post-training support as indicators for measuring the effectiveness the external environments, the findings reveal that the centres did not sufficiently create conducive factors to foster graduate trainees' wage-employment. With regard to self-employment of the trainees, more trainees (42.85%, 63/147) became entrepreneurs in small business areas such as tuck shops, food and co-operatives than in other types of businesses. This positive finding suggests that some centres focussing on self-employment in micro-enterprises endeavoured to create external enabling environments in assisting trainees to establish micro-enterprises or co-operatives. However, the disabling environment is that there were no mechanisms designed to assist graduate trainees in wage-employment or in starting an own small business. As result, findings reveal that the root cause of the trainee's business failure was attributed to the lack or inadequacy of post-training support for micro-enterprise development. The findings further show that the inadequate post-training support programmes in micro-enterprise or co-operative is basically rooted in the lack of knowledge about the available business incubation programmes provided by local agencies and municipalities.

With regard to the external environments in fostering links, the findings reveal that the inadequate centre linkages with external environments constituted a disablement for the utilisation of skills in wage-or self-employment. However, public and private centre managers reported that in most of the cases the linkages with the external role-players or other stakeholders for fostering skills utilisation in wage-employment of graduates were not effective. Besides this outcome, the findings show that public centres had weak linkages with external environments. The reasons were diverse; but the most common are three: manager's time constraint, types of training programmes offered (wage-employment or self-employment), manager's professional training and top-down approach of skills training programmes. On the contrary, the private centres had informal linkages, though insufficient, because they focused on self-employment and income-generating programmes which needed the involvement of other stakeholders for programme effectiveness.

With regard to the findings from the comparative case studies; practically, public centres were limited to training in wage-employment. They did not connect the skills training programmes with informal micro-enterprises. The case studies reveal the reason why most of the public centres do not train in technical skills courses leading to self-employment in micro-enterprise, is

because they require high investment costs in terms of workshops and equipment. The study found few examples of successful cases of innovative training programmes for self-employment on the side of public centres. In contrary, the private centres have important advantages for offering training for self-employment in the informal micro-enterprise sector. While their skills training programmes were not always demand-led, their training delivery approach put them in a position to better address the needs and interests for immediate employment of the trainees. However, they had three major weaknesses in offering the training as disabling environments. Firstly, the training programmes and certificates were not accredited by body namely Sectoral Education and Training Authority (SETA). Second, they had inadequate post-training support mechanisms to help graduates sustain in the self-employment. Third, they had a significant challenge of limited and insecure funding, which resulted in training being irregular.

With regard to external enabling/disabling environments at macro-level, the government has enacted the legal and regulatory environments to enable for the trainees entering into wage-employment or start a micro-enterprise. However, the quantitative data has revealed that these legal and regulatory environments cannot be considered as external enabling environments because the centre managers and trainers are not aware of, or had a limited knowledge of them. Similarly, the government enacted SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises to facilitate access to loans and credits from the banks. These are the enabling environment at macro-level. However, both quantitative and qualitative findings confirmed that small business funding was one of the major challenges hindering trainees to enter self-employment after obtaining the required skills. The disabling environment dilemma consists on micro-level. The qualitative findings suggest that the graduate trainees were not eligible to obtain bank loans or credits because they cannot meet the security requirements of the lending banks.

Case studies of five self-employed trainees highlight significant elements of internal and external enabling environments for self-employment at three levels. At micro-level, the enabling environments are: Prior basic skills of trainees; graduates discovering opportunities for a profitable business; passion for skills training and opening own business, graduates using alternative sources start-up capital by graduates and starting business from home, then shift to a suitable premise. At meso-level, the enabling environment consisted of motivation from centre managers and trainers to start an own micro-enterprise immediately after graduation, motivation

emerging from training delivery approaches which involve a combination of practical skills with business skills; training in workshops and in the world of work; visits to workshops, businesses and industries. Furthermore, some private centres provide start-up capital, tools and equipment to help graduates establish their SMEs. At macro-level the enabling environments entail credit referees and post-training support to trainee entrepreneurs from SEDA, and access to free municipal services for trainees.

The impact of NFET on self-employed trainees is notable on the improved household income, improved household nutrition, improved child education and improved living conditions of households. Among other findings, this comparative analysis has helped the researcher to identify key elements of enabling and disabling environments for employment. These findings together with the key findings from this study, will be presented in the next chapter, combining towards an integrated framework for NFET programmes that match adult training and the labour market with regard to both wage-employment and self-employment.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION OF KEY FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on key findings, conclusions and recommendations. It discusses how the goal and objectives of the study have been achieved. The first section of the chapter discusses the key findings of the study. The key findings are drawn from the themes discussed in the previous two chapters and are validated by relevant literature. Based on key findings, conclusions are drawn and finally recommendations are made.

8.2 Discussion of the key findings

The key findings will be presented under themes in relation to internal and external enabling and disabling environments. This will be followed by a brief discussion and integration of literature.

8.2.1 Key findings 1: Internal enabling environments for skills acquisition

- Selection criteria of private centres' training programmes constitute enabling environments.
- In private centres, a combination of technical skills with business skills is an effective training delivery approach that prepares most of the trainees for employment.
- Most trainees acquire technical skills, knowledge and competencies necessary to work without supervision in wage- or self-employment.
- Most trainees acquire business skills and knowledge for starting, growing and managing a small business.

The trainee selection criteria of centres' training programmes constitute the enabling environments in private centres. After the general process of selection, prospective trainees are called for further selection interviews specifically for purposes of wage-employment or self-employment (see Chapter Six, sub-section 6.4.1.2). Selected trainees intending to use the skills to start an own business is one of the internal enabling environments of NFET centres contributing to skills acquisition and employment outcomes (see Chapter Seven, sections 7.4

and 7.6). These findings correlate with those in Pena's (2010:16) study. The study revealed that the training was proven to be effective because trainees who fulfilled the preliminary selection criteria were called back for a more detailed evaluation of their eligibility on the training. Pena (2010:19) argues that the selection procedure may affect the effectiveness of the training delivery and the outcomes of the programme.

In private centres, a combination of technical skills with business skills is an effective training delivery approach that prepared most of the trainees for low-skilled wage- or self-employment. The mode and approach consist of 75% practice and 25% theory and focuses on own income-generating activities. It is based on workshops, on-the-job training and project-based training. The training approach is based on the principle of 'learning by doing, learning by producing and learning by earning'. These findings are similar to those by Islam and Mia (2007:96) in the NFET study in Bangladesh and Blaak, et al.'s (2012:93) study in Uganda. In these two studies, the training delivery approach for skills training acquisition was directed at producing services, goods and marketing of the products. Likewise, the practice of the skills also allowed trainees to earn some income while they participated in training programmes.

The findings showed that technical and business training (or entrepreneurship training) were more practical than theoretical in order to prepare trainees for the world of work in small businesses or co-operatives. In contrast, within the context of NFET in KZN, studies by Mjoli (2007:84) and Haan (2006:119) in Zambia, Tanzania and Senegal revealed that as a disabling environment, the training programmes did not have a focus on providing business skills for trainees who wanted to become self-employed.

Most trainees acquired technical skills, knowledge and competencies necessary to work for others without supervision in wage- or self-employment. As 73.57% of trainees reported to have gained competencies, it is an indicator of the effectiveness of the internal training delivery contributing to technical skills acquisition. This effectiveness regarding skills acquisition by trainees was also reported in the studies by Tekle (2010), Islam and Mia (2007), and Georgiadou, et al. (2009). However, in the context of the NFET in KZN it is evident that no general conclusion can be drawn on the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environments contributing to technical skills acquisition for four reasons.

Firstly, in most of the public centres the training delivery consists of 75% theory and 25% practice, thus, working and learning were not closely integrated. Secondly, with regard to the delivery approaches for skills acquisition in most of the centres, the trainees do not have opportunities of on-the-job training in companies, projects or businesses. Thirdly, there are inadequate human and material resources. Fourthly, as discussed below, only one NFET centre uses a workplace assessment and certification conducted by an external company, agency or employers. These four reasons regarding the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environments are congruent with responding to the question of King and Palmer (2010:49): “What does it mean to acquire skills?” Many skills training provisions in adult centres are usually of low-quality, trainees have little access to up-to-date equipment, are situated mostly in rural areas and training materials are insufficient.

Most trainees acquired business skills and knowledge for starting, growing and managing a small business. The internal training delivery environments contributing to business skills and knowledge acquisition are effective. The private centres had higher scores on business skills and knowledge because they mainly focus on self-employment or income-generating activities in micro-enterprises. As innovative elements of training delivery, firstly, combining technical skills with business skills proved more relevant for the income-generating activities of graduates. These findings are in contrast with Haan’s (2006:122) study whereby in public and private centres trainees were not taught any business skills nor motivated to explore existing opportunities for self-employment.

Secondly, visits to workshops, businesses and industries may have motivated trainees to start own businesses. The case studies of self-employed trainees provided evidence of the effectiveness of this training delivery approach. Connecting the study’s findings to Blaak, et al.’s (2012:92) argument, during study tours, trainees could observe various income generating programmes in different settings. It appears that different successful businesses inspired them to imitate good practice for future endeavour.

8.2.2 Key findings 2: Internal disabling environments for skills acquisition

- The trainee selection criteria of centres’ training programmes constitute the disabling environments in public centres.

- The process of the training needs assessment (TNA) was not based on trainees' felt needs for immediate income-generating activities.
- There was a mismatch between the expectation of starting a small business and its achievement means (start-up capital).
- A lack of financial resources results in little investment in human and material resources and hence impacts on skills acquisition more in public than private centres.
- The mode and approach of training delivery that the public centres use do not efficiently prepare trainees neither for wage-employment nor to start income-generating activities.
- A lack of workplace assessment and certification conducted by an external company, agency or employers constitutes a disabling environment.

The trainee selection criteria of centre's training programmes constitute the disabling environments in public centres. A lack of proper selection of suitable trainees to suitable training according to age cohorts has resulted in a mismatch between older trainees' objective for self-employment and the training intervention (see Chapter Six, sub-section 6.4.1.2). These findings are similar to those by Tekle's (2010:85) study in the context of Farmer Training Centre (FTC) - based training in Ethiopia. Because of a lack of clear selection criteria, the centres admitted to the training programmes - even those who wished to have just knowledge in agricultural technology - failed to select the needy trainees who would use the skills for income-generating activities.

These findings are congruent with Pena's (2010:16) argument that failure in the selection process may disable the effectiveness of the training delivery internal environment and of the intervention. A number of studies confirm that when adult training programmes for employment admit target beneficiaries with clear selection criteria for the training, the effectiveness of skills will be achieved (Jjah & Patrick, 2012; Pena, 2010; Finn, Baxter & Onur, 2014; Strassburg, 2010). Likewise, the lack of strong selection criteria may result in waste of financial resources. The resources can for example be diverted from the needy beneficiaries who have the greatest ability to utilise the learnt skills for income-generating activities in order to improve their living conditions.

The process of the training needs assessment (TNA) was not based on trainees' felt needs for immediate income-generating activities. In most of the centres, the TNA did not consider

closing the gap between trainees' felt needs on the one side, and their basic skills, experience and the wage-, or self-employment opportunities in the community on the other side. Similarly, for a trainee aiming to become wage-employed, nothing was known about what job opportunities were available in the communities, or the networks and services a trainee has availed for wage-employment. These findings are congruent with those in Tekle's (2010:58) study revealing that in the sample FTCs, an organised and planned TNA was not well conducted; thus the training was mostly not need-based. Jjuuk and Kwiri (2010:4) add that most of the training centres overlook in the TNA process the technical and/or business skills' gap of the prospective trainees for purposes of wage-employment or micro-enterprise opportunities.

There was a mismatch between the expectation of starting a small business (self-employment) and its achievement means (start-up capital). In all centres, it was the least important expectation to be linked with banks for credit/loans. Nevertheless, the great majority of the trainees were absolutely and chronically poor (see Chapter Six, section 6.3.2). This means that at the training programme design stage there are no plan and mechanisms in place aiming at assisting a graduate in starting a small business. These findings are similar to those by Mjoli (2007:84) who reported that in KZN the poultry training centres did not consider designing mechanisms in order to achieve the expectations of trainees interested in establishing their own poultry businesses. By not linking the expectation of starting a small business to its achievement means, constitutes a disabling environment for micro-enterprise promotion. Dunkley (2008:52) advises that matching the trainee's expectations and planning mechanisms to achieve them is one of the important enabling environments in adult NFET.

A lack of financial resources results in little investment in human and material resources and hence impacting on skills acquisition more in public centres than in private centres. These findings are similar to those in the studies conducted by King and Palmer (2007:51) and Owusu-Mensah (2007:7) in Ghana. The studies revealed that the lack of centres' financial resources to buy training tools and equipment was one of the challenges hindering the poverty reduction outcomes of the Skills Training and Employment Placement (STEP) programmes (King & Palmer 2007:51; Owusu-Mensah, 2007:7). As a result, the skills training programmes were leading to the creation of 'half-baked' skills acquisition (King & Palmer, 2007:51).

Challenges in human and material resources hinder the effectiveness of internal training delivery environments for skills acquisition. Trainers in most of the public centres focus more on theoretical training in the classroom, and hence there is a high probability to contribute to trainees not being competent in practical skills acquisition. In public centres, trainers are well-qualified in adult education and training, but lack technical expertise as related to the technical training courses. These findings highlight what Palmer (2007b:405) and King and Palmer (2010:49) point out that effective skills training cannot be achieved in the absence of decent training internal environments. The availability of human and material resources is thus a paramount enabling environment for effective skills acquisition. On the contrary, to overcome the challenge in human resources, private centres are benefiting from the support of part-time trainers who are directly involved in the world of work in the local communities.

The mode and approach of training delivery that the public centres use do not efficiently prepare trainees neither for wage-employment nor to start income-generating activities. Except in one public centre, the training delivery consists of 75% theory and 25% practice which means that the training approach is centre-based instead of on-the-job training or project-based (see Chapter Six, section 6.4.2.2). There is a lack of workshops and field work to facilitate a balance between theory and practice. Similarly, Blaak, et al. (2012:95) in their study found that the disabling delivery approach of 75% theory was due to the lack of facilities for workshops and practical training. This lack also contributed to the mismatch between skills training and the market requirements. In contrast, the findings from Blaak, Openjuru and Zeelen's (2012:93) NFET study in Uganda revealed that while the centres lacked facilities for workshops and skills training practitioners for practical sessions, the centre managers were exposing trainees to different workshops and materials available in the community.

