

CHAPTER 1

ADULT CURRICULUM, THE WORKFORCE, SUSTAINABILITY AND CHANGE

The relationship between the abstract world of academic education, unaffected by the world of practical reality, and vocational education, rooted in practical work, but not consciously linked to the laws of science which underlie the practical, is a classical theme in the sociology of knowledge and in education policy. The issue of further integration of vocational and general studies has now emerged as a political issue. This has come about not as a result of any theoretical clarification of these two traditions in education, but rather, it is an acknowledgment of the fact that developments within the sphere of technology are radically altering occupation division as well as the contents and organisation of labour. This creates a more urgent need to integrate the different elements of the learning process (Mjelde, 1995: 147).

Mjelde's observations highlight the necessity for training to serve the ever changing needs of the economy. This chapter contemplates the curriculum, the workforce, the economy, educational change and issues relating to sustainability with a particular emphasis on the island of Cascara. Curriculum is analysed with regards to its relevance to adult and vocational learning opportunities so as to ensure that work-based skills development can support economic growth. This review also focuses on how these learning opportunities can be sustainably offered in the colonial yet changing environment of Cascara Island. To this end, this chapter is presented in four sections:

- Adult Learning on Cascara Island
- Curriculum, Change and the Cascarian Context
- The Economy and the Workforce on Cascara Island
- Sustainability Issues and International Lessons

The sections in this chapter have been organised to closely address the three broad aims of the study.

1.1. ADULT LEARNING ON CASCARA ISLAND

As the notion of curriculum is central to this thesis, I commence with the concept of Adult and Vocational Education. After this I offer a trajectory in which an historical overview of the provision of Adult and Vocational Education on Cascara Island is provided. Thereafter, I provide a synopsis of the current state of adult and vocational learning provision on the island. My discussion then shifts to a contemplation of educational theories concerning adult learning. In doing this, I explore the adult learning theory of andragogy in detail and also draw on the additional adult learning theories of transformational and self-directed learning. I conclude with an exploration of approaches to tutoring that are best suited to the provision of adult learning; this section includes a synthesis of the issues covered.

1.1.1. Introduction to Adult and Vocational Learning

Adult learning (or andragogical) initiatives, as with child (or pedagogical) initiatives, have a focus that entwines the political, social and economic ideals of government and decision-makers (Zemke, 2001). They bring together the general functions and responsibilities of the learning to be offered within in the context of any particular nation. The aim of the learning is to meet the demands of current and future economic needs. Adult learning encompasses a broad spectrum of learning in both the formal and non-formal education sectors. Adult learning can therefore be structured, specialised, incidental or general in nature. Adult and Vocational Education (AVE) is offered on Cascara Island under the Adult and Vocational Education Service, for this reason adult learning in the context of this thesis is referred to as Adult and Vocational Education.

The literature indicates that AVE may be an outdated term (Scott & Sarkees-Wircenski, 2004) and that historically, it is the term that was used for what is currently called Career and Technical Education (CTE). The primary aim of CTE was to provide skills development to potential workers which improved their employability rather than focussing on purely academic aims and disciplines. Scott & Sarkees-Wircenski (*ibid*) suggest that the purpose of vocational education is to prepare school leavers for entry level employment. The shift from

'vocational' to 'career and technical' reflects a broader expansion on the emphasis for developing academic and vocational skills to secondary school graduates. The problem with the umbrella term of CTE is that in many circles it is concerned primarily with secondary and post-secondary education. Adult and Vocational Education is much broader in the Cascarian context: it encompasses the notion of lifelong learning and aims to provide learning pathways to learners from the age of 16 (Brookes⁵, 2005: 3). Silverberg, Warner, Goodwin & Fong (2002) suggest a broader definition of CTE: they contend that CTE reflects a country's economic and social investment in education. They further argue that CTE is also preoccupied with the development of workers to foster employability. Keating (2002) takes this view of CTE further by suggesting that its purpose is to improve the productivity and competitiveness of both the individual and the country. It should be noted that this view embodies the present-day aims of the AVES. Lynch (2000: 20) suggests the following four purposes of CTE:

1. providing career exploration and planning;
2. enhancing academic achievement and motivation to learn more;
3. acquiring generic work competencies and skills useful for employment; and
4. establishing pathways for continuing education and lifelong learning.

Singularly and compositely, these four aims and purposes are in line with the Adult and Vocational Education Strategy in its quest to provide adult learning opportunities. This thesis will, however, place more emphasis on the learning required to improve work-competency and skills and as such to ultimately promote economic activity.

In other countries such as Russia, the Czech Republic and Botswana (Pavlova, 2009) the provision of learning as described and outlined by Lynch is also called Vocational Education and Training (VET). VET is often inaccurately seen as a more practical means to an end, but it is accurately more concerned with offering an alternative route in education. Wiles & Boni (1993) suggest that VET essentially aims to produce employable and self-employable individuals and to increase their skills levels for effective participation in the global economy and knowledge society. This definition also finds similarities with what the Adult and

⁵ This is a pseudonym.

Vocational Education Strategy on Cascara Island aims to achieve: a curriculum based on learning areas that aim to aid current, or imminent, economic activity.

Clarke & Winch (2007) content that the term ‘vocational’ points to explicit links that are developing between curricula and the external world. They suggest that the notion of vocational goes beyond subjects like Engineering and Business Studies (which have an explicit vocational orientation) and moves towards subjects like History and Computer Science which are themselves also becoming vocational in orientation (*ibid*) due to technological advancements and a shift in traditional conceptions towards the world of work. Clarke & Winch further suggest that vocational learning has its basis in the attainment and application of skills. To this end, they suggest that the idea of a skill is both descriptive and evaluative:

The descriptive element itself contains evaluations. It indicates that the activity in question has come to the standard appropriate to that activity. To describe an activity as having being performed with skill is both to categorise the activity and to place a high mark on it (Clarke & Winch, 2007: 56).

Clarke & Winch contend that vocational education is premised on the acquisition of skills for work-related activities. We might therefore deduce that this view can be broadly extended to the wider concept of adult education. For the purposes of this study, adult learning is referred to as Adult and Vocational Education as this is what it is called on Cascara Island. Where it is referred to, it also encompasses the current notion of CTE as presented by Lynch (2000).

I now turn my discussion to adult and vocational learning in the Cascarian context. Before I enter a discussion on current learning initiatives and opportunities available through the AVES, I provide an historical overview of adult and vocational learning on the island to date.

1.1.1.1. History of Adult and Vocational Learning on Cascara Island

The Adult and Vocational Education Service on Cascara Island was established in June 2006 as a new sector of the Education Department. Historically, skills

and trades on Cascara were primarily passed down from generation to generation with little or no formal or theoretical training or underpinning. This tradition of passing down skills has for the most part served the island adequately in that, through the generations, trades people on the island have been able to perform tasks across a range of disciplines.

Since 1946, schooling on Cascara was based on the metropole's 11+ selective system which separated vocational and academic students at secondary school level. This system was initially adopted to raise educational standards given the island's limited resources (George⁶, 2009). It was successful in implementing the curriculum of the metropole, making a valuable contribution across all of the government departments as well as in the private sector through the quality of students that it produced (*ibid*).

In the early seventies a shortage in trade skills was identified on the island and to this end, a Trade School was established. The Trade School operated under the Education Department in liaison with the Municipal Services Department (MSD). The school provided instruction in carpentry, joinery, motor mechanics and masonry with the MSD providing instruction in the Electrical and Plumbing Trades (Seath, 1995). The school was considered a success in that it provided skilled trades' people to the workforce. Despite this, the need for an overall change in the education system was acknowledged in the early eighties (George, 2009). A visit by relevant decision-makers to the island at that time secured funding from the Agency for International Development (AID) for the construction of a modern, centralised secondary school. This led to a total reorganisation of the Education Service and Cascara Community High School (CCHS) was completed in the late eighties. The school housed a state of the art technical block which would, it was hoped, continue the trades training previously offered at the Trade School (Seath, 1995).

Thus, it was intended that CCHS would continue to provide students under the age of 16 years with some general training in a technical field and the choice to do the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) level courses in

⁶ This is a pseudonym.

“building, metalwork, woodwork, motor mechanics and technical drawing, following which academic support would be offered to students undergoing a two year vocational apprenticeship under a youth training scheme” (Cascara Vocational Training Initiative, 1997: 1). It was felt that attainments would be of a good enough standard to allow students to write the City & Guilds exams in 1992. This led to the creation of vocational scholarships for students aged 16 – 18+ in the form of apprenticeships, which involved a training component in the metropole. This route was expensive and only provided access to two students each year. The success of the plan “proved patchy with recurrent problems of securing appropriately skilled instructors in the required trades and the competing priorities of apprenticeship training and core curriculum teaching” (*ibid*). By the mid-nineties, local apprenticeships were instituted and the responsibilities of implementing and administering them were split between the employing government department: the Personnel Department (now called the Human Resources Department), or the Education Department in the case of government employees; or the Cascara Development Bureau (CDB) in the case of private sector employees. After continued efforts to keep these vocational opportunities available, a lack of human and financial resources saw their demise by the end of the nineties. At that time, the Personal Department oversaw work related training for the public sector, while the CDB focussed their energies on the private sector. Neither the notion of lifelong learning, nor a deep commitment to work-based skills development, was really operational or evident at that time (Seath, 1995).

In September 2000 the Education Department made another attempt to reinstate vocational learning opportunities at CCHS. A vocational training co-ordinator was employed and consultation with the private sector resulted in the establishment of apprenticeships that involved public/private partnerships. It was envisaged that the school would offer courses in plumbing, electrics, masonry, carpentry, motor vehicle studies, catering and agriculture (Lincoln⁷, 2000). Again, the lack of locally available human resources, and the expense of recruiting personnel from overseas did not make these opportunities viable and the initiative was not as successful as had been hoped (*ibid*).

⁷ This is a pseudonym.

O'Brian (2001: 2 - 3), a visiting education adviser, identified a problem in the provision of adult and vocational learning and suggested that Cascara needed:

... a major cultural change and a shift in emphasis to a people-centred approach to development. To realise the vision, incremental improvements in existing delivery mechanisms and programmes are, on their own, unlikely to achieve the desired result. A paradigm shift in strategic thinking is required that convinces individual adults and young people that learning is exciting, life enhancing and worthwhile, and that the attainment of the right knowledge and skills will lead to employment, progression and personal fulfilment. Simultaneously, employers must be convinced that systematic engagement in training and the development of their workforce will raise productivity, competitiveness and profit.

It was sentiments such as these that made it pertinent for the Cascara Government and the AID to take positive action so that lifelong learning, whether for vocational, work-related or personal benefit was made available to the people of the island.

With an urgent need to give Cascarians an opportunity to learn and develop vocational and business skills, the AID funded and tasked a consultancy with the development and subsequent implementation of an Adult and Vocational Education Strategy. The development of this Strategy resulted, during 2005, in the establishment of a centralised Adult and Vocational Education Service – a division of the Cascarian Education Department.

The establishment of the Adult and Vocational Education Service on Cascara supported one of the Education Department's strategic objectives, which was to "continue to raise the standards of education for the people of [Cascara]" (Lincoln 2007: 7). The Adult and Vocational Education Service is providing education beyond the statutory requirement for schooling from 5 to 16 years from and 16 to 18+ years.

The task of implementing the Adult and Vocational Education Strategy was approved by Executive Council in November 2005 and "has meant partnership building, overcoming organisational constraints as well as promoting and delivering fledgling services not yet fully resourced either financially, materially or

in staffing” (*ibid*). The implementation of this Strategy became the task of the Adult and Vocational Education Service.

1.1.1.2. Current Provision of Adult and Vocational learning on Cascara Island

The Adult and Vocational Education Service (AVES) is headed by the Adult and Vocational Education Manager, the post which I occupied between 2009 and 2010. There are three co-ordinators who oversee the implementation of the curriculum offered by the Service. These are the Community Learning Co-ordinator, the Information Technology Co-ordinator and the Accreditations Officer. The Service is also supported by an Administrative Officer, two additional administrative staff, a Cleaner/Messenger and a General Maintenance Technician. It is the management team (the AVES manager and three co-ordinators) who are responsible for implementing the curriculum of the Adult and Vocational Education Strategy. The AVES Manager is responsible to the Executive Education Officer (EEO). With the realisation that vocational training had been neglected, and due to numerous factors that impacted on education and training, it was recognised that the provision of adult and vocational learning on the island needed to be restructured. Until the implementation of the new Adult and Vocational Education Strategy training was done on a relatively *ad hoc* basis with different government departments and private sector business overseeing their own training. A large portion of the government’s training was overseen by the Human Resources Department, with the CDB assisting the private sector with their training needs.

The new Adult and Vocational Education Service Strategy was developed because of the imminent change at a social and economic level on the island. Initial research was conducted by a United Nations (UN) funded consultancy which identified the following reasons for the development of adult and vocational education on the island:

- A need for a sufficient, centralised budget; genuine partnership working; a coordinated management approach to training delivery;
- a wide variety of skills gaps ranging from basic skills, trade skills to high level management skills;

- training programmes that need to be diverse to meet the needs of individuals, government and private sector employers; and
- a need for appropriate recognised qualifications (Willerup, 2006: 78).