A lack of workplace assessment and certification conducted by an external company, agency or employers constitutes a disabling environment. This lack implies that the centres do not ensure that the skills competencies are demand-based to fit job requirements (ILO, 2011b:25). The workplace certification could help the centres and prospective employers to determine the level of competence at benchmark level which links the skills training to the specific task on the job. Furthermore, the external assessment and certification would foster the recognition and legitimacy of the trainee's qualification on the labour market of the acquired skills by the employers in the public and private sectors (Koudahl, 2010:3). Furthermore, the

findings imply that the recognised certification would also be helpful for NFET graduates to get access to wage-employment in the informal micro-enterprises (IMEs) sector for the purpose of gaining work experience before they become self-employed.

8.2.3 Key findings 3: External enabling environments fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment

- NFET effectiveness on overall employment is 52.37% after graduation. Graduates from the private centres are more likely to become employed than in public centres.
- Trainees' main expectation after graduation was an enabling or disabling environment for employment.
- There is a relationship between trainees' training courses and employability.
- There is a limited enabling environment for finding wage-employment in the rural areas, whereas the probability of finding jobs in the urban and peri-urban areas is very low.
- The training delivery approach enables graduates to save money as a major source of start-up capital followed by group members' contributions.
- Private centres have informal linkages with public institutions and agencies or the private sectors without a signed partnership and a memorandum of understanding.

NFET effectiveness on overall employment is 52.37% after graduation. Graduates from the private centres are more likely to become employed than in public centres. The wage-employment rate is 28.57% (120/420) and self-employment is 23.8% (100/420) after graduation. Another 47.61% (200/420) of the trainees were still unemployed during the data collection period. The post-training activities of graduates in the labour market reveal that from those trainees who were unemployed (49.04%, 206/420) before intervention, 41.25% (85/206) became wage- or self-employed immediately after graduating. In the private centres, graduates are more likely to become wage- and self-employed than in public centres because their main focus is on income-generating activities in micro-enterprises. The results are reasonable as compared to the expanded unemployment rate of 41.5% in KZN (Stats SA, 2014:xvi). These findings are different from Morton and Montgomery's (2011:422,423) study in the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. The graduates acquired some livelihood skills and life skills which were not transferable in the labour market in order to improve their lives.

Trainee's main expectation after graduation was an enabling or disabling environment for employment. The distribution of post-training occupation by main expectations after graduating indicates that for those who expected to find wage-employment in the public or private sector, the unemployment rate was higher (56.42%, 101/179). In contrast, the employment rate was higher (55.65%, 64/115) among those who expected to become self-employed in an own small business or micro-enterprise. These findings are congruent with Blaak, et al. (2012:94) and Gale's (2011:4) argument that adult NFET centres that put their main endeavour into providing effective skills acquisition should focus on self-employment in the informal micro-enterprises. Therefore, self-employment may be a better option where jobs are scarce.

There is a relationship between trainees' training courses and employability. The probability of being self-employed was higher in sewing and fashion skills (57.14%, 36/63), in poultry (88.89%, 16/18) and co-operatives (88.89%, 16/18). The main reason for higher probability of self-employment in these three training courses is that they are directly linked to income-generating activities in micro-enterprises or co-operatives. Income-generating activities make the courses relevant to the needs and objectives of the trainees. These findings are different from those by Islam and Mia (2007:98, 99) in the context of NFET for income-generating programmes for poverty reduction in Bangladesh. All training courses were not relevant to the local labour market (skills mismatch), and centres did not identify marketable skills, local barriers, and other problems associated with self-employment.

There is a limited enabling environment for finding wage-employment in the rural areas, whereas the probability of finding jobs in the urban and peri-urban areas is very low. Only in the rural areas, graduates have limited chances of wage-employment in government/public sector (41.17%, 21/51) and community-based organisations (39.21%, 20/51) for those who studied ancillary health care. This limited enabling environment for wage-employment is due to the insufficiency of social service delivery in the rural areas. The probability of finding jobs in the urban and peri-urban areas is very low because wage-employment opportunities for NFET graduates are scarce.

As already discussed above, the ineffectiveness of NFET in fostering trainees' wage-employment may also be explained by the lack of a workplace assessment and certification conducted by an external company, agency or employers who would recognise and accredit the

training skills provided. Similar studies in Uganda revealed that NFET graduates could not find wage-employment because there was no market for the skills trainees learnt in some programmes and job opportunities were not always within reach (Blaak, et al., 2012:95). Furthermore, most of the skills taught were basic and the success depended on advanced skills and its utilisation in the self-employment (Blaak, et al., 2012:94).

The training delivery approach enables graduates to save money as a major source of start-up capital following by group member's contributions. The approach consists of 'learning by earning' training delivery. Only six trainees (2.3%) reported to have received loans from banks with the assistance of SEDA. These findings are in contrast with King and Palmer's (2007:50) study on STEP trainees who could not utilise the acquired skills in micro-enterprise due to the unsuccessful loan applications. The present study's findings point at the significance of selection criteria and trainees' expectations after graduation as enabling environments for self-employment. The findings are also congruent with the argument of Blaak, et al. (2012:95) that the NFET centres should empower individual graduates to discover the ability, as their own choice, to take action on the issues that are important to them.

Private centres have informal linkages with public institutions and agencies or private sectors without a signed partnership and a memorandum of understanding. Mostly in private centres, though the linkages and networks with other external role-players were not formalised, to some extent, they help to foster skills utilisation in assisting trainees to establish micro-enterprises or co-operatives and post-training support (see Chapter Seven, section 7.4.2 and Table 7.8). The findings support the argument that stakeholders tend to support adult training programmes that they have been involved in during the designing and implementing phases (Georgiadou, et al., 2009:84; ILO, 2009:21).

8.2.4 Key findings 4: External disabling environments fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment

- Centres do not sufficiently create enabling environments for fostering graduates' wage-employment.
- A lack of reliable sources of start-up capital is one of the major disabling environments for self-employment.

- The inadequate post-training support programmes in micro-enterprises or co-operatives is basically rooted in the lack of awareness of external enabling environments.
- Weak institutional centre linkages disable the transforming external environments fostering the utilisation of skills into wage-or self-employment in KZN.

Centres do not sufficiently create enabling environments for fostering graduates' wage-employment. This finding is based on the distribution of means of getting wage-employment and post-training support as other indicators for measuring the effectiveness of the centre's linkages with prospective employers. Except only one private centre, all other 20 centres involved in the study have no mechanisms utilised to assist a graduate with finding wage-employment. The connection between skills training delivery and support activities was not planned at design stage. Therefore, most of the graduates used their own efforts or connections with a friend to find wage-employment. Both public and private centres seldom provide limited assistance in terms of arranging opportunities for trainees to gain work experience.

These findings correlate with those from NFET programmes for Roma women in Greek Thrace reported by Georgiadou, et al. (2009:83). There were still large numbers of NFET activities that were designed without taking into consideration the post-training support for wage-employment of the trainees. In the present study, centre managers pointed out that their centres have linkages with some public agencies and NGOs; but these linkages were not helping trainees to get jobs. Nevertheless, the reality from the case studies (see Chapter Seven, section 7.4) reveals that the centre managers do not mobilise the role players in the communities and partner organisations for their participation in the designing, planning and implementation of the training programmes.

A lack of reliable sources of start-up capital was one of the major disabling environments for self-employment and small business ownership. Despite financial challenges hampering the process of utilisation of the skills in self-employment in SME, aspiration for self-reliance and self-support motivated some graduates to start their own small businesses. Four factors helped them to start and sustain the business: self-determination to improve their living conditions; endurance without any income; own savings, financial contributions, business support from SEDA, and access to free municipal services for trainees (see Chapter Seven, section 7.6). This result of self-endeavour of KZN graduates was due to what Blaak, et al. (2012:95) argue that a

combination of practical marketable skills with life skills, provided guidance and counselling to make people aware of themselves and their potential to start SMEs from what is available to them.

The inadequate post-training support programmes in micro-enterprise or co-operatives are basically rooted in the lack of awareness of external enabling environments. These external environments are the available business incubation programmes provided by local agencies and municipalities. Without support from the centres, micro-entrepreneur graduates themselves sought external post-training support for SME development from SEDA and local municipalities (see Chapter Seven, section 7.6). The lack of awareness of external enabling environments in the centres proves the argument by the Public Service Commission (PSC) that the identification of poverty reduction programmes, making contact with the relevant government officials and integrating the adult NFET programmes proved to be most difficult and time-consuming for the centre managers (RSA, 2007:29). Nevertheless, it became apparent from centre managers' responses in the interviews that, presently there is no readily available central database or list of poverty reduction programmes in KZN accessible for the centres (see Chapter Seven, section 7.4).

Weak institutional centre linkages disable the transforming external environments fostering the utilisation of skills into wage-or self-employment in KZN. Similarly, a study conducted by Haan (2006:122) reveals that one of the major causes of the limited impact of the training was the training centres lacking the linkage with the role players in the communities, networking with the business owners, employers and institutions. The main cause of weak institutional linkages was the failure of the centre managers to locate potentially interested low-scale enterprises, firms and business in the private sectors. In KZN, jobs in the public sector are scarce; and specifically for NFET graduates with non-accredited skills training certification. In addition, the available labour market does not correspond to their qualifications. Thus most of the managers did not visit the private sector operators in order to find out whether they might be interested to take graduates.

8.2.5 Key findings 5: External enabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market

- At macro-level, SME promotion policies and related institutions are the enabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market in self-employment.
- At macro-level, the SME promotion policies create an external enabling environment for access to business credits or loans by relaxing the proof of a property as collateral.
- The access to Business Development Services (BDS) and information are external enabling environments for trainees to start and develop SMMEs.

At macro-level, SME promotion policies and related institutions are the enabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market in self-employment. The government provides the required support to ensure that there is sufficient local capacity to undertake self-employment in SMMEs or cooperatives. However, in the context of NFET, the SME promotion policies and institutions cannot be utilised as external enabling environments because of two main impediments (see Chapter Seven, section 7.3 and Chart 7.3). Firstly, the centre managers and trainers have inadequate knowledge of the SME promotion policies and institutions. The finding confirms Mahembe's (2011:72) statement that the lack of knowledge has resulted in limited access to information, services and business opportunities that the public institutions and agencies would provide to graduate trainees. There is no guarantee that creating an "enabling environment" for SME promotion will address the specific needs of micro-enterprise promotion and development (Mahembe, 2011:72). In line with this argument and the findings of the study, the failure of the SME promotion policies to be external enabling environments may also be explained by the fact that institutional environments for SMMEs have not been adequately communicated at the grassroots level.

Secondly, the weak institutional linkages of the NFET centres may be one of the causes of low application for post-training support available on government SME schemes. The weak linkages and the partnership between the centres and the SME promotion agencies means there is a lack of "source of information" on available support programmes for graduates and how to access them (DTI, 2010:3). Thus, the linkages would bring awareness of support in order for the NFET centres to create enabling environments for trainees to start and develop micro-enterprises. The findings of this study confirm Mahembe's (2011:72) argument that most SMEs

are not aware of the financial products on the market (or other support available) in the community.

At macro-level, the SME promotion policies create an external enabling environment for access to business credits or loans by relaxing the proof of a property as collateral. The government provides loan guarantees of home ownership as collateral for poor people. As a result, micro-finance institutions are willing to grant loans and credits to micro-entrepreneurs so that poor people can also access bank loans for a small amount. However, they are still subject to lending banks restrictions and other requirements. These findings correspond with those by Palmer (2007b:245) that the government of Ghana enacted SME promotion policies to help STEP graduates enter self-employment activities by pledging to provide start-up capital for them. The findings are in contrast with Sandhaas's (2005:30) study in Ethiopia where NFET graduates could not have proper access to financial institutions in order to obtain a business loan because the Ethiopian Government did not create an external enabling environment for financial schemes that require low interest rates to young entrepreneurs.

The access to Business Development Services (BDS) and information are external enabling environments for trainees to start and develop their SMMEs. At macro-level, the case studies of self-employed trainees reveal that those graduate entrepreneurs, who were aware of BDS such as SEDA and the free municipal services, themselves took the initiative to consult BDS officials. As result, graduates received post-training support in small businesses. The enabling environments entailed a bank loan or credit referee, micro-enterprise venture and business management (business planning, marketing and record-keeping). These findings are in contrast with those by Akpama, et al. (2011). In the absence of post-training support from the NFET centres, graduates could not take any initiative to seek external support from available public institutions, agencies and NGOs. Instead, they decided not to utilise the acquired skills (Akpama, et al., 2011:158).

8.2.6 Key findings 6: External disabling environments for the graduates entering the labour market

- No loan is awarded without trainees' proof of employment history.
- No loan is awarded without trainees' proof of good credit record history.

- No loan is awarded without trainees' financial record with a bank.
- Credit Bureau policy requires that a borrower pays a commitment fee to the lending bank, which a formerly unemployed graduate is unable to contribute or afford.
- A lack of business experience is another reason for unsuccessful loan application.
- A lack of small business registration and licensing impacts on accessing bank loans.
- The access to business premises is another major disabling environment for self-employment.

In an external disabling environment, no loan is awarded without a trainee's proof of employment history. Challenges in accessing credit as external disabling environments reside on the graduates' failure to meet the security requirements of the lending MFIs. Socio-economic situations of graduates impede them to prove to the MFIs that they are reliable and credible. Since the majority of trainees were unemployed prior to the skills training, the bank's requirement of proof of employment meant a total rejection of accessing small business loan. These findings confirm what has been said that social exclusion is often perceived as a vicious circle with three components: unemployment (marginalisation in the labour market), poverty and social isolation (Brandsma, 2011:23; UNDP, 2006:12). The case is that unemployed trainees not only have little income, but are financially excluded from access to credits and thus have fewer opportunities to reintegrate into the labour market.

No loan is awarded without a trainee's proof of a good credit record or repayment history. Studies by Mahembe (2011:62) and Palmer (2007:245) also show that small business owners are excluded from financial credits because of a lack of credit record. The lending banks viewed NFET borrowers as a higher risk compared to other SMME borrowers. Palmer (2007b:245) argues that the problem resides with the centre managers who fail to include in the training programmes the guidance on how to compile a winning loan proposal, knowing that graduates lack the minimum loan application requirements, such as credit history records and bank statements. A similar study in Bangladesh by Islam and Mia (2007:99) reveals the same challenge in accessing loans because centres did not put in place an integrated mechanism aiming at enabling graduates interested in SMME to have easy access to loans on soft terms.

No loan is awarded without a trainee's financial record with a bank. In relation to unemployment, it was difficult for previously unemployed graduates to have bank accounts. For

many of them the small business would be their first ever employment. Banks required them to have a bank account which they did not have before receiving a business loan. These findings also confirm what Mahembe (2011:62) points out that even if South African micro-entrepreneurs get the information regarding access to finance and SME support available for the banks and application process, they lack the minimum loan application requirements such as bank statements.