It was for these reasons that the Cascara Government (CG) formally approved an Adult and Vocational Education Strategy. The Strategy was developed through an AID funded consultancy that operated through the Unit for International Development and Training (UIDT) attached to an internationally recognised and accredited university in the metropole. UIDT operates and manages the Cascara Education Development Programme (EDP) and offers support to the Education Department in all of its sectors. Additional support is also offered directly through the AID in the metropole through a specifically appointed Overseas Territory Education Adviser. The collaborative efforts of all relevant stakeholders, both on the island and in the metropole, resulted in a mission statement that underpins the implementation of the Cascarian Adult and Vocational Education Strategy. To this end, the mission is to:

Provide [Cascara] with an appropriately skilled and qualified workforce able to meet its future needs in relation to growth and sustainability by defining and meeting the changing training/learning needs of the individual organisations and enterprises of [Cascara] through an efficient, cost effective, professionally managed and centrally coordinated Adult and Vocational Education Service (Brookes, 2005: 5).

To this end, the Strategy (*ibid*) outlines a number of key elements that include:

- Management of Learning
- Partnership Working
- Providing Resources
- Learner Needs
- Young People
- Adults
- Learner Motivation
- Funding

The Strategy aims to ensure that vocational education on Cascara meets the needs and wants of the people of the island. Thus, it aims to offer course content and learning opportunities that are wide in scope and that have a flexible approach to delivery. The Strategy (Brookes, 2005: 9) further suggests that vocational learning provision should be about:

- improving specific work-related skills to further an individual's employment opportunities and/or for the individual's organisation;
- the undertaking of programmes for the improvement of numeracy and literacy skills (basic skills) for employment purposes or simply self-betterment;
- participating in some form of cultural or sports programme either for 'leisure or pleasure'; and
- simply learning for learning's sake and getting pleasure and personal fulfilment from study.

Adult and Vocational Education on Cascara is to be seen in its broadest context as lifelong learning. Hence, it is concerned with the delivery of a wide variety of learning provision, delivered to as many people as possible in a flexible and rewarding way. A major part of the Strategy is concerned with work-based skills. For Cascara to have economic growth and sustainability and, in particular, to provide support to the access project with all its associated financial benefits, a well trained, skilled and motivated workforce is a pre-requisite. This Strategy aims to assist individuals in having the right skills and qualifications that they need to be both employable and personally fulfilled. The strategy also aims to ensure that employers, in both the public and private sectors have an appropriately skilled workforce to support their success and hence the development of Cascara.

In order to achieve economic growth and sustainability, the Strategy (Brookes, 2005: 19) states that the following must occur:

- skills, training and qualifications must exactly match the needs of present and future employers, for example, access contractors;
- both employers and employees must be made aware of the economic opportunities that will emerge from access and the associated requirement for, and benefit of relevant training;

- potential learners must be motivated to re-engage in learning;
- training must be provided in ways that suit everyone through greater investment in training, offering relevant qualifications and providing flexible delivery of training;
- close partnership working between the Education Department, other Government Departments and the private sector to ensure appropriate and effective delivery and monitoring of relevant training.

As part of the AID's investment to prepare the island for air access, an education development aid project under the AVES umbrella was granted in 2007. This project is referred to on the island as the AID AVES Development Aid Project and provides funding of just over US \$1 million⁸ over a period of four and a half years. With the prospect of the air access project, the AID AVES Development Project aims to address the training requirements of both the public and private sectors on Cascara. It also endeavours to ensure that the people of Cascara become a valuable and productive human resource to meet the political, economic and social changes facing the island. The Cascara Government holds 'Investors in People' status which indicates a commitment by the government to the develop the skills of its people. This Development AID project aims to offer programmes whereby Cascarians can engage in industry-specific education and skills programmes. It was proposed that the project formally adopt the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) of the metropole for its vocational curriculum. Hence, in 2007, a Cascarian learning framework was developed and approved by the Education Committee. The Cascara Qualifications Framework (CQF) was modelled on the NQF of both the metropole and another country where much of the training is accessed (See Appendix 2). The framework is based on progression through a number of levels that assist in defining knowledge and skills competency and providing a common route for recognised learning progression. The framework provides an easy comparison of learning offered through AVES, particularly learning opportunities that have international accreditation.

The development aid project therefore comprises four components, namely: Apprenticeships; Construction Skills: Instructional Techniques; and a National

⁸ All financials in this thesis are shown in United States (US) Dollars (\$)

Vocational Qualification (NVQ) in Business and Administration at Level 4⁹. A summary of the components approved in the project memorandum by the AID follows:

Component 1: The introduction of accredited training programmes equivalent to Apprenticeship Awards through City & Guilds (C & G)

These training programmes aim to support infrastructure development during and post the airport construction. The apprenticeships on offer are in the following areas: motor vehicle maintenance, construction & masonry, Catering & Hospitality and Travel & Tourism.

Component 2: The establishment of the Construction Skills Certification Scheme (CSCS) or an international equivalent and the introduction of a NVQ in Construction

This component concerns itself with the establishment of a NVQ in construction in order to improve and recognise skills and competencies in the area of construction. This will result in a more competent, informed and motivated workforce in the field of construction. Furthermore, it is anticipated that Construction Skills (CSkills), the awarding body in the metropole, will approve the Construction Skills Certification Scheme (CSCS) to guarantee that construction workers are competent to work efficiently and effectively to ensure that they comply with and are aware of, international aspects of health and safety in the working environment.

Component 3: The development of a bank of part-time, trained work skills and craft skills instructors through the delivery of a series of instructional technique programmes

This component concerns itself with developing a number of suitably trained instructors or tutors in a variety of disciplines. It is crucial that future initiatives

⁹ A Level 4 NVQ falls within the Higher Education band of the NQF. Level 4 achievements can contribute or be equated to: certificates and diplomas of higher education, first degrees and higher degrees. See Appendix 2 for positioning of Level 4 on the NQF.

regarding the continuing development of the island's infrastructure and human resources are fully supported and that instructional interventions are implemented to develop local human resources, as well as the local skills base on the island. In order to ensure that AVES continues to offer a relevant range of learning opportunities that are delivered to recognised standards, it is essential that the Service has at its disposal a bank of suitably trained tutors and instructors.

Component 4: The introduction of an NVQ in Business and Administration at Level 4

It was identified by the AVES AID Consultant during his development of the AVES Strategy that Cascara needs to improve administrative functions to support change and economic development. The introduction of an NVQ in Business and Administration will provide the opportunity for the further development of business and administrative skills already gained at the lower levels. This component aims at developing a number of middle-management personnel in both the public and private sectors who would have already achieved NVQ Level 3 or equivalent.

Summary

The AVES Development Aid Project meets the Cascara Government's (CG) National Strategic Objectives to:

- improve the standard of education for the people of [Cascara]; and
- development of a sustainable workforce, (Cascara Sustainable Development Plan, 2007: 2).

Developing human resource capacity on Cascara is a key issue within the Sustainable Development Plan. The project also accords with one of the specific objectives of the AID (AID, Strategic Planning Instructions, 2009: 1), namely:

- better education, health and opportunities for poor people.

In theory, the AID AVES Development Aid Project appears to offer a practical solution to the imminent change and development that will result from the air access project. The implementation of this project presented many problems that relate to the sustainability, the geographic insularity of the island and the shortage of human resource. These challenges will be presented in the data representation and analysis chapter.

Another reason for the difficulties associated with the implementation of the AVES Development Aid Project might be attributed to the baseline records used to design the project contents. Precise details on learner statistics, including a national skills audit and a national training needs analysis, have not been accurately or actively kept and a database containing these statistics has not yet been developed. The training pool is relatively limited with the island's population in 2008 standing at 3878 (Cascara Census Report, 2008). Seventeen percent of the population are of school going age, with a further 8% not yet of school going age. The population is an aging one with 36% of the population at or above retirement age which is 60 years old for woman and 65 years old for men. This essentially leaves only 39% (or 1482) people of trainable age for the development of the economy. The declining population and the very real shortage of human resources on the island has meant that Cascarians of retirement age are still working – at least on a part-time basis. Some retirees avail themselves of learning opportunities and continue to make a valuable contribution to the development of the island and its people.

The AVES holds an awards ceremony twice a year and a review of the programmes for the ceremonies held in October 2008 and April 2009, indicated that a total of 389 awardees received 623 certificates altogether. My data, gathered in 2009, revealed that the AVES has been criticised for handing out certificates too freely. This will be discussed more fully in Chapter 3. The certificates issued ranged from, for example, 2-hour beginner courses in an Information Technology (IT) application, to a National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) that may take up to 12-months to complete. Most learners are from the public sector as this is where most of the island's population are employed. The AVES also accommodates the School of Nursing on behalf of the Department of Public Health, as well as the Teacher Training Centre on behalf of the Education

Department. Graduates from these training centres are also included in the AVES awards ceremonies. The AVES and the Cascara Development Bureau (CDB) also work in partnership to encourage private sector participation in learning provision. To this end, the bureau essentially outsources its training and offers funding to the AVES to ensure private sector development in strategically identified areas. These areas for the 2009/10 and the 2010/11 financial years were Welding, Food & Hygiene and Construction Heritage Skills training.

Having provided an explanatory background regarding the AVES in the wider Cascarian context, I now turn to a discussion on adult learning. When formulating an approach to adult education, careful cognisance should be given to the fact that in adult education, the reasons, aims and objectives of learning differ from that of a child's education. Not taking this fact into consideration could mean placing the success rate of the learning or training intervention at serious risk.

1.1.2. Theories of Adult Learning

There are many different theories of adult learning. In this section, I will explore three:

- andragogy – a grand narrative of adult learning;
- transformational learning; and
- self-directed learning.

1.1.2.1. Andragogy¹⁰ - A Grand Narrative of Adult Learning

The German teacher, Alexander Kapp, is thought to have first used the term *andragogy* in 1833 to describe the educational paradigm of Plato (Ozuah, 2005: 84). This paradigm is largely concerned with seeing the learner as an individual and understanding that different approaches to learning will be more or less effective with individual learners. The term was later used by Lindeman (1926)

¹⁰ I recognise that 'andragogy' refers to the teaching of males or men. For the purposes of this thesis, 'andragogy' will be used in reference to the 'the teaching of adults', both male and female.

but became popularised by Knowles in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Knowles theorised on the differences between pedagogy and andragogy.

According to Conner (2004: 123) 'pedagogy' literally means the art and science of educating children and is often used as a synonym for teaching. More accurately, pedagogy embodies teacher-focussed education where teachers assume responsibility for making decisions about what will be learned, how it will be learned, and when it will be learned. In contrast to this, *andragogy* a theory of adult learning, "attempts to explain why adults learn differently to younger learners" (Knowles, 1984: 6). More importantly, it acknowledges that adults' reasons for learning are often very different to those of younger learners.

The traditional meanings associated with pedagogy relate it to 'training' in that it encourages "convergent thinking and rote learning" (Donovan, Bransford & Pellegrino, 1999: 122). Educational theorists, like Dewey (1902) believed formal schooling was falling short of its potential because of its preoccupation with teacher-focussed learning. Dewey stressed the advantages of learning through various learner-centred activities rather than traditional teacher-centred pedagogy. He maintained that children learned more from a guided experience than they did from authoritarian instruction. As such, he subscribed to a learner-focussed education philosophy suggesting that learning *is* life - not just a preparation for it. Lindeman (1926: 83) raised concerns about the need to teach adults differently. He wrote:

Our academic system has grown in reverse order. Subjects and teachers constitute the starting point, students are secondary. In conventional education the student is required to adjust himself [*sic*] to an established curriculum Too much of learning consists of vicarious substitution of someone else's experience and knowledge. Psychology teaches us that we learn what we do Experience is the adult learner's living textbook.

Theories of andragogy evolved out of concerns such as those raised by Lindeman. Although andragogy was initially defined as "the art and science of helping adults learn," (Conner, 2004: 127) it has taken on a broader meaning that implies an alternative to pedagogy. As such it refers to learner-focussed

education for people of all ages (Knowles, Swanson & Holton, 2011). This point is particularly relevant to the AVES in the Casuarian context as the Service has been tasked with providing learning (of a personal and professional nature) to mature learners across a wide age range. In respect of my study, I was interested in understanding how these learner-focussed training interventions were aiding island growth and what challenges had to be negotiated in attempting to sustain them.

Andragogy also assumes that “the point at which an individual achieves a self-concept of essential self-direction is the point at which he [*sic*] psychologically becomes [an] adult” (Donovan *et al.*, 1999: 122). This is a very important point in the intellectual, emotional and social development of a person because, despite the overt gender bias in Knowles’ (1975: 56) quotation:

... a very critical thing happens when this occurs: the individual develops a deep psychological need to be perceived by others as being self-directing. Thus, when he [*sic*] finds himself [*sic*] in a situation in which he [*sic*] is not allowed to be self-directing, he [*sic*] experiences a tension between that situation and his [*sic*] self-concept. His [*sic*] reaction is bound to be tainted with resentment and resistance.