Credit Bureau policy requires that a borrower pays a commitment fee to the lending bank, of which a formerly unemployed graduate is unable to contribute or to afford. A number of studies confirm that the lack of financial deposit is one of the reasons why younger entrepreneurs' SMME applications for business funds from banks were unsuccessful (Afolabi & Macheke, 2012:243; Chimucheka & Rungani, 2011:5513; Mahembe, 2011:56). The commitment fee is a disabling environment for graduates to start an own small business. In addition, the findings imply that NFET graduates are still vulnerable in terms of access to bank loans as many of them are from poor backgrounds and previously unemployed.

A lack of business experience is another reason for unsuccessful loan applications. Graduates' experience in small business would allow the lending financial institution to check the cash flow and regular streams of income. This is why banks and micro-credit providers are not keen to provide loans when trainees have just completed training programmes. This situation was worsened by the fact that many NFET graduates lack financial management skills, accounting records and lack quality business plans. Similar studies conducted elsewhere confirm that MFIs are interested in the skills and experience of the graduate entrepreneurs (Akpama, et al., 2011:159; Haan, 2006:240; Palmer, 2007:245). In addition, younger SMMEs without a track record face more challenges in accessing credit because they are more likely to fail and are consequently more risky (Mahembe, 2011:58). Banks perceived it as a risk to lend money for new graduates' micro-enterprises at start-up stage. In this case, historically disadvantaged graduates score poorly in these assessment criteria.

However, these findings are in contrast with the Integrated Women's Empowerment Programme (IWEP) in Ethiopia, where training centres work in partnership with MFIs (Belete, 2011:78). Though the graduates were previously unemployed prior to the training, this partnership was effective in accessing business loans from a Women Entrepreneurship Fund to start businesses.

The centres put in place other supporting mechanisms and services to facilitate access to start-up capital (Belete, 2011:80).

A lack of small business registration and licensing is one of the major external disabling environments for accessing loans or credits from banks. The majority of graduates' small businesses were not registered, which impacted on credit applications. Findings from self-employed graduates reveal that small business registration is accessible but not affordable for most of the trainees due to their financial situation. However, graduates reported that SEDA helps in registering small businesses or co-operatives if they approach their offices. The major problem resides in the lack of knowledge about small business registration at the centre level, the requirements, the procedure, and the benefits in terms of applying for bank loans and the external support from SEDA. These findings are congruent with Mahembe's (2011:58) statement that another disabling factor that affects an SME's ability to access bank loans is whether it is formally registered or not.

The access to business premises is the other major external disabling environment for self-employment. Access to business premises is available mostly in the cities and while it is accessible, it is not affordable. A lack of business premises negatively impacts on formal registration of a trainee's business and the success of bank loan applications (Kweka & Fox, 2011:27, 40). However, the case studies of self-employed trainees reveal that the lack of affordable business premises for some graduates was mitigated through two strategies. Firstly, graduates started micro-enterprises from home, and then moved to affordable premises. Secondly, some graduates were able to secure free business premises within the compound of the training centre, SEDA or by using municipal facilities. These strategies were also effectively used by NFET graduates in Ethiopia (Belete, 2011). Graduates started home micro-enterprises in a number of income-generating activities after acquiring technical skills training combined with business skills training (Belete, 2011).

8.3 Goal and objectives of the study

The findings of the study facilitated the achievement of the goal of the study. The goal of the study was to assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in enabling trainees' employment and poverty reduction in

KwaZulu-Natal. The achievement of the goal of the study is underpinned by the realisation of the objectives for the study.

8.3.1 Objective 1

The first objective, *to conceptualise non-formal adult education and training for employment within the context of human capital and labour market segmentation theories*, was addressed in Chapter Two and Chapter Four. The NFET has been conceptualised in terms of three perspectives (as a complementary, supplementary and alternative to the formal education system) according to its purpose to target the population to be served, their problems and felt needs. However, different providers classify the current manifestations of NFET as para-formal education, popular education, vocational form and literacy with skills development. Chapter Two provided the theoretical framework of the study by examining the contribution that human capital theory makes in understanding the relationship between adult NFET and employment and how the labour market segmentation theory assists in understanding the effectiveness of NFET. This theoretical framework guided the research study through the respective phases. The data collection tools were designed, analysed and interpreted in line with human capital and labour market segmentation theories (see Chapter Five). The literature review captured the conceptualisation of adult NFET for employment within the context of human capital and labour market segmentation theories (see Chapters Three and Four).

The sixth chapter presented the empirical data and analysed the research findings in line with human capital theory by focussing on the internal enabling environments of NFET centres in fostering trainees' employment in KwaZulu-Natal. Likewise, Chapter Seven presented the empirical data and analysed the research findings by focusing on the external enabling or disabling environments fostering the utilisation of skills in wage- or self-employment in line with the labour market segmentation theory.

The discussions of the key findings in relation to the theoretical framework show that both human capital and labour market segmentation theories are useful in fostering employment of trainees. This conclusion is congruent with Brandsma's (2011:85) argument that the theories of human capital and labour market segmentation are not contradictory or mutual exclusive, but complementary. The human capital theory is important at the micro- and meso-levels of

enabling environments during the training delivery at the NFET centres. The labour market segmentation theory plays an important role at the macro-level of enabling environments where graduates need post-training support and favourable policies, regulation and institutions in order to utilise the skills in wage-or self-employment.

8.3.2 Objective 2

The second objective, *to assess the effectiveness of the training delivery internal environments of NFET centres contributing to skills acquisition*, was achieved in Chapter six, as the effectiveness of the training delivery internal environments was measured on various levels. The key performance assessment for this second objective were on training needs assessment (Chapter Six, section 6.4.1.1 and Chart 6.8); training delivery for skills acquisition (Chapter Six, section 6.4.2.2, Table 6.10 and Chapter Seven, sections 7.4 and 7.6); assessment and certification (Chapter 6, section 6.4.2.3); technical skills acquisition and business skills and knowledge acquisition (Chapter Six, section 6.4.3, Chapter Seven sections 7.4 and 7.6).

The majority of trainees (73.57%) acquired technical skills, knowledge and competencies necessary to work for others without supervision in wage- or self-employment. The majority of trainees acquired business skills and knowledge for starting, growing and managing a small business. The private centres had higher scores on the business skills and knowledge because they mainly focus on self-employment or income-generating activities in micro-enterprises. There was a mismatch between the expectation of starting a small business and its means of achievement such as delivery approach and start-up capital (see Chapter 6 section 6.4.1.2, Table 6.7).

8.3.3 Objective 3

The third objective, *to assess the effectiveness of the external environments in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage-employment or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal*, was captured in Chapter Seven. Key performance measures used to determine the effectiveness of the external environments in fostering links for skills utilisation included the types of wage-employment of trainees (section 7.2.1.1, Table 7.1); post-training support for wage-employment and micro-enterprise (sections 7.2.1.3; 7.4; 7.6; 7.2.2.4; 7.4; 7.6, Tables 7.7 and 7.7); sources

of start-up capital (section 7.2 .2.2, Table 7.5); causes of business failure (section 7.2.2.3, Chart 7.2 and Table 7.6) and the institutional centre linkages (section 7.3, Chart 7.3). The effectiveness of the external environments in fostering links for skills utilisation on overall employment after graduation is 52.37%. Graduates from the private centres are more likely to become employed than in public centres. Weak institutional centre linkages disabled the transforming external environments fostering the utilisation of skills into wage- or self-employment.

8.3.4 Objective 4

The fourth objective, *to assess the influence of the external enabling and disabling environments on the graduates entering the labour market, whether in wage- or self-employment in KwaZulu-Natal*, was achieved in Chapter Seven, sections 7.4; 7.5 and 7.6. Key indicators were used to assess the influence of the enabling and disabling external environments namely whether or not managers and trainers were aware of SME promotion policies and institutional environments for micro-enterprises; whether they utilise these external environments to create enabling environments for self-employment of NFET graduates (section 7.5.1); access to credit and financial services (section 7.5.2, Table 7.11); small business registration and licensing (section 7.5.3, Chart 7.4) access to Business Development Services and information (section 7.5.4, Table 7.12) and access to business premises (section 7.4.6, Chart 7.5).

The SME promotion policies and institutional environments cannot be considered as external enabling environments because the centre managers and trainers had inadequate knowledge of the policies. The few who were aware of the policies and institutional environments were poorly informed about the application processes and the respective custodian institutions in order to create an enabling environment for post-training support. Micro-finance institutions are willing to grant loans and credits to micro-entrepreneurs so that poor people can also access bank loans for a small amount. The challenges in accessing credit as external disabling environments reside on the graduates' failure to meet the security requirements of the lending MFIs.

8.3.5 Objective 5

The fifth objective of the study was, *to propose an integrated framework for NFET programmes that matches adult training and the labour market with regard to both wage-employment and self-employment.*

This objective was achieved in the recommendations of the study through the proposed integrated framework in Table 8.1 below.

8.4 Conclusions

Based on the NFET effectiveness on overall employment which is 52.37% of the graduates after graduation, the study concludes that NFET presents as a relevant tool to improve livelihoods, to foster employment, and hence reduce poverty in KZN. There are significant outcomes of the NFET programmes at micro-level, consisting of the effectiveness of the internal training delivery environments contributing to technical skills and business skills and knowledge acquisition. The study concludes that at micro-level (trainee level), if the internal environments are enabling during training delivery, the training programmes can lead to wage- or self-employment. At macro-level, the policies, regulations and institutional environments create external enabling environments to foster skills utilisation in the labour market.

However, the utilisation of these policies, regulations and institutional environments at meso-level (centre level) raises a system dilemma due to weak institutional linkages. The inadequate centre linkages with external enabling environments constitute a breakdown in fostering links for skills utilisation in wage- or self-employment. Weak institutional centre linkages result in graduates not having access to essential post-training support, community resources, public goods and services. Adult centres do not take into consideration the importance of institutional linkages and the socio-economic background of the trainees who have faced long-term unemployment leading to social isolation, which then further reduce the likelihood of employment.

The study concludes that NFET programmes can foster adult trainees' employment if the centres create adequate linkages with external enabling environments for skills utilisation in the labour

market in KwaZulu-Natal. Adult centres that focus on self-employment in income-generating activities are more likely to create external enabling environments in terms of formal and informal linkages with other stakeholders who provide post-training support to graduates. The linkages also improve graduates' access to the public goods and services which could enable them to access self-employment in KwaZulu-Natal. Therefore, self-employment in informal micro-enterprises may be a better option where jobs are scarce.

The lack of NFET centres' financial resources is one of the major disabling factors which influence low investment in human and material resources, thus, impacting on internal training delivery environments and skills utilisation. The study concludes that the main problem resides in the centre managers failing to conduct a stakeholder analysis at the early stages of the training programmes. They do not mobilise local and regional stakeholders in the different sectors of the economy, private institutions and NGOs in order to maximise the effectiveness and impact of the adult training programmes in alignment with their social responsibility to finance adult NFET within their respective skills training fields.

At centre level, there is a disjunction between internal training delivery components and the pursuit of training objectives, whether wage-employment or self-employment. For instance, in training for self-employment in micro-enterprises, there are no strategies in place for the means of achievement means (sources of start-up capital). Another disjuncture resides between the centre's provision of training programmes and government programmes to reduce poverty among unskilled adults. There is no direct link between adult training programmes and the government's integrated strategies for poverty reduction. Government programmes are not benefiting the NFET graduates because most of the centre managers and trainers are not aware of provincial poverty reduction programmes and their respective custodian institutions that can provide external post-training support in wage-employment or self-employment (micro-enterprise and co-operatives). On the other side of the coin, it may be explained by the fact that policies and institutional environments have not been adequately communicated at the grassroots level.

It is recognised in South Africa that formal educational systems alone cannot respond to the challenges of unemployment and poverty. The chance of those without matric certificates or who are unskilled to secure employment is minimal (Soobramoney, 2011:4). The present

study's findings suggest that NFET can help trainees to get jobs in the informal market. The implication of the study's findings is that the government needs to welcome the enforcement of the formal educational systems by NFET. There is a need for the Department of Education and other concerned departments to improve the skills training quality of adult centres to serve unemployed adults by providing them with employable and marketable skills. In connection with skills provision at adult centres, it is crucial to create internal and external enabling environments for access to the labour market and financial services.

This study contributes to the field of adult NFET literature by demonstrating the importance of assessing the internal and external enabling and disabling environments of NFET centres. The study contributes to effective NFET training by demonstrating what constitutes an enabling environment and in addition, how the internal and external disabling environments can be improved to contribute to coordinated efforts for the wage- employment and/or self-employment capacity of NFET's graduates. Furthermore, the study contributes to the understanding of NFET in the following significant areas in the field:

- Knowledge and practice of NFET by understanding how NFET programmes can be constituted for employment within the context of human capital and labour market segmentation theories by recognising relationships and the interdependence between micro-, meso- and macro levels of environments.
- The study clarifies why trainees do not enter self-employment after obtaining the required skills. It reveals that the problem resides in accessing credit and financial services as external disabling environments. The NFET graduates fail to meet the security requirements of the lending MFIs due to their socio-economic situations.
- The study proposes an integrated framework (see Table 8.1 below), a multi-level approach for NFET centres to create the internal and external enabling environments for wage- employment and/or self-employment of NFET graduates in KwaZulu-Natal. The integrated framework targets the enabling environments on micro-level (trainees and local community), meso-level (centre level) and macro-level (policies, regulations and institutions).
- Through a micro- meso- macro focus, and by recognising relationships and interdependence between each level, the advantage of the integrated framework is that it

becomes much easier for NFET managers to identify the level of disabling environments for employment. Such a framework would be of benefit to centre managers and trainers.

- Finally, the study could form the basis for further implementation of the NFET programmes in KwaZulu-Natal for the promotion and development of NFET for poverty reduction. In addition, it provides a platform to look at adult training and skills development for wage- or self-employment in other provinces in South Africa and in the Africa region and provide strategic directions for the promotion and development of NFET for poverty reduction.

8.5 Recommendations

The expected outcome of the study was to answer the question: How can the disabling environments (internal and external) be improved to contribute to the coordinated efforts for wage-employment and/or self-employment capacity of NFET’s graduates? Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the following 19- step Integrated Framework of NFET for Employment is recommended to improve the effectiveness of adult NFET worldwide.