Knowles’ repetitive use of the word ‘self’ in the above quote strongly implies the degree to which adult learners need to be in control of and, indeed, take control of their own learning pathways. For me, it was also important to understand how the AVES curriculum provided a platform for individuals to develop themselves and in so doing make a positive contribution to the island’s economy – whether in the public or private sectors. It was also important for me to understand how such learning opportunities could be sustainably offered over time.

Zemke (2001) argues that adults bring a wealth of information and experiences to the learning environment and as such, they generally want to be treated as equals (to each other and to the teacher) so that they are free to direct themselves in the learning process. This point was important to my study as the overall sustainability of the curriculum would be determined by the take up of courses and learning opportunities on offer through the AVES. If learners do not feel valued as adult or mature learners, they will generally choose not to

participate in learning opportunities. Zemke (2001: 6) presents a comparison of the theories of andragogy and pedagogy. These are shown in Table 2.

	Andragogy	Pedagogy
Demands of learning	Learner must balance life responsibilities with the demands of learning.	Learner can devote more time to the demands of learning because responsibilities are minimal.
Role of instructor	Teachers guide the learners to their own knowledge rather than supplying them with facts. Learners are autonomous and self-directed.	Fact-based lecturing is often the mode of knowledge transmission. Learners rely on the instructor to direct the learning.
Life experiences	Learners have a tremendous amount of life experiences. They need to connect the learning to their knowledge base. They must recognise the value of the learning.	Learners are building a knowledge base and must be shown how their life experiences connect with the present learning.
Purpose for learning	Learners are goal-oriented and know for what purpose they are learning new information.	Learners often see no reason for taking a particular course. They just know they have to learn the information.
Permanence of learning	Learning is self-initiated and tends to last a long time.	Learning is compulsory and tends to disappear shortly after instruction.

Table 2: Comparison of Andragogy and Pedagogy

When Zemke's comparison of the theories of andragogy and pedagogy are deliberated, it is evident that the learner is viewed very differently under these two approaches. The curriculum on offer under the AVES on Cascara provides a wide scope of learning opportunities, due to the relatively small size of the Service and the population that it serves, all learning philosophies are not always fully considered or integrated into the practical andragogy. The curriculum on offer under the AVES is also largely practical and outcomes driven, it also places the responsibility of enrolling and attending learning opportunities on to the learners themselves. For the most part, it would be assumed that attendance is not deemed compulsory by employees.

With andragogy, adult learners need to know why specific learning is required before undertaking to participate in it. They need to be responsible for their own decisions and they should be treated as capable of self-direction. According to Knowles (1984: 7) andragogy acknowledges that learners have a variety of life

experiences which “represent the richest resource for learning” and that adult learners are ready to learn those things they need to know in order to cope effectively with life and work situations. Andragogy also recognises that adult learners are motivated to learn to the extent that they perceive that it will help them to better perform tasks they encounter in life situations. For my study, I needed to ascertain what curriculum was on offer under the AVES and to what extent this curriculum was meeting the needs of the people of the island. For the most part this extended to ascertaining how far the training on offer was aiding people to develop their working skills within the public and private sectors to the overall benefit of the island’s economy. With this aim in mind, it is worth mentioning Rachal’s (2002: 210 - 227) “seven criteria for [successful] andragogical studies”, which include:

- voluntary participation;
- elevated adult status;
- collaboratively-determined objectives;
- a measure for satisfaction;
- performance-based assessment of achievement;
- a facilitator or guide without assumed status; and
- an appropriate learning environment.

These criteria support the trend in recent times for andragogy becoming accepted as being a theory of learning that is not exclusively for adults. Pratt (1997: 165) criticised Knowles for comparing learning processes in children and adults and for his use of self-directedness as a definition of adulthood. In his criticism, he identifies three concerns with Knowles’ theory by stating that:

... [there is] a confusion between whether he is presenting a theory of teaching or one of learning; a similar confusion over the relationship which he sees between adult and child learning; and a considerable degree of ambiguity as to whether he is dealing with theory or practice.

Cross (1992: 227 - 228) is clearly impressed with such debates around andragogy when he explains that the issue of andragogy has heightened the awareness of the need to answer three major questions:

1. Is it useful to distinguish the learning needs of adults from those of children?
2. What are we really seeking: theories of learning, theories of teaching or both?
3. Does andragogy lead to researchable questions that will advance knowledge in adult education?

These questions were not fully explored in this thesis as my research focus was centred on curriculum provision, how it was aiding economic growth on Cascara and how it could effectively be sustained for the purpose of economic development. Cross' questions do, however, foreground the need for further discussion around the andragogical debate.

For adult learning programmes to be successful, it is paramount that varying theories of adult learning inform the curriculum from its conceptualisation through to its design and delivery as these theories support approaches to teaching and learning that endeavour to understand and accommodate the social, economic, political and personal positioning of the learner. Transformational learning and self-directed learning are two major theories that have dominated approaches to teaching and learning. Their support for emancipatory adult learning make them worthy of discussion in the context of adult and vocational education.

1.1.2.2. Adults and Transformational Learning

Transformational learning theory presents an alternative to andragogy in relation to adult learning. This theory explores the ability of learning to change and transform lives (Baumgartner, 2001) and endeavours to understand how adult learners move from negotiating their personal interpretations, which are themselves guided by world experiences, to lead to the shaping of their future actions (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2006). The theory of transformational learning was originally forwarded by Mezirow (1970; 2000) who focussed on the cognitive processes of learning such as the development of meaning through dialogue and reflection. The theoretical underpinnings of transformational learning are therefore similar to that of constructivism. Constructivism is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that, by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. Each of us generates our own 'rules' and 'mental models,' which we

use to make sense of our experiences. Learning, therefore, is simply the process of adjusting our mental models to accommodate new experiences (Brooks & Brooks, 2001). It is the process of constructing knowledge through engagement with the environment. With constructivism, knowledge is interpreted and reinterpreted in a specific contextual setting (Baumgartner, 2001: 132). The ultimate purpose of transformation learning is empowerment. The aim of the AVES on Cascara Island is essentially to empower its citizens so that they can contribute and grow the economy of the island for their own and the island's future benefit. To this end, the establishment of the Adult and Vocational Education Service and the contributions of the AID (through their funded development aid project) aim to provide an opportunity for the island and its people to be transformed. I was perplexed too, by how such a curriculum could be sustained so as to ensure ongoing opportunities for Cascarians to transform themselves through the learning opportunities on offer.

According to Mezirow (2000: 51) learning occurs “by elaborating existing frames of reference, by learning new frames of reference, by transforming points of view, or by transforming habits of mind”. A frame of reference can be described as a meaning perspective used to filter perceptions. True transformational learning occurs when the learner demonstrates a change in beliefs or attitudes or by a change in perspective (Merriam *et al.*, 2006; Mezirow, 2000; Mezirow & Taylor, 2009). The characteristics of this theory of learning include: reflection, validation of meaning perspectives (frames of reference), as well as taking actions on personal beliefs and the beliefs of others. According to Mezirow (2000) and Mezirow & Taylor (2009), the goal of transformative learning is to become socially responsible and empowered to make informed choices through dialogue and reflection. Mezirow (2000: 57) describes the process as follows:

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

Transformational learning requires the intentional effort of the learner and results in a perspective shift allowing adult learners to understand themselves better (King, 2005). In the context of my study, I explored how the curriculum on offer would provide the opportunity for such transformation – particularly in the area of workforce skills development.

The lives of adults are often filled with transition, and they may consider these changes at a philosophical level. Sargent & Schlossberg (1988: 58) observe that some transitions are planned, while others are not. They define transition as:

... events (like retirement) or non-events (like being passed over for a promotion) that alter adult lives. The more the event or non-event alters an adult's roles, routines, assumptions, and relationships, the more he or she will be affected by the transition.

The proposed airport to be constructed on Cascara Island has the potential to bring about significant transition at, amongst others, economic as well as social levels. I investigated how the AVES Curriculum could provide opportunities to prepare for this transition. Although adults respond to life transitions in different ways, one response is to meet the challenges of the new by pro-actively learning new skills, behaviours, and social roles (Merriam, 2009; 2005). Learning may result from an encounter with a transition or change. Conversely, the learning opportunity might not be maximised and the learning potential therefore not fully realised. Events must be “discomforting, disquieting or puzzling enough” (*ibid*: 47) to be attended to and the discomfort must touch the meaning perspectives or habits of the mind to engage the learner in the process of transformation.

Merriam's observation is pertinent because while the Cascara Government (CG) and the AID may present the Cascarians with numerous learning opportunities at this time of impending social and economic change – it is essentially up to the individual Cascarians to seize these opportunities and to begin the process of transforming themselves and the context in which they find themselves. As stated earlier, investigating what learning opportunities were on offer, how relevant learning opportunities could be sustained through the AVES and how

the curriculum on offer could potentially aid economic growth became the focus of my study.

1.1.2.3. Adults and Self-Directed Learning

One of the major aims of adult education is to equip people with the skills to become self-directed learners (Merriam *et al.*, 2006). While this appears at first hand to be straight forward, Candy (1991: 51) describes the literature on self-directed learning as “confusing, fractured, and without consistency”. Candy (*ibid*) describes self-directed learning as a process that involves learner control of the learning process, while Merriam *et al.* (2006) suggest it is the process of conducting informal, independent, self-learning projects. Brockett & Hiemstra (1998) and Merriam & Brockett (2007) describe self-directed learning as a process and method of organising instruction, while Guglielmino (1977) describes it as personal attributes that are influenced by a learner’s attitudes, values, and beliefs.

Candy (1991) contends that self-direction is an ability that can be taught, while Merriam & Brockett (2007) describe it as a process that involves the learner assuming responsibility to plan, implement, and evaluate their own learning. Kasworm (1983) suggests that a good strategy for managing self-direction in learning is the design, use, and evaluation of learning contracts to manage and organise instruction. On Cascara learner attendance, and high dropout rates for extended curricular activities, are of concern.

The goals of self-directed learning cover three broad areas defined by their theoretical approaches. The first is centred on humanistic philosophy and it aims to enhance adult ability to be self-directed learners. The role of the teacher in this approach is to assist learners with developing a plan for learning, then assisting with the carrying out of the plan, and finally, evaluating the results. Most of the research on self-directed learning falls into this category.

The second goal of self-directed learning is to foster transformational learning. This approach is evident in the writings of Mezirow (2000) and Mezirow and Taylor (2009). Critical reflection plays an important role in developing strategies

and self-directed learning activities to support the transformational learning perspective. The third goal of self-directed learning is to promote emancipatory social action. The aim is to encourage learners to think about the socio-political implications of learning and to engage learners in collective action. This view incorporates the use of participatory research (Fetterman, 2000) and the use of dialogue for critical self-directed learning. Grundy (1987: 38) also argues that, as a social practice the curriculum is best engaged with through the dynamic interface of action and reflection. This is something which the learner can control. Self-directed learning is described by Knowles (1975: 18) as:

... a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes.

Knowles' argument above highlights the need for the learner to want to direct their own learning. Cascarians appear committed to their own personal development and show interest in learning opportunities on offer through the AVES. Participation in learning opportunities is not compulsory (although candidates may be encouraged to attend training by their employees or line managers). Training opportunities on offer are usually oversubscribed and over 95% of curricular opportunities take place during government working hours.

1.1.3. Facilitation of Adult Learning

When considering education, be it for adults or children, various requirements are non-negotiable such as the presence of a learning authority in the learning locality or situation (Ross-Gordon, 2002). It is of some value to investigate what the quality of such a learning authority can be expected to be and to what degree the AVES and its tutors or training providers on Cascara fulfil this expectancy.

Teachers of adults are often referred to by a variety of names and titles. These include, *inter alia*: teachers, facilitators, tutors, instructors, lecturers, trainers and coaches. For the purposes of this thesis, teachers will be referred to as tutors as this is the title used in the Cascarian context.

Good tutors often exhibit several of the same behaviours (Seaman, 1989). For example, they encourage learners to actively participate in the learning process and they instinctively motivate their learners to want to engage in the process. Furthermore, they encourage discussion that allows learners to air their own views and ideas. Good tutors are also knowledgeable in the subject or learning area (*ibid*) and prepare meticulously to facilitate quality teaching and learning. Jones & Lowe (1990: 9) highlight the importance of good tutors modelling desired behaviours and giving learners the opportunity to practice the behaviours with specific feedback.