Table 8.1: Integrated Framework of NFET for Employment

Stage 1: Establishing institutional linkages and planning	
Step 1	Preliminary consultations with the stakeholders <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consultations with public, private agencies and local leaders • Exploratory visits to local markets • Exploratory visits to financial institutions and local NGOs
Step 2	Building a partnership with public institutions/agencies, BDS, NGOs, financial institutions, community leaders and private enterprises
Step 3	Creating an advisory committee and task distribution
Step 4	Linking training programmes to relevant SMME development programmes
	
Stage 2: Identification of labour market opportunities and training needs assessment	
Step 5	Identifying potential labour-markets, goods, services and demand opportunities
Step 6	Assessing employment and income-generating opportunities
Step 7	Identifying skills in demand (technical and business skills)
Step 8	Identifying target groups and their needs in relation to labour, goods and service markets
Step 9	Conducting training needs assessment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify felt needs and interests of potential trainees • Identify existing skills of potential trainees • Determine technical and/or entrepreneurship skills gap of potential trainees
Step 10	Designing the curriculum of the training programme:

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determine the scope and dimensions of the programmes • Determine the objectives of the training programmes • Determine contents and delivery mechanisms
Step 11	Designing post-training support mechanisms for wage- and self-employment



Stage 3: Training design and delivery	
Step 12	Preparation of the training course plan and selection of skills areas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determine training course objectives • Determine training delivery approaches, training venues and schedules • Conduct pre-counselling sessions
Step 13	Selection of expert trainers and trainees based on established criteria
Step 14	Technical training delivery (25% theory and 75% practical) by using <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The facilities of workshops • On-the-job training • Project-based training
Step 15	Business and entrepreneurship skills training focusing on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How to start and manage a small business • How to market a small business • Financial management and bookkeeping • Legal business registration
Step 16	Promotion of income-generating activities (IGAs): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct pre-credit technical orientation • Prepare a bank-oriented business plan • Conduct business counselling and visits to initiate IGAs



Stage 4: Conducting assessment and certification	
Step 17	Workplace assessment and certification conducted by an external company, agency or employers



Stage 5: Post-training support for employment (from external partners in stage 1)	
Step 18	Post-training support for wage-employment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arrange opportunities for graduates to gain work experience • Provide assistance in job placement • Link graduates to potential employers
Step 19	Post-training support for micro-enterprises and mentorship programme in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formation of groups or co-operatives • Small business start-up • Access to bank loans/credit • Business registration • Finding suitable business premises • Technical assistance and business counselling • Accessing equipment from a local municipality

To implement the Integrated Framework of NFET for Employment, the following recommendations are made:

8.5.1 Institutional centre linkages and planning

- Centre managers should consult public, private agencies and local leaders from the planning stage of the training programmes.
- Centre managers should conduct exploratory visits to public agencies and local NGOs to assess local support for training and employment activities.
- Centre managers should build a partnership with public institutions/agencies, BDS, NGOs, financial institutions, community leaders and private enterprises.

8.5.2 Identification of labour market opportunities

- Centre managers in partnership with stakeholders should identify potential labour-markets, goods, services and income-generating opportunities for the trainees.
- Centre managers with stakeholders should identify skills in demand opportunities.
- Centre managers should identify target groups for training in accordance with their needs in relation to labour, goods and services markets.

8.5.3 Training needs assessment and trainee selection criteria for training programmes

- Through interviews, centre managers and trainers should consider closing the gap between the felt needs on one side, and trainees' basic skills, experience and the wage-, or self-employment opportunities on the other side.
- Selection criteria must be tailored according to the trainees' need for wage-employment opportunities and/or for immediate income-generating activities.
- Centre managers should design the curriculum of the training programme in partnership with stakeholders including learning content, scope and delivery mechanisms.
- Centre managers should, in partnership with stakeholders, design post-training support mechanisms for wage- and self-employment prior to the training delivery.

8.5.4 Preparing the delivery environment for skills acquisition

- Centre managers should have a clear objective of skills-for-jobs and self-employment according to age cohorts.
- Centre managers should ensure that training delivery approaches match with the trainee's need for wage-employment opportunities and available income-generating activities.

- Where a centre lacks facilities for workshops and skills training practitioners for practical sessions, the centre managers should expose trainees to different workshops and materials available in the local community.
- The NFET approach should focus on income-generating activities while in training based on the principle of ‘learning by doing, learning by producing and learning by earning’.
- In many peri-urban and rural areas of formal wage-employment opportunities are rare. Therefore, a combination of technical skills with business skills in the training delivery approach would allow graduates to get into self-employment in micro-enterprises.

8.5.5 Promoting trainee entrepreneurship

- Centre managers and trainers should promote income-generating activities (IGAs) by conducting pre-credit technical orientation, helping trainees to compile a bank-oriented business plan and providing business counselling during this process.
- Centre managers and trainers should motivate trainees to start micro-enterprises in groups or co-operatives while still on the training programmes.
- If the centre does not have competent trainers in entrepreneurship training and good experience of running business, centre managers should refer trainees to other training institution partners, BDS or other agencies.
- The centre managers and trainers should primarily motivate trainees for self-employment, not because of unemployment or failure to continue with studies at FET colleges.

8.5.6 Providing post-training support

- Centre managers should put great effort into post-training environments and have an employment co-ordinator who will maintain contact with partners and graduates.
- The mentorship programme should include post-training support in dealing with micro-credit institutions, borrowing mechanisms and bookkeeping strategies.
- Centre managers and trainers should recognise that adult NFET is not primarily for certificates but for employment based on the centre’s aim not only to ‘produce’ but to market its graduates.
- To allow graduates to gain experience, centres should organise paid or unpaid temporary on-the-job training programmes in collaborative organisations and businesses.

8.5.7 Utilising SME policies and institutional environments

- Centre managers should know about SMME promotion and institutional environments, and create awareness of the challenges self-employed graduates may face in the process of starting and managing SMEs, and possible strategies to mitigate them.
- Centre managers should link graduates to community assets, labour-markets, goods, services and income-generating opportunities.

8.5.8 Access to credit and financial services

- Centre managers should link self-employment programmes to credit schemes of banks and financial institutions so that graduates can access business funds in terms of soft loans at reasonable interest.
- Centre managers should involve local financial institutions during the design, delivery and transition stages of the training programmes in order to assist graduates who do not qualify for access to bank credits.

8.6 Further research

Further research in the field of study is recommended as follows:

- Longitudinal studies on the effectiveness of the proposed Integrated Framework of NFET for Employment.
- The extent to which the NFET graduates have found decent wage-employment and/or operate successful micro-businesses after the creation of enabling environments.
- Comparative studies on the view of employers in the public and private sectors on NFET graduate employability, including their experience with adult employees who went through a short-period of skills training.

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Appendix 1A: Questionnaire for Trainees

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TRAINEES

Office use only	
r.1	
r.2	

Respondent No.....Centre Code.....

The goal of the study is to assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in enabling trainees' employment and poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal.

The purpose of the questionnaire is to find out what you think about the adult education and training for employment in KwaZulu-Natal.

You have been identified as a key person to contribute to this study through your honest answers to the questions.

The question papers have 7 sections. **All participants** complete Sections **A; B; C; D and G**. In addition to these 5 sections, Section **E** is only completed by participants who are formally employed, thus who are working for an employer OR if they do not have a job at all; thus being unemployed. In addition to the abovementioned 5 sections, Section **F** is only completed by participants who started their own businesses after training; who thus work for themselves.

The instructions how you should answer the questions are indicated at each question.

Researcher: Celestin Mayombe

Cell: xxxxxxxxxxxx; e-mail: xxxxxxxxxxxx

BASIC CENTRE INFORMATION

1. Tick (✓) the type of the Centre: [1] Public (KZN-AET) or [2] Private (NGO, CBO, Church).
2. District: _____
3. Area of the Centre: [1] urban, [2] peri-urban or [3] rural
4. Your skills training duration: _____ months. Today's date: ___/___/2013

v1
v2
v3
v4.1
v4.2
v4.3
v4.4
v4.5

Section A: Biographic profile of the trainee (All participants must complete this section)

1. Indicate all vocational/ occupational skills training course you took at your centre.

Agricultural technology	1	Sewing and fashion skills	7
Ancillary health care	2	Poultry	8
Small medium and micro enterprises	3	Co-operative	9
Travel and tourism	4	Basic paramedic	10
Information and computer technology	5	Beauty training	11
Craft	6	Other (specify).....	12

a1.1
a1.2
a1.3
a1.4
a1.5
a1.6
a1.7
a1.8
a1.9
a1.10
a1.11
a1.12

2. Gender

Male	1	Female	2
------	---	--------	---

a2

3. What is your age?years

a3

4. Race

African	1	White	4
Coloured	2	Asian	5
Indian	3	Other (specify).....	6

a4

5. Marital status

Single	1	Widow/widower	4
Married	2	Living with a partner	5
Divorced	3		

a5

6. Which area are you from?

Urban formal (city, town)	1
Urban informal (informal settlement, shacks)	2
Peri-urban (location, township, eg. Umlazi)	3
Rural (village/farm community)	4

a6

7. What is the highest level of formal schooling that you completed?

Some primary school	1
Primary school completed	2
Grade 8	3
Grade 9	4
Grade 10	5
Grade 11	6
Matric Certificate (grade 12)	7

a7

Section B: Job before joining the Adult Education and Training programme (All participants must complete this section)

8. Looking back over the last five years, for how long have you been without a job/unemployed?

I never worked	1
Less than 2 months in total	2
2 to 6 months in total	3
7 to 12 months in total	4
Over 12 months in total	5
Don't know	6

b8

9. What was the type of work before joining the adult education and training centre?

I do not work/ unemployed	1
Full- time job (formal sector)	2
Part-time job	3
Contract worker	4
Work for myself/self-employed	5

b9

Housewife	6
Child minder	7
Farmer (Agric worker)	8
Paid gardener	9
Other, (specify):	1
	0

Section C: Access to the Adult Education and Training programme centre

10. What is/was your **main hope**/ expectation after graduating from Adult Education and Training?
(Please tick only one).

To find a job (in public or private sector)	1
To open an own small business	2
To be linked with job opportunities	3
To be linked with banks for credit/loan	4
To continue with higher education	5
Other, (specify):	6

c10

11. Before you joined/ signed up for the training, were you asked about your need for training?

Yes	1	No	2
-----	---	----	---

c11

12. If yes, what was the selection interview about? **(Please tick all the answers that apply).**

I was asked about my interest in the type of the skills training	1
I was asked about my own needs for training	2
I was asked about the knowledge I have on the skills training	3
I was asked about my own learning goal and objectives	4

c12.1
 c12.2
 c12.3
 c12.4

Section D: Training delivery environments

13. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree with the following statements about the challenges facing your centre to prepare learners/trainees for the world of work.

Statements								
		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	There is insufficient provision of training materials for theory lessons						d13.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	There is insufficient provision of training materials for practical lessons						d13.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	There is insufficient provision of basic workshop tools and equipment						d13.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Little attention is given to link training and industries or work place						d13.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Trainers are not encouraged/motivated						d13.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	The centre lacks qualified trainers						d13.6	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree with the following statements about the centre where you trained.

Statements								
		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	There is sufficient practical skills training for learners/trainees						d14.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Trainees have sufficient time to practice skills at centre during training						d14.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	The practical component in technical curriculum is well used						d14.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	The training consists of 75% practice						d14.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	The training consists of 25% theory						d14.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Training focus on technical skills only						d14.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Each training focuses on both technical skills and business skills						d14.7	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. How the training was related (relevant) to your needs and objectives?

Very related (relevant)	1
Related (relevant)	2
Fairly related (relevant)	3
Not related (irrelevant)	4
Neutral	5

d15

16. To what level (extent) have you gained the knowledge, skills and competence necessary for managing small businesses on your own (individually)?

Very high level (great extent)	1
High level (large extent)	2
Moderate level	3
Low level (some extent)	4
Not at all	5

d16

17. To what level (extent) have you gained the knowledge, skills and competence necessary for managing small businesses jointly with others (in a team)?

Very high level (great extent)	1
High level (large extent)	2
Moderate level	3
Low level (some extent)	4
Not at all	5

d17

18. How able are you to work for others without supervision?

Very able	1
Able	2
Fairly able	3
Not able	4

d18

19. How do you consider (rate) yourself, regarding obtaining the following knowledge and skills, after completion of the programme?

Knowledge and skills		1. Excellent	2. Good	3. Average	4. Poor	5. Very poor
1	To start/ grow a business					
2	Managing a business					
3	Making use of group of entrepreneurs					
4	Marketing of business					
5	Legal part of business registration					
6	Financial management					

d19.1
d19.2
d19.3
d19.4
d19.5
d19.6

20. Tick (√) the box below that describes your current work situation

d20

1. Salary worker (wage- employment) - **GO TO SECTION E: QUESTIONS 21 TO 25**
 Not working/ unemployed - **GO TO SECTION E: QUESTION 21**
 3. Self-employed - **GO TO SECTION F: QUESTIONS 26 TO 35**

Section E: Wage-employment information (Complete if you (1) are working for somebody else/company or (2) if you are not working, thus without a job/unemployed).

21. What is your current job status/ type of job? (Working for someone)

Not working/ unemployed, seeking work	1
I work for someone in small business area (tuck shop, food)	2
I work for someone in small services area/ small enterprise (sewing, plumbing, construction, delivery, auto-mechanical...)	3
I work in big business area (Shoprite, hotel, factory, industry...)	4
I work in big services area (big company,...)	5
I work for government/ public sector	6
I work for community-based organisation	7

e21.1
e21.2
e21.3
e21.4
e21.5
e21.6
e21.7

22. How long did it take from the time you graduated to the time you started working?

I started to work immediately	1
I started to work after one to two months	2
I started to work after three months	3
I started to work after six months	4
I started to work after one year	5
I am still not working/unemployed	6

e22

23. How did you get your job?

I owned a small business	1
The training centre arranged a placement	2
Through a friend	3
My own efforts	4
Through a job placement/employment agency	5
Through newspaper advertisements	6
Other, (specify):	7

e23

24. Is your present job/work related to your training?

Yes	1	No	2
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e24

25. If no, please explain.

e25.1

e25.2

e25.3

Section F: Business enterprise information (Complete if you have your own business/ are self-employed or work in a group in which you are a member)

26. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree with the following statement: The training was importantly to motivate, enable and empower trainees to start their own business as individual or as a group.

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Neutral	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

f26

27. If you started a small business after the training but it failed/ declined, what were the problems/ obstacles? **(Please tick all that apply.)**

My health condition did not allow me to work	1	f27.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
My business was not profitable/less customers	2	f27.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
I had shortage of business money	3	f27.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
I had no access to business market information	4	f27.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
I did not have a business premise/ site	5	f27.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is a distance from home to the business site	6	f27.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
I had no access to credit services (banks and	7	f27.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
There was market competition in my business	8	f27.8	<input type="checkbox"/>
I did not have enough materials for my small enterprise	9	f27.9	<input type="checkbox"/>
I needed a business mentorship/ assistance	10	f27.10	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (specify).....	11	f27.11	<input type="checkbox"/>

28. What motivated you to start your own business? **(Please tick all that apply.)**

I wanted to be my own boss	1	f28.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
I can work when I want to work	2	f28.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
I lost my previous job	3	f28.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
I cannot find a job anywhere else	4	f28.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am not qualified for other types of activity	5	f28.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
In the community I saw opportunities to initiate profitable business	6	f28.6	<input type="checkbox"/>

29. What is your current type of small enterprise? (Working for yourself)

Small business area (eg. tuck shop, food, co-operative, ..)	1	f29	<input type="checkbox"/>
Small services area (sewing, plumbing, construction, ..)	2		
Agricultural project (vegetable garden, cooperative farming,..)	3		

30. Is your present small enterprise/business related to your training?

Yes	1	No	2	f30	<input type="checkbox"/>
-----	---	----	---	-----	--------------------------

31. If you did start a small business, who is the owner of the business?

My own small business (Self - sole owner)	1	f31	<input type="checkbox"/>
Spouse (husband or wife)	2		
Jointly with a spouse	3		
Jointly with others	4		

32. If your small business is still active, how many workers do you have?

Number of workers: 1. _____ Male	2. _____ Female	3. _____ Total	f32.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
			f32.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
			f32.3	<input type="checkbox"/>

33. What was the source of money (start-up capital) for your business? **(Please tick all that apply.)**

No start-up capital	1	f33.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
Loans from bank or a friend	2	f33.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
Own money (savings)	3	f33.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
Stockvel	4	f33.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Spouse (husband or wife)	5	f33.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gifts from parents/ other relatives/ family	6	f33.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (specify):.....	7	f33.7	<input type="checkbox"/>

34. What is the reason for **not** applying for a bank loan/ credit to start a business? **(Tick all that apply.)**

Businesses not registered/ licensed	1	f34.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fear of not having money to repay the loan	2	f34.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have never needed it	3	f34.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
I don't know where to get a loan	4	f34.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
No place nearby to get a loan/credit	5	f34.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
High interest charged by banks	6	f34.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
I do not have anything as a guarantee (collateral)	7	f34.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
I do not have a person who can facilitate it (referee)	8	f34.8	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other, (specify):	9	f34.9	<input type="checkbox"/>

35. If your application for loans/credit from banks or micro-credit services was **not** successful, indicate what the reasons were:

Reasons for unsuccessful loan application								
		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	My small business was started less than 1 year ago						f35.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Lack of properties as bank guarantee						f35.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Poor business ideas/plan						f35.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Little business experience						f35.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Lack of credit repayment history						f35.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Businesses not registered/ licensed						f35.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Lack of a person who can facilitate it (referee)						f35.7	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section G: Post-training support after the completion of Adult Education and Training

36. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree about constraints and risks in small business.

Constraints and risks								
		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	Fear of crime and theft in the area						g36.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Lack of business site (place/premises)						g36.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Lack of suitable business location						g36.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	High cost of legal services to register a small business						g36.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Hard small business laws (regulation)						g36.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Market competition due to imports of cheap goods from Asia						g36.6	<input type="checkbox"/>

37. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree with statement about the type of assistance you received from the centre after your graduation.

Post-training support								
		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	Arrange opportunities for learners to gain work experience						g37.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Assistance in job placement						g37.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Linking you with employers						g37.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Support in small business start-up						g37.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Support in accessing loans/credit						g37.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	To grow my business						g37.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	To operate my businesses on day to day basis						g37.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	To write (compile) a business plan						g36.8	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Assistance in business registration						g37.9	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	Connecting with other entrepreneurs						g37.10	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Marketing assistance						g37.11	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	Assistance in finding a business site						g37.12	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	Technical assistance in business						g37.13	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	Support in forming business groups						g37.14	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	Assistance in forming co-operatives						g36.15	<input type="checkbox"/>

38. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree that you received information and advice about micro-enterprise development from any agency, person or other place.

Information and advice		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	I did not receive information and advice on business						g38.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	From other entrepreneurs						g38.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	From friends who know my business						g38.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	From local municipality						g37.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	From agencies (SEDA, Ithala, Khula, etc.)						g38.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Other (specify).....						g38.6	<input type="checkbox"/>

39. Which business network or association are you a member of?

Small business association	1	g39.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
An industrial association	2	g39.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
Chamber of Commerce and Industry	3	g39.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
Association for micro-entrepreneurs (in your service area)	4	g39.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other associations, (specify):.....	5	g39.5	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section H: Impact on trainees’ poverty reduction and satisfaction with the programme

40. Indicate the level that you or your group have been successful in generating income for yourself and your family after graduating from in the adult education and training.

Very successful	1	h40	<input type="checkbox"/>
Successful	2		<input type="checkbox"/>
Fairly successful	3		<input type="checkbox"/>
Not been successful	4		<input type="checkbox"/>

41. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree that your job or business changed your and /or your family's life.

Impact of NFET								
		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	My increased income helps me to buy food						h41.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	My increased income helps me to buy goods (eg. radio, fridge)						h41.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	I am now able to save money						h41.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	My life has changed because of the Adult Education and Training						h41.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	My increased income helps me send my children to school						h41.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	My increased income rises the quality of education for children						h41.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	My small business/job helps to Support my family						h41.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	The nutrition of my household has improved over the years following joining AET						h41.8	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	AET has helped improve living conditions of my household						h41.9	<input type="checkbox"/>

42. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements about your centre:

Impact of NFET								
		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	AET provide trainees with skills that increase income						h42.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	AET helps trainees to contribute meaningfully to society						h42.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	AET generates employment						h42.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	AET programmes reduce unemployment of trainees						h42.4	<input type="checkbox"/>

43. If you have any specific comments or suggestions on adult education and training programmes in KZN that could assist the researcher, kindly list them below.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix 1B: Interview Schedule for Self-Employed Trainee

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE SELF-EMPLOYED TRAINEES

Respondent No.....

Centre Code.....

Date:...../...../20.....

Goal of the study:

The goal of the study is to assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in enabling trainees' employment and poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal.

BASIC CENTRE INFORMATION

1. Tick (✓) the type of the Centre: [1] Public (KZN-AET) or [2] Private (NGO, CBO, Church)
2. District: _____ Area of the trainee (urban, peri-urban or rural): _____

1. Biographic information

1.1 Gender: Male Female

1.2 Your age: ... years

1.3 Your training course at the Adult Centre is: _____

1.4 Type of enterprise you are involved in:

- Individual (operated by the trainee alone)
- Group (operated by a group of which the trainee is a member)

1.5. The year your enterprise was started: /...../20..... (.... Years)

2. Trainee's background

2.1 What did your parents do for a living?

2.2 How would you describe your family's socio-economic background?

2.3 What factors contributed to you not completing your school education?

2.4 Before joining the Adult Centre, how did you manage to provide for your basic needs such as food, water, light/ electricity and transport?

2.5 Why did you choose this type of training at your Adult Centre?

2.6 How did the practice of technical and / or business skills during training at your Adult Centre prepare you for the world of work in your current business?

3. Self-employment

- 3.1 What motivated you to start your own business?
- 3.2 Why did you choose this type of business?
- 3.3 How did you start and how did you get to where you are now with self-employment?
- 3.4 What is the most important motivation that drives you to continue operating this business?

4. What assistance have you received from any institution, agency or municipality to develop your business?

5. In what way have the following aspects been constraints or risks in your business (*disabling environments*) and how have you/ are you overcoming them?(*Coping strategies*).

- 5.1 Fear of crime and theft in the area;
- 5.2 Lack of business premises;
- 5.3 Lack of credit from financial institutions;
- 5.4 High cost of legal services to register a small business;
- 5.5 Difficulty to get small business permit from municipality;
- 5.6 Market competition due to imports of cheap goods from Asia (if applicable);
- 5.7 Competition among entrepreneurs doing the same type of business for a few customers;
- 5.8 Lack of linkage with large-scale enterprises;
- 5.9 Lack of technology and marketing support;
- 5.10 Lack of skills to organise and conduct business

6. As an entrepreneur, what type of support do you need to improve your business?

7. To what extent have the new skills you/ or your group obtained on completion of the adult education and training programme enabled you to be successful in generating income for your family?

8. In what ways has your business influenced or changed your life and the life of your family members?

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Trainers

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TRAINERS/ INSTRUCTORS

Office use only	
r.1	
r.2	

Respondent No..... Centre Code.....

The goal of the study is to assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in enabling trainees' employment and poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal.

The purpose of these questions is to find out what you think about the adult education and training for employment in KwaZulu-Natal.

You have been identified as a key person to make an important contribution to this study through your honest answers to these questions.

Researcher: Celestin Mayombe
 Cell: xxxxxx; e-mail: xxxxxxxx

BASIC CENTRE INFORMATION

1. Tick (√) the type of the Centre: [1] Public (KZN-AET) or [2] Private (NGO, CBO, Church).

2. District: _____ 3. Area of the Centre: [1] urban, [2] peri-urban or [3] rural

4. Date of the Centre establishment: ___/___/20___ (.....years) Today's date: ___/___/2013

v1	
v2	
v3	
v4.1	
v4.2	
v4.3	
v4.4	
v4.5	

Section A: Biographic details

1. Indicate all vocational/ occupational skills training courses you teach.

Agricultural technology	1	Sewing and fashion skills	7
Ancillary health care	2	Poultry	8
Small medium and micro enterprises	3	Co-operative	9
Travel and tourism	4	Basic paramedic	10
Information and computer technology	5	Beauty training	11
Craft	6	Other (specify).....	12

a1.1	
a1.2	
a1.3	
a1.4	
a1.5	
a1.6	
a1.7	
a1.8	
a1.9	
a1.10	
a1.11	
a1.12	

2. What is your highest professional qualification?

Matric certificate	1
College certificate in...	2
College diploma in...	3
Bachelor degree in ...	4
Master's degree in...	5
Other (specify):.....	6

a2

312 a3

3. How many years of experience do you have in teaching?:years

4. Have you received any professional training in Adult Education and Training?

Yes	1	No	2
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a4

Section B: Access to the Adult Education and Training programme centre

5. What do you think is the **most important** hope/expectation of your trainees upon graduating from training centre? **(Please tick only one).**

To find a job (in public or private sector)	1
To open own small business	2
To be linked with the labour market	3
To be linked with financial institutions	4
Continue with higher education	5
Other:	6

b5.1

b5.2

b5.3

b5.4

b5.5

b5.6

6. Before joining/enrolling for the training, were adult trainees consulted about their needs for training?

Yes	1	No	2
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b6

7. If yes, how was the training needs assessment conducted? **(Please tick all that apply.)**

Asking their interest in the type of the skills training	1
Asking about their own needs for training	2
Asking about the knowledge they have on the skills training	3
Asking about their own learning goals and objectives	4

b7.1

b7.2

b7.3

b7.4

Section C: Training delivery environments

8. Indicate the level (extent) you agree or disagree with the following statements about the challenges facing your centre to prepare trainees for the world of work.

	Statements	1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree
1	There is insufficient provision of training materials for theory lessons					
2	There is insufficient provision of training materials for practical lessons					
3	There is insufficient provision of basic workshop tools and equipment					
4	Little attention is given to link training and industries or work place					
5	Trainers are not encouraged/motivated					
6	The centre lacks qualified trainers					

c8.1

c8.2

c8.3

c8.4

c8.5

c8.6

9. Indicate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about your centre.

Statements		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree	
1	There is sufficient practical skills training for trainees						c9.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	Trainees have sufficient time to practice skills at centre during training						c9.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	The practical component in technical curriculum is well used						c9.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
4	The training consist of 75% practice						c9.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
5	The training consist of 25% theory						c9.5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6	Training focus on technical skills only						c9.6 <input type="checkbox"/>
7	Each training focuses on both technical skills and business skills						c9.7 <input type="checkbox"/>

10. In your opinion, is the training related (relevant) to the needs and objectives of adult trainees?

Very related (relevant)	1	
Related (relevant)	2	c10 <input type="checkbox"/>
Fairly related (relevant)	3	
Not related (irrelevant)	4	

11. To what level (extent) have trainees gained the knowledge, skills and competence necessary for managing small businesses on their own (individually)?

Very high level (great extent)	1	
High level (large extent)	2	c11 <input type="checkbox"/>
Moderate level	3	
Low level (some extent)	4	
Not at all	5	

12. To what level (extent) have trainees gained the knowledge, skills and competence necessary for managing small businesses jointly with others (in a group)?

Very high level (great extent)	1	
High level (large extent)	2	c12 <input type="checkbox"/>
Moderate level	3	
Low level (some extent)	4	
Not at all	5	

13. What is your opinion of the training centre concerning the suitability of the training content for preparing a trainee for a low-skill job?

Very suitable	1	
Suitable	2	c13 <input type="checkbox"/>
Fairly suitable	3	
Not at all	4	

14. What are your perceptions of the training centre concerning the suitability of the training content in preparing a trainee for small businesses?

Very suitable	1
Suitable	2
Fairly suitable	3
Not at all	4

c14

15. How able are your graduate trainees to work for others without supervision?

Very able	1
Able	2
Fairly able	3
Not able	4

c15

16. How do you consider (rate) your graduate trainees with regard to the following knowledge and skills, after completion of the programme?

Knowledge and skills		1. Excellent	2. Good	3. Average	4. Poor	5. Vry poor
1	Can start/ grow a business					
2	Managing a business					
3	Making use of network of entrepreneurs					
4	Marketing of business					
5	Legal aspects of business registration					
6	Financial management					

c16.1

c16.2

c16.3

c16.4

c16.5

c16.6

Section D: Wage-employment information (about trainees who (1) are working for somebody else/company or (2) are not working, thus without a job/unemployed)

17. What is the main area in which your graduate trainees find a job? (Please tick only one.)

Not working/ unemployed	1
They work for someone in small business area (tuck shop, food)	2
They work for someone in small services area/small enterprise (sewing, plumbing, construction, delivery,...)	3
They work in big business area (Shoprite, factory, hotel,...)	4
They work in big services area (big company,...)	5
They work for government/ public sector	6
They work for community-based organisations	

d17

18. How do your graduate trainees get jobs?

Means of getting job		1. Majority	2. Some	3. Very	4. None	
1	They already own businesses					d18.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	Through training centre placement					d18.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	Through friends					d18.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
4	Their own efforts					d18.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
5	Through employment agencies					d18.5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6	Through newspaper advertisements					d18.6 <input type="checkbox"/>

19. Do graduate trainees find jobs related to their adult training programme?

Yes	1	No	2	Don't know	3	d19 <input type="checkbox"/>
-----	---	----	---	------------	---	------------------------------

20. If no, please explain.

d20.1

d20.2

d20.3

Section E: Business enterprise information (about trainees who (1) are self-employed or (2) are self-employed in a group in which they are members)

21. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree with the following statement: The trainings are importantly to motivate, enable and empower trainees to start their own business as individuals or as a group.