Wilkinson (1984: 101) sums up the qualities of a good tutor by suggesting that “good teachers [or tutors] confirmed and nurtured the learner’s desire to know”. Awakening a learner’s “dormant curiosity” (*ibid*) in a learning area helps to stimulate interest. Wilkinson (*ibid*) and Gould (2009) suggest that efforts to support the learner’s initial drive and enthusiasm throughout the learning experience improved the total learning experience. A high level of skill in a wide variety of teaching techniques will enable a successful tutor to draw upon the most appropriate methods to reach a learner in any given situation. Gould (*ibid*) further argues that assisting learners to develop their skills in the areas of perception, analysis and expression better prepared them to assume an active and creative relationship with their environment. Wilkinson, however, suggests that a tutor needs to serve three functions as an intermediary between the learner and the body of knowledge. Firstly, the tutor must provide structure to help the learners organise their learning experience in a logical order. Secondly, the tutor must provide evaluation to assist the learner in understanding the progress, and finally, the tutor must enhance learner motivation through encouragement and support. Wilkinson (1984) further notes that the roles of the tutor in the effectiveness of a learning environment, is complemented by the teaching style that they adopt.

Tutoring style is the observable implementation of a teacher’s specific beliefs about teaching and learning and general beliefs and values related to life (Darkenweld & Merriam, 1992). A model for teaching adults developed by Lenz (1982) includes three major styles based on the role of relationships and roles that exist between teachers and learners. These include the ‘host-guest style’

where the tutor gives special attention to the learning environment to ensure that the learner (or guest) returns; 'the client-consultant style' where the tutor attempts to fulfil the client's expectations so that the client will be satisfied; and the 'partnership style' where success is dependent on the tutor and the learner living up to their dual responsibilities. Ross-Gordon (2002) also notes that tutor-learner relationship styles will differ depending on the context and the individual personalities in any given learning environment.

While tutors on Cascara Island are trained in the methodology of adult learning, styles and approaches to the facilitation of adult learning are bound to differ from tutor to tutor.

1.1.4. Synthesis

Adult and Vocational curriculum provision within the AVES on Cascara Island encompasses both 'vocational' and 'career and technical' education. There does however appear to be a shift towards 'career and technical' education which reflects a broader expansion on the emphasis for developing academic and vocational skills to secondary school graduates. This trend is in line with what Silverberg *et al.* (2002) suggest reflects a commitment to economic and social investment in education. The AVES on Cascara also shows a commitment to skills development, which supports the argument that vocational learning has its basis in skills development (Clarke & Winch, 2007). This view of skills development as the basis of vocationalism and vocational possibilities was particularly relevant to my study seeing that I sought to understand how the teaching of skills (particularly work-based skills) could aid economic growth and development.

The theory of andragogy is a widely accepted theory of adult learning and it identifies that adults have different reasons for learning and that they need to be taught differently to how children are taught (Knowles *et al.*, 2011). Andragogy also acknowledges that adults learn to the extent that they believe it will assist them in performing tasks that they encounter in their daily lives (Rachal, 2002). Transformational learning, an additional theory of adult learning is concerned with how learning can change and transform lives (Baumgartner, 2001), while

the theory of self-directed learning is mostly concerned with equipping learners with skills that will assist them in becoming self-directed learners (Merriam *et al.*, 2006).

In aiming to provide a sustainable and relevant curriculum that satisfies workforce skills development towards economic growth, it would appear that the AVES on Cascara is working towards providing a curriculum that draws on these major theories of adult learning. Tutors are also instructed and have been trained in andragogic facilitation style. Using this approach, tutors should begin to recognise that their adult learners are autonomous and self-directed. For any adult learning programme to be successful, it is imperative that adult learners are recognised for exactly what they are – adults.

Having now explored conceptions of curriculum, vocational education, adult learning theories and the historic and current provision of adult and vocational learning on the island, I now turn the debate to explore curriculum from the aspect of change. This exploration aided me in understanding the provision of adult and vocational learning on Cascara against the backdrop of social change; how this impacts on curriculum change and how the curriculum developments follow on from these change factors.

1.2. CURRICULUM, CHANGE AND THE CASCARIAN CONTEXT

The exploration in this section helped me to understand why certain learning opportunities have been included in or excluded from the AVES Curriculum; how the curriculum is operationalised; who the AVES stakeholders are; how they will aid in determining the sustainability of the curriculum. It led me to think broadly about how the AVES Curriculum could be sustained in the changing Cascarian context. It became evident to me that the sustainability of the AVES Curriculum was dependent on the sustainability of the Service as a whole. More so, it became clear that each was dependent on the other – with no curriculum to deliver, the Service would have no purpose, and with no Service to support it, the curriculum would not be delivered.

As Cascara is going through a period of social and economic change, it is pertinent that I explore curriculum change and development in the greater context of social and economic change. This investigation also required that the issue of sustainability be explored in the unique context of Cascara because if relevant curriculum change cannot be effectively sustained it could impact negatively on the social and economic changes that it aims to support and bolster.

In contemplating these interwoven aspects of change my argument unfolds as follows: Firstly, I investigate social movements and curriculum change in the Cascarian context. In doing this I explore social change with a specific gaze on the impact of the impending airport. I then focus my argument specifically on curriculum change within the AVES on Cascara Island and I investigate four stages of curriculum change: need; mobilisation; implementation and institutionalisation (Blignaut, 2001). Then, carefully considering the Cascarian context, I explore curriculum development in response to market needs and to aid me in doing this; I investigate the following curriculum development theories: essentialism, encyclopaedism, polytechnicalism and pragmatism. I explore these because they provide an interesting basis into how decision makers view education in relation to the labour market that it serves. Following on from this, I review curriculum implementation on Cascara by exploring four approaches to curriculum delivery, namely: curriculum as transmission, curriculum as product, curriculum as process and curriculum as praxis. The review of these approaches, coupled with the analysis of the curriculum development theories, leads me to conclude the curriculum development debate with Slattery's (1998) reconceptualisation of the curriculum. These market-based curriculum development theories provide a scaffold to the next section which explores the curriculum in respect of the economy and workforce on Cascara Island.

1.2.1. Defining Curriculum

Gress & Purpel (1992: 4) speculate that “one can find at least as many definitions of curriculum as one can find curriculum textbooks”. This reflects the complexity of the concept, curriculum. The Oxford English Dictionary (2007: 204) defines curriculum as “a course of study or training at a school or university”.

This definition does not appear to satisfactorily define the concept of curriculum to those who work closely with different aspects of curriculum design, development and delivery. Jackson (1992: 5) suggested that curriculum designers, developers and implementers would describe such a broad and conventional definition of curriculum as “limiting and too narrow” as the scope of the area of curriculum can be very broad.

Curriculum is a broad concept that means different things to different people. The word curriculum has its origin in ‘running’ or the chariot tracks of ancient Greece – it was literally a course – a *currere*. Kelly (1999: 21) defines curriculum as “all the learning which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually, inside or outside the school”. Kelly’s definition of curriculum implies two things – firstly that learning should be planned and guided, and secondly, that our current appreciation of curriculum theory and practice emerged from schools and school-related ideas. It could be contended that the notion of curriculum also encompasses learning opportunities prior, beyond and outside of formal schooling. This then requires a contemplation of the different types of knowledge and of why, how and where these may be acquired. Within a context of change, the content of the curriculum and the manner in which it will be delivered become increasingly more important.