Strongly agree	1	e21 <input type="checkbox"/>
Agree	2	
Neutral	3	
Disagree	4	
Strongly disagree	5	

22. What motivates trainees **the most** to start their own businesses? (Please tick only one).

They want to be their own bosses	1	e22 <input type="checkbox"/>
Some lost previous jobs	2	
They cannot find a job anywhere else	3	
They are not qualified for other types of activity	4	
They see opportunities in the market to initiate profitable business	5	

23. What is your graduates' main micro-enterprise/small business? (Working for themselves.)

Small business area (tuck shop, food, co-operatives)	1	e23 <input type="checkbox"/>
Small services area (sewing, plumbing, construction, delivery,..)	2	
Agricultural project (vegetable garden, cooperative farming)	3	

24. What is the main source of money (start-up capital) for your trainees' business? (**Please tick all that apply.**)

No start-up capital	1	e24.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
Loans from bank or a friend	2	e24.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
Own money (savings)	3	e24.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
Stockvel	4	e24.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Spouse (husband or wife)	5	e24.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gifts from parents/ other relatives/ family	6	e24.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (specify):.....	7	e24.7	<input type="checkbox"/>

25. Indicate the reason for **not** applying for a loan to start a business? (**Tick all that apply.**)

Businesses not registered/ licensed	1	e25.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fear of not having money to repay the loan	2	e25.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
Have never needed it	3	e25.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
Don't know where to get a loan	4	e25.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
No place nearby to get a loan/credit	5	e25.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
High interest charged by banks	6	e25.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do not having anything as a guarantee (collateral)	7	e25.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do not have a mediator person (referee)	8	e25.8	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other, (specify):	9	e25.9	<input type="checkbox"/>

26. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree with the reason for the AET graduate's applications for loans/ credit from banks or micro-credit services were **not** successful:

Reasons for unsuccessful loan application		1.Strongly agree	2.Agree	3.Neutral	4.Disagree	5.Strongly disagree		
1	Trainee's business started less than 1 year ago						e26.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Lack of assets as a bank guarantee						e26.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Lack of a financial deposit						e26.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Poor business idea/plan						e26.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Little business experience						e26.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Lack of credit repayment history						e26.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Businesses not registered/ licensed						e26.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Trainees do not have a person who can facilitate it (referee)						e26.8	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section F: Post-training support after the completion of Adult Education and Training

27. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree with the following statements about your centre's linkages with external role players.

Centre has linkages with		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree	
1	Public institutions/ agencies						f27.1
2	NGOs and self-help associations						f27.2
3	Social networks and employers						f27.3
4	Community leaders						f27.4
5	Local businesses						f27.5
6	Business development services						f27.6
7	Financial institutions/banks						f27.7
8	Private enterprises						f27.8

28. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree that the centre or other partner institutions/agencies provide assistance after graduation.

Post-training support		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree	
1	Arrange opportunities for trainees to gain work experience						f28.1
2	Assistance in job placement						f28.2
3	Linking trainee with employers						f28.3
4	Support in small business start-up						f28.4
5	Support in accessing loans/credit						f28.5
6	To grow trainee's business						f28.6
7	To operate trainee's businesses on day to day basis						f28.7
8	To write (compile) a business plan						f28.8
9	Assistance in business registration						f28.9
10	Connecting with other entrepreneurs						f28.10
11	Marketing assistance						f28.11
12	Assistance in finding a business site						f28.12
13	Technical assistance in business						f28.13
14	Support in forming business groups						f28.14
15	Assistance in forming co-operatives						f28.15

29. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree that trainees receive information and advice about micro-enterprise development from any agency, person or other place.

Information and advice								
		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	They do not receive information and advice on business						f29.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	From other entrepreneurs						f29.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	From friends who know the kind of business						f29.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	From local municipality						f29.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	From agencies (SEDA, Ithala, Khula, etc.)						f29.5	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section G: Legal, policy and regulatory issues related to Adult Education and Training

30. Indicate the level (extent) you have knowledge of legal, policy and regulatory aspects of Adult Education and Training.

Extent of Knowledge of								
		1. Very large	2. Large	3. Moderate	4. Small	5. Very small		
1	Skills Development Act, 37 of 2008						g30.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Framework for the National Skills Development Strategy III:2015/16						g30.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Skills Development Strategy III: programme for the unemployed in KZN						g30.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	National Skills Fund allocation to train the unemployed in KZN						g30.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Adult Education and Training Act 25 of 2010 (AET) as amended						g30.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Adult Education and Training Policy Document, 1997						g30.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	National Qualifications Framework (NQF) as related to AET						g30.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Education and Training Quality Assurance (ETQA)						g30.8	<input type="checkbox"/>

31. Indicate the level (extent) of your knowledge of the following policies, institutions and agencies as enabling environments for the adult graduates entering the labour market whether in wage- (formal employment) or self-employment.

Extent of Knowledge of								
		1. Very large	2. Large	3. Moderate	4. Small	5. Very small		
1	The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, 53 of 2003						g31.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	The Integrated Small Enterprise Development Strategy in KZN						g31.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Small Business Development Agency (SEDA) in KZN						g31.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	The Ithala Development Finance Corporation						g31.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	KZN- SMME and Cooperative Strategies						g31.5	<input type="checkbox"/>

32. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree with the statements about access to credit and financial services as enabling environments for establishing own micro-enterprises in KZN.

Access to credit and financial services		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree	
1	Banks and micro-credit services are not keen to provide credit or loans when trainees just finished training						g32.1
2	Banks and micro-credit schemes have tough loan conditions						g32.2
3	Banks and micro-credit services do look at cash flow and regular streams of income						g32.3
4	Micro-financial institutions charge too much interest for the loan						g32.4
5	Government should provide AET graduates with seed capital						g32.5
6	Government should make loans available or facilitate access to loans for micro-entrepreneurs from AET						g32.6

33. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree about the main constraints and risks that graduates face in small business.

Constraints and risks		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree	
1	Fear of crime and theft in the area						g33.1
2	Lack of business site (place/premises)						g33.2
3	Lack of suitable business location						g33.3
4	High cost of legal services to register a small business						g33.4
5	Hard small business laws (regulation)						g33.5
6	Market competition due to imports of cheap goods from Asia						g33.6

34. If you have any specific comments on suggestions on adult education and training programmes in KZN that could assist the researcher, kindly list them below.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix 3A: Questionnaire for Centre Managers

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PROGRAMME MANAGERS

Office use only	
r.1	
r.2	

Respondent No..... Centre Code.....

BASIC CENTRE INFORMATION

1. Tick (✓) the type of the Centre: [1] Public (KZN-AET) or [2] Private (NGO, CBO, Church).
 2. District: _____ 3. Area of the Centre: [1] urban, [2] peri-urban or [3] rural
 4. Date of the Centre establishment: ___/___/20___ Today's date: ___/___/2013

v1	□
v2	□
v3	□
v4.1	□
v4.2	□
v4.3	□
v4.4	□
v4.5	□

Section A: Programme profile

1. Type of training programme offered at the centre:

Wage-employment	1
Self-employment	2
Both	3

a1

2. Indicate all vocational/ occupational skills training courses you offer at your centre.

Agricultural technology	1		Sewing and fashion skills	7
Ancillary health care	2		Poultry	8
Small medium and micro enterprises	3		Co-operative	9
Travel and tourism	4		Basic paramedic	10
Information and computer technology	5		Beauty training	11
Craft	6		Other (specify).....	12

a2.1	□
a2.2	□
a2.3	□
a2.4	□
a2.5	□
a2.6	□
a2.7	□
a2.8	□
a2.9	□
a2.10	□
a2.11	□
a2.12	□

3. What are the selection criteria of your training programmes?

Selection criteria		1 Yes	2 No
1	Low educational achievement (below Grade 12)		
2	Currently being self-employed		
3	Currently being unemployed		
4	Planning to start a small business		
5	Low income and social status		
6	Being a recent school leaver		
7	Knowledge of the specific basic skills		
8	Other, (specify):		

a3.1	□
a3.2	□
a3.3	□
a3.4	□
a3.5	□
a3.6	□
a3.7	□
a3.8	□

Section B: Access to the Adult Education and Training programme centre

4. What is the **most important** expectation of your trainees upon graduating from the AET centre? (Please tick only one).

To find a job(in public or private sector)	1
To open own small business	2
To be linked with the labour market	3
To be linked with financial institutions	4
Continue with higher education	5
Other:	6

b4.1

b4.2

b4.3

b4.4

b4.5

b4.6

5. Before enrolling for the training, were adult trainees consulted about their needs for training?

Yes	1	No	2
-----	---	----	---

b5

6. If yes, how was the training needs assessment conducted? (Please tick all that apply.)

Asking their interest in the type of the skills training	1
Asking about their own needs for training	2
Asking about the knowledge they have on the skills training	3
Asking about their own learning goals and objectives	4

b6.1

b6.2

b6.3

b6.4

Section C: Training delivery environments for skills acquisition

7. Indicate the level (extent) you agree or disagree with the following statements about the challenges facing your centre to prepare trainees for the world of work.

Statements		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree
1	There is insufficient provision of training materials for theory lessons					
2	There is insufficient provision of training materials for practical lessons					
3	There is insufficient provision of basic workshop tools and equipment					
4	Little attention is given to link training and industries or work place					
5	Trainers are not encouraged/motivated					
6	The centre lacks qualified trainers					

c7.1

c7.2

c7.3

c7.4

c7.5

c7.6

8. Indicate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about your centre.

Statements		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree	
1	There is sufficient practical skills training for trainees						c8.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	Trainees have sufficient time to practice skills at centre during training						c8.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	The practical component in technical curriculum is well used						c8.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
4	The training consist of 75% practice						c8.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
5	The training consist of 25% theory						c8.5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6	Training focus on technical skills only						c8.6 <input type="checkbox"/>
7	Each training focuses on both technical skills and business skills						c8.7 <input type="checkbox"/>

9. How does the centre conduct a final assessment and certification?

Assessment and certification		1 Yes	2 No	
1	A workplace certification is conducted by an external company			c9.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	A workplace certification is conducted by a certification body (SETA)			c9.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	A professional certification is conducted by an organisation (of employers)			c9.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
4	Training certification is provided by KZN-DoE, Umalusi			c9.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
5	No recognised certification			c9.5 <input type="checkbox"/>

10. In your opinion, is the training related (relevant) to the needs and objectives of adult trainees?

Very related (relevant)	1
Related (relevant)	2
Fairly related (relevant)	3
Not related (irrelevant)	4

c10

11. To what level (extent) have trainees gained the knowledge, skills and competence necessary for managing small businesses on their own (individually)?

Very high level (great extent)	1
High level (large extent)	2
Moderate level	3
Low level (some extent)	4
Not at all	5

c11

12. To what level (extent) have trainees gained the knowledge, skills and competence necessary for managing small businesses with others (in a group)?

Very high level (great extent)	1
High level (large extent)	2
Moderate level	3
Low level (some extent)	4
Not at all	5

c12

13. What is your opinion of the training centre concerning the suitability of the training content for preparing a trainee for a low-skill job?

Very suitable	1
Suitable	2
Fairly suitable	3
Not at all	4

c13

14. What are your perceptions of the training centre concerning the suitability of the training content in preparing a trainee for small businesses?

Very suitable	1
Suitable	2
Fairly suitable	3
Not at all	4

c14

15. How able are your graduate trainees to work for others without supervision?

Very able	1
Able	2
Fairly able	3
Not able	4

c15

16. How do you rate your graduate trainees, with regard to the following knowledge and skills, after completion of the programme?

Knowledge and skills		1. Excellent	2. Good	3. Average	4. Poor	5. Very poor
1	Can start/ grow a business					
2	Managing a business					
3	Making use of network of entrepreneurs					
4	Marketing of business					
5	Legal aspects of business registration					
6	Financial management					

c16.1

c16.2

c16.3

c16.4

c16.5

c16.6

Section D: Wage-employment information (about trainees who (1) are working for somebody else/company or (2) are not working, thus without a job/unemployed)

17. What is the **main area** in which your graduate trainees find a job? (Please tick only one.)

Not working/ unemployed	1
They work for someone in small business area (tuck shop, food)	2
They work for someone in small services area/small enterprise (sewing, plumbing, construction, delivery,..)	3
They work in big business area (Shoprite, factory, hotel,...)	4
They work in big services area (big company,...)	5
They work for government/ public sector	6
They work for community-based organisations	

d17

18. How do your graduate trainees get jobs?

Means of getting job		1. Majority	2. Some	3. Very little	4. None		
1	They already own businesses					d18.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Through training centre placement					d18.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Through friends					d18.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Their own efforts					d18.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Through employment agencies					d18.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Through newspaper advertisements					d18.6	<input type="checkbox"/>

19. Do they find jobs related to their adult training programme?

Yes	1	No	2	Don't know	3	d19	<input type="checkbox"/>
-----	---	----	---	------------	---	-----	--------------------------

20. If no, please explain.

_____	d20.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
_____	d20.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
_____	d20.3	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section E: Business enterprise information (about trainees who (1) are self-employed or (2) are self-employed in a group in which they are members)

21. Indicate the extent that you agree or disagree with the following statement: The trainings are importantly to motivate, enable and empower trainees to start their own business initiatives as individuals or as a group.

Strongly agree	1	e21	<input type="checkbox"/>
Agree	2		
Neutral	3		
Disagree	4		
Strongly disagree	5		

22. What motivates trainees the most to start their own businesses? (Please tick only one).

They want to be their own bosses	1	e22	<input type="checkbox"/>
Some lost previous jobs	2		
They cannot find a job anywhere else	3		
They are not qualified for other types of activity	4		
They see opportunities in the market to initiate profitable business	5		

23. What is your graduates' **main** micro-enterprise/small business? (Working for themselves.)

Small business area (tuck shop, food, co-operatives)	1
Small services area (sewing, plumbing, construction, delivery,..)	2
Agricultural project (vegetable garden, cooperative farming)	3

e23

24. What is the main source of money (start-up capital) for your trainees' business? (**Please tick all that apply.**)

No start-up capital	1
Loans from bank or a friend	2
Own money (savings)	3
Stockvel	4
Spouse (husband or wife)	5
Gifts from parents/ other relatives/family	6
Other (specify):.....	7

e24.1
e24.2
e24.3
e24.4
e24.5
e24.6
e24.7

25. Indicate the reason for **not** applying for a loan to start a business? (**Tick all that apply.**)

Businesses not registered/ licensed	1
Fear of not having money to repay the loan	2
Have never needed it	3
Don't know where to get a loan	4
No place nearby to get a loan/credit	5
High interest charged by banks	6
Do not having anything as a guarantee (collateral)	7
Do not have a mediator person (referee)	8
Other, (specify):	9

e25.1
e25.2
e25.3
e25.4
e25.5
e25.6
e25.7
e25.8
e25.9

26. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree with the reason for the AET graduate's applications for loans/ credit from banks or micro-credit services were **not** successful:

Reasons for unsuccessful loan application		1.Strongly agree	2.Agree	3.Neutral	4.Disagree	5.Strongly disagree
1	Trainee's business started less than 1 year ago					
2	Lack of assets as a bank guarantee					
3	Lack of a financial deposit					
4	Poor business idea/plan					
5	Little business experience					
6	Lack of credit repayment history					
7	Businesses not registered/ licensed					
8	Trainees do not have a person who can facilitate it (referee)					

e26.1
e26.2
e26.3
e26.4
e26.5
e26.6
e26.7
e26.8

Section F: Post-training support after the completion of Adult Education and Training

27. Indicate the level (extent) you agree or disagree with the following statements about your centre's linkages with external role players.

Centre has linkages with		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree	
1	Public institutions/ agencies						f27.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	NGOs and self-help associations						f27.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	Social networks and employers						f27.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
4	Community leaders						f27.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
5	Local businesses						f27.5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6	Business development services						f27.6 <input type="checkbox"/>
7	Financial institutions/banks						f27.7 <input type="checkbox"/>
8	Private enterprises						f27.8 <input type="checkbox"/>

28. Indicate the extent you agree/ disagree that the centre or other partner institutions/ agencies provide assistance after graduation.

Post-training support		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree	
1	Arrange opportunities for trainees to gain work experience						f28.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	Assistance in job placement						f28.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	Linking trainee with employers						f28.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
4	Support in small business start-up						f28.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
5	Support in accessing loans/credit						f28.5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6	To grow trainee's business						f28.6 <input type="checkbox"/>
7	To operate trainee's businesses on day to day basis						f28.7 <input type="checkbox"/>
8	To write (compile) a business plan						f28.8 <input type="checkbox"/>
9	Assistance in business registration						f28.9 <input type="checkbox"/>
10	Connecting with other entrepreneurs						f28.10 <input type="checkbox"/>
11	Marketing assistance						f28.11 <input type="checkbox"/>
12	Assistance in finding a business site						f28.12 <input type="checkbox"/>
13	Technical assistance in business						f28.13 <input type="checkbox"/>
14	Support in forming business groups						f28.14 <input type="checkbox"/>
15	Assistance in forming co-operatives						f28.15 <input type="checkbox"/>

29. Indicate the level (extent) that you agree or disagree that trainees receive information and advice about micro-enterprise development from any agency, person or other place.

Information and advice		1. Strongly agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Strongly disagree		
1	They do not receive information and advice on business						f29.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	From other entrepreneurs						f29.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	From friends who know the kind of business						f29.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	From local municipality						f29.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	From agencies (SEDA, Ithala, Khula, etc.)						f29.5	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section G: Legal, policy and regulatory issues related to Adult Education and Training

30. Indicate the level (extent) you have knowledge of legal, policy and regulatory aspects of Adult Education and Training.

Extent of Knowledge of		1. Very large	2. Large	3. Moderate	4. Small	5. Very small		
1	Skills Development Act, 37 of 2008						g30.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Framework for the National Skills Development Strategy III:2015/16						g30.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Skills Development Strategy III: programme for the unemployed in KZN						g30.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	National Skills Fund allocation to train the unemployed in KZN						g30.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Adult Education and Training Act 25 of 2010 (AET) as amended						g30.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Adult Education and Training Policy Document, 1997						g30.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	National Qualifications Framework (NQF) as related to AET						g30.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Education and Training Quality Assurance (ETQA)						g30.8	<input type="checkbox"/>

31. Indicate the level (extent) of your knowledge in the following policies, institutions and agencies as enabling environments for the adult graduates entering the labour market whether in wage- (formal employment) or self-employment.

Extent of Knowledge of		1. Very large	2. Large	3. Moderate	4. Small	5. Very small		
1	The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, 53 of 2003						g31.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	The Integrated Small Enterprise Development Strategy in KZN						g31.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Small Business Development Agency (SEDA) in KZN						g31.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	The Ithala Development Finance Corporation						g31.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	KZN- SMME and Cooperative Strategies						g31.5	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 3B: Interview Schedule for Centre Managers

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE MANAGERS

Respondent No.....

Centre Code.....

Date:...../...../20.....

Goal of the study:

The goal of the study is to assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in fostering trainees' employment for poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal.

BASIC CENTRE INFORMATION

1. Tick (✓) the type of the Centre: [1] Public (KZN-AET) or [2] Private (NGO, CBO, Church)
2. District: _____ Area of the Adult Centre (urban, peri-urban or rural): _____
3. Training courses the centre offers: _____

1. Centre's skills training programme

- 1.1 What are the overall goal and target groups of the centre skills training programme?
- 1.2 Would you describe the programme structure and contents which have been designed to meet the goal?
- 1.3 What are the sources of financial support for the programme and for instructors?

2. To what extent has the adult centre established effective links with the following:

- 2.1 KZN-Department of Education and Skills Training Agencies (eg. SETA, Education and Training Quality Assurance)?
- 2.2 Local business enterprises and NGOs?
- 2.3 Prospective employers (both formal and informal)?
- 2.4 Banks and micro-credit schemes (financial institutions)?

3 Training programme delivery

- 3.1 How do you recruit training participants?
- 3.2 If your centre implements any inclusive Competency-Based Training package, would you describe major activities designed to ensure that each of objectives is attained?
- 3.3 How do you integrate entrepreneurship skills with the technical training content?
- 3.4 How do you assess trainees and conduct the certification of your trainees?

4. Post-training support for employment (wage- and self-employment)

- 4.1 What are the mechanisms utilised to assist a graduate with finding wage-employment?
- 4.2 What are the mechanisms utilised to assist a graduate with establishing a micro-enterprise or co-operative?
- 4.3 How do you network with other external role players such as other training providers, public institutions, NGOs, business enterprises, employers and other local partners in fostering skills utilisation in wage-employment?
- 4.4 How do you network with other external role players such as Business Development Services, public agencies, NGOs, business enterprises and other local partners in assisting graduates to establish a micro-enterprise/ co-operative?
- 4.5 How do you measure the impact of a training programme on the target groups?

5. The external enabling and disabling environments influencing the graduates entering the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal

- 5.1 To what extent do public institutions and agencies enable or restrict trainees to find employment?
- 5.2 What linkages with social networks are in place that enables trainees to find employment?
- 5.3 What linkages with local business enterprises and NGOs enable trainees to find employment?
- 5.4 What linkages with prospective employers enable trainees to find jobs?
- 5.5 In what way do financial institutions enable/ restrict trainees to start micro-enterprises?
- 5.6 In what way do the laws and regulations for AET and micro-enterprise development enable or restrict trainees to find jobs or start their own micro-enterprises?
- 5.7 In what way do the SME promotion policies and institution enable trainees to start micro-enterprises?
- 5.8 In what way do small business registrations and licensing enable or restrict trainees to start micro-enterprises?
- 5.9 In what way do finance and credit policies enable or restrict trainees to access loans?
- 5.10 To what extent is Business Development Services (BDS) accessible to trainees and enable them to develop sustainable micro-enterprises?
- 5.11 To what extent does access to business premises enable or restrict trainees to start micro-enterprises?

Appendix 4A: Informed Consent Form: Trainees/Learners



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Social Work & Criminology

20/05/2013

Researcher: Celestin Mayombe
Mobile: xxxxxxxxxxxx
E-mail: xxxxxxxxxxxx

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: LEARNERS

Title of the study

Assessment of Non- formal Adult Education and Training centres' enabling environments for employment in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

Goal of the study

To assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in enabling trainees' employment and poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal.

Introduction

This document is to confirm my voluntary participation in the PhD research of Mr. Celestin Mayombe pursuing a PhD degree at the University of Pretoria. It is my understanding that he is doing a research project on the adult education and training of which I am/was a part. I understand that the purpose of my participation is to learn more about my experiences in and knowledge about the programme as an adult learner.

Procedure: It is my understanding that my participation in this research involves filling in questionnaire or being interviewed individually. The interview will be conducted for a period of 45 to 60 minutes.

Voluntary participation: I understand that my decision to participate or not in this research is completely voluntary and that I am not required to answer any questions if I do not want to. I understand that if I feel uncomfortable, I am free to withdraw from the study at any time.

Benefits: I understand that there are no direct benefits to me, but that my participation will help the researcher to understand the adult education and training activities. My

understanding is that the research may possibly lead to improvement in the programme for future participants and the community in general.

Potential risks: To the best of my knowledge, there are no potential risks or harm involved in participating in the study.

Anonymity and confidentiality: I understand that I will not be identified by name in any documents, the research report or any other publications. However, I understand with my expressed permission, that the interview will be tape-recorded. I also understand that the researcher will compile a research report to be submitted to the University of Pretoria for academic purposes and that the research findings will be submitted for publication to a scientific journal. I am also aware that the raw data will be securely stored for a minimum of 15 years, according to the University of Pretoria's stipulations. I understand that I will be asked to give full consent if the research data is to be used for further research.

By signing this letter of consent, I confirm that I have read and clearly understood its contents. I know I do not give up any legal right by signing this letter of informed consent.

Participant (Full name) **Signature** **Date**

Researcher (Full name) **Signature** **Date**

Appendix 4B: Informed Consent Form: Trainees/Learners (Zulu)

20/05/2013



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Social Work & Criminology

Researcher: Celestin Mayombe
Mobile: xxxxxxxxxxxx
E-mail: xxxxxxxxxxxx

IFOMU ELAZISA ISIVUMELWANO: ABAFUNDI

ISIHLOKO SESIFUNDO

Ukubhekelela Ezemfundo yaBadala nezakhiwo Zoqeqesho ekunikezeleni ngesimo samathuba okuqashwa KwaZulu Natal eseSouth Africa.

INHLOSO YESIFUNDO

Ukubheka ekunikezeleni ngamathuba (ngaphandle nangaphakathi) kwimfundo yabadala nasezakhiweni zoqeqesho ekuqinisekiseni ukuqeqeshelwa ukusebenza ukuze kuphele indlala kusifundazwe saKwaZulu Natal.

ISINGENISO

Lencwadi iqinisekisa ukuzinikela kwami ekubeni yingxenye yocwaningo olwalwenziwa uMr.Celestin Mayombe ekutholeni iziqu zePhD eUniversity yasePitoli.Ngiyazi ukuthi njengamanje wenza ucwaningo ngemfundo yabadala kanye nokuqeqesha kanti nami ngiyingxenye yalolohlelo. Inhloso yokuba yingxenye ukuba ngithole ulwazi futhi ngikhule ngokwaloluhlelo; njengomfundi omdala.

INQUBO/UMTHETHO

Ngiyaqonda ukuthi ukuba yingxenye yalolucwaningo kuzoba nemibuzo noma uhlelo lwemibuzo. Imibuzo izothatha imizuzu engashumi amane nanhlanu kuya kwengamashumiayisithupha.

UKUBA YINGXENYE NGOKUZITHANDELA

Ngiyakuqonda ukuthi kuyisinqumo sami ukuba yingxenye okukanye ngingabi yingxenye yalolucwaningo futhi akunasidingo sokuba ngiphendule imibuzo umangingathandi, uma ngizizwa ukuthi angenelisekile kahle nginalo ilungelo lokuhoxa.

INZUZO

Ngiyaqonda ukuthi akukho okuyinzuzo okuyonikezwa mina siqu kodwa ukuba yingxenye kuyosiza nakumcwaningi ukuba aqonde kahle ngokufundiswa kwabadala nokwenziwayo mabeqeqeshwa. Lolucwaningo luyoholela ekuthuthukeni kwezinhlelo kwaba yoba yingxenye yakusasa kanjalo nomphakathi ngokubanzi.

UKUZIFAKA ENGCUPHENI

Ngokolwazi enginalo akukho ukuzifaka engcupheni okukanye okubi ngokuba yingxenye yalesifundo.

AKUYUBANAGAMA FUTHI KUYIMFIHLO

Angifuni igama lami libhalwe kunoma ngabe iyiphi incwadi, umbiko womcwaningi noma kuphi emaphepheni. Nakuba kunjalo ngiyavumelana nokuthi izwi lami lifakwe emshinini ligcinwe khona. Ngiyazi futhi ukuthi umcwaningi uzohlenganisa yonke imibiko ngenhloso yokuba ayise eUniversity yasePitoli ukuba kwenziwe izinhloso zangaphakathi. Ngियाqonda ukuthi loluhlelo locwaningo olungaqinisekisiwe luzoba selugcinweni iminyaka eyishumi nanhlanu ngaphansi kwesikhungo seUniversity nangokwemithetho yayo. Ngियाqonda futhi ukuthi kuzomele nginikezele ngemvume egcwele uma ngabe loluhlelo locwaningo olungaqinisekisiwe lusaqhutshezelwa phambili.

Ngokusayinda lencwadi yesivumelwano, ngियाqinisekisa ukuthi ngiyifunde kahle futhi ngiyayiqonda ekuchazayo. Ngiyazi ukuthi anginikezeli ngamalungelo ami asemthethweni ngokusayinda lencwadi yesivumelwano.

Obambe iqhaza (Amagama aphelele)

Sayina

Usuku

Umcwaningi(amagama aphelele)

Sayina

Usuku

Appendix 5A: Informed Consent Form: Trainers



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Social Work & Criminology

20/05/2013

Researcher: Celestin Mayombe
Mobile: xxxxxxxxxxxx
E-mail: xxxxxxxxxxxx

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: TRAINERS

Title of the study

Assessment of Non- formal Adult Education and Training centres' enabling environments for employment in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

Goal of the study

To assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in enabling trainees' employment and poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal.

Introduction

This document is to confirm my voluntary participation in the PhD research of Mr. Celestin Mayombe pursuing a PhD degree at the University of Pretoria. It is my understanding that he is doing a research project on the adult education and training of which I am/was a part. I understand that the purpose of my participation is to learn more about my experiences in and knowledge about the programme as a trainer.

Procedure: It is my understanding that my participation in this research involves filling in questionnaire or being interviewed individually. The interview will be conducted for a period of 45 to 60 minutes.

Voluntary participation: I understand that my decision to participate or not in this research is completely voluntary and that I am not required to answer any questions if I do not want to. I understand that if I feel uncomfortable, I am free to withdraw from the study at any time.

Benefits: I understand that there are no direct benefits to me, but that my participation will help the researcher to understand the adult education and training activities. My understanding is that the research may possibly lead to improvement in the programme for future participants and the community in general.

Appendix 5B: Informed Consent Form: Trainers (Zulu)



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Social Work & Criminology

20/05/2013

Researcher: Celestin Mayombe
Mobile: xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
E-mail: xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx

IFOMU ELAZISA ISIVUMELWANO: ABAFUNDISI

ISIHLOKO SESIFUNDO

Ukubhekelela Ezemfundo yaBadala nezakhiwo Zoqeqesho ekunikezeleni ngesimo samathuba okuqashwa KwaZulu Natal eseSouth Africa.

INHLOSO YESIFUNDO

Ukubheka ekunikezeleni ngamathuba (ngaphandle nangaphakathi) kwimfundo yabadala nasezakhiweni zoqeqesho ekuqinisekiseni ukuqeqeshelwa ukusebenza ukuze kuphele indlala kusifundazwe saKwaZulu Natal.

ISINGENISO

Lencwadi iqinisekisa ukuzinikela kwami ekubeni yingxenywe yocwaningo olwalwenziwa uMr.Celestin Mayombe ekutholeni iziqu zePhD eUniversity yasePitoli.Ngiyazi ukuthi njengamanje wenza ucwaningo ngemfundo yabadala kanye nokuqeqesha kanti nami ngiyingxenywe yalolohlelo. Inhloso yokuba yingxenywe ukuba ngithole ulwazi futhi ngikhule ngokwaloluhlelo; njengomfundisi.

INQUBO/UMTHETHO

Ngiyaqonda ukuthi ukuba yingxenywe yalolucwaningo kuzoba nemibuzo noma uhlelo lwemibuzo. Imibuzo izothatha imizuzu engashumi amane nanhlanu kuya kwengamashumi ayisithupha.

UKUBA YINGXENYE NGOKUZITHANDELA

Ngiyakuqonda ukuthi kuyisinqumo sami ukuba yingxenywe okukanye ngingabi yingxenywe yalolucwaningo futhi akunasidingo sokuba ngiphendule imibuzo umangingathandi, uma ngizizwa ukuthi angenelisekile kahle nginalo ilungelo lokuhoxa.

INZUZO

Ngiyaqonda ukuthi akukho okuyinzuzo okuyonikezwa mina siqu kodwa ukuba yingxenywe kuyosiza nakumcwaningi ukuba aqonde kahle ngokufundiswa kwabadala nokwenziwayo mabeqeqeshwa. Lolucwaningo luyoholela ekuthuthukeni kwezinhlelo kwaba yoba yingxenywe yakusasa kanjalo nomphakathi ngokubanzi.

UKUZIFAKA ENGCUPHENI

Ngokolwazi enginalo akukho ukuzifaka engcupheni okukanye okubi ngokuba yingxenye yalesifundo.

AKUYUBANAGAMA FUTHI KUYIMFIHLO

Angifuni igama lami libhalwe kunoma ngabe iyiphi incwadi, umbiko womcwaningi noma kuphi emaphepheni. Nakuba kunjalo ngiyavumelana nokuthi izwi lami lifakwe emshinini ligcinwe khona. Ngiyazi futhi ukuthi umcwaningi uzohlenganisa yonke imibiko ngenhloso yokuba ayise eUniversity yasePitoli ukuba kwenziwe izinhloso zangaphakathi. Nginyaqonda ukuthi loluhlelo locwaningo olungaqinisekisiwe luzoba selugcinweni iminyaka eyishumi nanhlanu ngaphansi kwesikhungo seUniversity nangokwemithetho yayo. Nginyaqonda futhi ukuthi kuzomele nginikezele ngemvume egcwele uma ngabe loluhlelo locwaningo olungaqinisekisiwe lusaqhutshezela phambili.

Ngokusayinda lencwadi yesivumelwano, ngiyaqinisekisa ukuthi ngiyifunde kahle futhi ngiyayiqonda ekuchazayo. Ngiyazi ukuthi anginikezeli ngamalungelo ami asemthethweni ngokusayinda lencwadi yesivumelwano.

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Obambe iqhaza (Amagama aphelele)	Sayina	Usuku

-----	-----	-----
Umcwaningi(amagama aphelele)	Sayina	Usuku

Appendix 6 A: Informed Consent Form: Centre managers



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Social Work & Criminology

20/05/2013

Researcher: Celestin Mayombe
Mobile: xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
E-mail: xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: CENTRE MANAGERS

Title of the study

Assessment of Non- formal Adult Education and Training centres' enabling environments for employment in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Goal of the study

To assess the enabling environments (internal and external) of non-formal adult education and training centres in enabling trainees' employment and poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal.

Introduction

This document is to confirm my voluntary participation in the PhD research of Mr. Celestin Mayombe pursuing a PhD degree at the University of Pretoria. It is my understanding that he is doing a research project on the adult education and training of which I am/was a part. I understand that the purpose of my participation is to learn more about my experiences in and knowledge about the programme as a centre manager.

Procedure: It is my understanding that my participation in this research involves filling in questionnaire or being interviewed individually. The interview will be conducted for a period of 45 to 60 minutes.

Voluntary participation: I understand that my decision to participate or not in this research is completely voluntary and that I am not required to answer any questions if I do not want to. I understand that if I feel uncomfortable, I am free to withdraw from the study at any time.

Benefits: I understand that there are no direct benefits to me, but that my participation will help the researcher to understand the adult education and training activities. My

understanding is that the research may possibly lead to improvement in the programme for future participants and the community in general.

Potential risks: To the best of my knowledge, there are no potential risks or harm involved in participating in the study.

Anonymity and confidentiality: I understand that I will not be identified by name in any documents, the research report or any other publications. However, I understand with my expressed permission, that the interview will be tape-recorded. I also understand that the researcher will compile a research report to be submitted to the University of Pretoria for academic purposes and that the research findings will be submitted for publication to a scientific journal. I am also aware that the raw data will be securely stored for a minimum of 15 years, according to the University of Pretoria's stipulations. I understand that I will be asked to give full consent if the research data is to be used for further research.

By signing this letter of consent, I confirm that I have read and clearly understood its contents. I know I do not give up any legal right by signing this letter of informed consent.

Participant (Full name) **Signature** **Date**

Researcher (Full name) **Signature** **Date**

Appendix 6 B: Informed Consent Form: Centre managers (Zulu)



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Department of Social Work & Criminology

20/05/2013

Researcher: Celestin Mayombe
Mobile: xxxxxxxxxxxxxx
E-mail: xxxxxxxxxxxxxx

IFOMU ELAZISA ISIVUMELWANO: AMAMENEJA ESENTA

ISIHLOKO SESIFUNDO

Ukubhekelela Ezemfundo yaBadala nezakhiwo Zoqeqesho ekunikezeleni ngesimo samathuba okuqashwa KwaZulu Natal eseSouth Africa.

INHLOSO YESIFUNDO

Ukubheka ekunikezeleni ngamathuba (ngaphandle nangaphakathi) kwimfundo yabadala nasezakhiweni zoqeqesho ekuqinisekiseni ukuqeqeshelwa ukusebenza ukuze kuphele indlala kusifundazwe saKwaZulu Natal.

ISINGENISO

Lencwadi iqinisekisa ukuzinikela kwami ekubeni yingxenywe yocwaningo olwalwenziwa uMr.Celestin Mayombe ekutholeni iziqu zePhD eUniversity yasePitoli.Ngiyazi ukuthi njengamanje wenza ucwaningo ngemfundo yabadala kanye nokuqeqesha kanti nami ngiyingxenywe yalolohlelo. Inhloso yokuba yingxenywe ukuba ngithole ulwazi futhi ngikhule ngokwaloluhlelo; njengomeneja wesenta.

INQUBO/UMTHETHO

Ngiyaqonda ukuthi ukuba yingxenywe yalolucwaningo kuzoba nemibuzo noma uhlelo lwemibuzo. Imibuzo izothatha imizuzu engashumi amane nanhlanu kuya kwengamashumi ayisithupha.

UKUBA YINGXENYE NGOKUZITHANDELA

Ngiyakuqonda ukuthi kuyisinqumo sami ukuba yingxenywe okukanye ngingabi yingxenywe yalolucwaningo futhi akunasidingo sokuba ngiphendule imibuzo umangingathandi, uma ngizizwa ukuthi angenelisekile kahle nginalo ilungelo lokuhoxa.

INZUZO

Ngiyaqonda ukuthi akukho okuyinzuzo okuyonikezwa mina siqu kodwa ukuba yingxenywe kuyosiza nakumcwaningi ukuba aqonde kahle ngokufundiswa kwabadala nokwenziwayo mabeqeqeshwa. Lolucwaningo luyoholela ekuthuthukeni kwezinhlelo kwaba yoba yingxenywe yakusasa kanjalo nomphakathi ngokubanzi.

UKUZIFAKA ENGCUPHENI

Ngokolwazi enginalo akukho ukuzifaka engcupheni okukanye okubi ngokuba yingxenyeye yalesifundo.

AKUYUBANAGAMA FUTHI KUYIMFIHLO

Angifuni igama lami libhalwe kunoma ngabe iyiphi incwadi, umbiko womcwaningi noma kuphi emaphepheni. Nakuba kunjalo ngiyavumelana nokuthi izwi lami lifakwe emshinini ligcinwe khona. Ngiyazi futhi ukuthi umcwaningi uzohlenganisa yonke imibiko ngenhloso yokuba ayise eUniversity yasePitoli ukuba kwenziwe izinhloso zangaphakathi. Ngियाqonda ukuthi loluhlelo locwaningo olungaqinisekisiwe luzoba selugcinweni iminyaka eyishumi nanhlanu ngaphansi kwesikhungo seUniversity nangokwemithetho yayo. Ngियाqonda futhi ukuthi kuzomele nginikezele ngemvume egcwele uma ngabe loluhlelo locwaningo olungaqinisekisiwe lusaqhutshezelwa phambili.

Ngokusayinda lencwadi yesivumelwano, ngियाqinisekisa ukuthi ngiyifunde kahle futhi ngiyayiqonda ekuchazayo. Ngiyazi ukuthi anginikezeli ngamalungelo ami asemthethweni ngokusayinda lencwadi yesivumelwano.

Obambe iqhaza (Amagama aphelele)	Sayina	Usuku
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Umcwaningi(amagamaaphelele)	Sayina	Usuku
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Appendix 7: Ethical Clearance



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Humanities
Office of the Deputy Dean

12 2013

Dear Prof Lombard

Project: The assessment of non-formal adult education and training centres' enabling environments for employment and poverty reduction in KwaZulu-Natal, South African

Researcher: CB Mayombe

Supervisor: Prof A Lombard

Department: Social Work and Criminology

Reference number: 11229072

I am pleased to be able to tell you that the above application was **approved (with comment)** by the **Postgraduate Committee** on 2013 and by the **Research Ethics Committee** on 2013. Data collection may therefore commence.

Please note that this approval is based on the assumption that the research will be carried out along the lines laid out in the proposal. Should the actual research depart significantly from the proposed research, it will be necessary to apply for a new research approval and ethical clearance.

The Committee requests you to convey this approval to the researcher.

We wish you success with the project.

Sincerely

Prof Sakhela Buhlungu
Chair: Postgraduate Committee &
Research Ethics Committee
Faculty of Humanities
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
e-mail: sakhela.buhlungu@up.ac.za

Appendix 8A: Permission Letter to Conduct Research in the KZN-DoE Institutions



education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar

Tel: 033 341 8610

Ref.:2/4/8/414

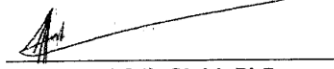
Mr Celestin Mayombe
153 Sentinel Avenue
Greenwood park
DURBAN NORTH
4051

Dear Mr Mayombe

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct a pilot and research entitled: **Assessment of Non-Formal Adult Education and Training Centres' Enabling Environments for Employment in KwaZulu Natal, South Africa**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 June 2013 to 30 June 2015.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Mr. Alwar at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report / dissertation / thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Director-Resources Planning, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to the schools and institutions in the following District/s of the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education:
Umlazi District Pinetown District Ilembe District
Umgungundlovu District


Nkosinathi S.P. Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education
24 June 2013

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

POSTAL: Private Bag X 9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200, KwaZulu-Natal, Republic of South Africa
PHYSICAL: Office G25, 188 Pietermaritz Street, Pietermaritzburg, 3201. Tel. 033 3418610 Fax : 033 341 8612
EMAIL ADDRESS: sibusiso.alwar@kzndoe.gov.za; CALL CENTRE: 0860 596 363;
WEBSITE: www.kzndoe.gov.za

...dedicated to service and performance
beyond the call of duty

Appendix 8B: Permission Letters to Conduct Research



4 Burger St, Pietermaritzburg, 3201
South Africa
(PO Box 101071, Scottsville, 3209)
Tel: + 27 33 845 0400,
Fax: + 27 33 845 0455
email:
enquiries@projectgateway.co.za
website: www.projectgateway.co.za

6th May 2013.

To whom this may concern,

This letter serves to grant permission to Celestin Mayombe to conduct the academic research at Project Gateway so that permission may be granted through the Ethical Clearance Centre from the University of Pretoria.

We therefore grant Celestin Mayombe permission to conduct research in the AET programme detailing all aspects of the research data collection process. We understand that the researcher will only consider programmes which are linked to livelihood skills and entrepreneurial trainings for unemployed people.

The sample will consist of 20 centres of the educational districts of Umlazi, Pinetown, ILembe and uMgungundlovu, including Project Gateway and other NGOs in the selected district.

We are willing to accommodate the needs of Celestin as far as possible and look forward to meeting to discuss the project further.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'Di Milford'.

Di Milford
Donor Marketing and Public Relations
Project Gateway, PO Box 101071, Scottsville, 3209
Tel +27 33 8450400
Fax +27 33 8450455
Cell: +27 82 784 3729
e-mail: milfordd@projectgateway.co.za
www.projectgateway.co.za