1.2.2. Implications of Social Movements and Curriculum Change

Change is ultimately a process about coming to understand a new personal meaning and as such it is a learning process. For change to be successful the change process needs to involve learning. Through this process of learning, understanding and personal ownership can develop (Helminski, 2002). The problem with change is that it often takes time before its impact is felt. It is the issue of time that makes it difficult to fully assess the effectiveness of the new Adult and Vocational Education Strategy being implemented on Cascara Island. What this study aimed to achieve was to assess the challenges associated with the sustainable delivery of an appropriate adult and vocational curriculum on Cascara Island. It is important to view this curriculum intervention and its implementation within the context of an environment undergoing change. Helminski (*ibid*: 14) suggests that “the time between the introduction of a new

idea and system-wide implementation takes decades; change is a process, not an event”. This idea of change happening over an extended period of time is supported by Schein (2010: 40) who suggests that change not only requires us to learn new things, it also requires us to ‘unlearn’ other things. He further suggests that part of the process of change is the integration of new attitudes, perceptions and behaviours into an individual’s sense of themselves. Schein further suggests that if individuals can see how the change fits with their personal vision, the change process is greatly enhanced. In effect, stakeholders relate to the change in so much as what it will do for them, and as such it is the ‘unlearning’ process that is the root of most resistance. Thus, it has been important for the AVES to embark on a rigorous marketing campaign to make explicit the benefits of learning opportunities on offer to potential learners who can use these opportunities to their own social and economic advantage within this context of change. Schein’s views also suggest that success is better achieved if stakeholders are consulted throughout the change process. Given the intention of the AID to build an airport on Cascara – the island is currently at a place its history where substantial change is imminent.

The proposed airport not only has the potential to bring about economic opportunity and the migration of people (investors and returning Cascarians) to the island, but it could also bring with it social change and the potential of other cultural influences. The AVES on Cascara was established specifically to cater to the skills development needs of the public and private sectors so as to, as far as possible, prepare the island’s workforce for the opportunities that air access might bring. The AVES curriculum was specifically designed to serve the interests associated with the economic activities that would serve air access related functions. It stands to reason that it is the construction of the airport that will be the basis of social change on the island.

Whatever the approach to curriculum it is important to realise that curriculum is ultimately underpinned by the ideology of the society for which it was designed. This ideology is ultimately decided by those in power and as societies change in response to social movements, the design and structure of the curriculum is inevitably revisited to assist in the facilitation of this change. It is for precisely these reasons that the AVES on Cascara was established – to provide learning

opportunities in line with the prospective social changes that the air access project and its related economic activities will bring to the island. The AID Development Aid Project specifically highlights how curricula are designed in response to social change. This project adds to the AVES curriculum apprenticeships in Hospitality & Catering, Travel & Tourism, Automotive Vehicle Maintenance and Construction & Masonry. In addition to this, it aims to introduce a National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) in Business and Administration at level 4 as well as to broaden the base of local instructors through a variety of train-the-trainer initiatives.

Social movements are processes that facilitate or promote social change and are usually associated with activism. In the Cascarian context the ‘activists’ pressing for change, are both the Cascarians themselves (with a few who do not support the airport construction¹¹) and the AID. Both sets of activists have their own agendas – the Cascarians want to increase the economic opportunities available to them, while the AID want to reduce the financial reliance of the island on the metropole. Porta & Diani (2005) distinguish social movements as “(1) exist[ing] outside the institutional framework of everyday life and (2) ... [being] some way orientated toward a greater social change”. Social movements are usually associated with emotion and will more than often result in conflict of some form. Such conflict is usually ideologically or materially based in a political, social or economic dimension. This appears to be the case on Cascara with Cascarians not being in total agreement on the idea of an airport being constructed on the island. Adherents of social movements are usually motivated by personal values and commitments in their efforts to bring about change from a grass roots level. It would seem that in the Cascarian context personal commitment to the change is mostly driven by economic factors but also by the convenience of being able to access the island more readily. Many Cascarians work abroad for salaries much larger than those available on island and visiting their homeland or returning home for a family emergency can be very time consuming as it can take up to three weeks depending on the location of the ship at any given time.

¹¹ A referendum giving Cascas the opportunity to vote for or against the construction of an airport was held in 2002. The result of the referendum determined that 72% of the population were in favour of the construction of an airport on the island.

Harper & Leicht (2010: 132) recognise social movements as an important process by which “human agency becomes manifest in producing social and cultural change”. These changes will usually result in new innovative possibilities, different public attitudes, a redefinition of public issues and ultimately in new social policy. The AVES on Cascara Island is one component of a greater policy that has been devised and implemented by decision-makers within local government and the AID.

Stenhouse (1975b) draws attention to the link between politics and curriculum development when he explains that as a social movement has a specific doctrine, so too does an educational movement: it strives to satisfy the convictions and beliefs contained in its doctrine. Educational movements usually emerge from greater social movements as the structures associated with educational systems provide impressive platforms to institute evolving ideologies. Stenhouse (*ibid*) emphasises the necessity of the curriculum being consistently researched and developed to satisfy the needs of society. This turns the focus of my discussion to wider curricular change in the context of social change.

1.2.3. The AVES: Educational and Curriculum Change

In recent years, both developing and developed countries have placed great emphasis on educational and curricular reform in their efforts to improve the provision of learning. The enormous pressure of economic change, technological advancements and the demands of globalisation have made countries reform curricula in response to broader social change (Sayad, 2001). The establishment of the AVES on Cascara is an example of such change. The process of educational change, as with the notion of the broader concept of change, is often contested, complex, time-consuming, uneven, and an energy-intensive process that is far easier to conceptualise than to actually action (Bush, 2010; Fullan, 1991). In his attempts to outline why educational change is such a difficult process, Hargreaves (1998: 282) contends that:

... [first] educational change is not just a technical process of managerial efficiency, or a cultural one of understanding and involvement. It is a political and

paradoxical process Second, significant, educational change can no longer be achieved ... in a step-by-step, linear process ... it is much more messy than that.

The ‘mess’ that Hargreaves refers to can largely be attributed to the “myriad of dilemmas, ambivalences and paradoxes that riddle the change process” (Lieberman & Grolnick, 1998: 135). The educational change process is further obscured by the uniqueness of the context in which it must be implemented (Hargreaves, 1998: 291) and by the fact that change is a personal and emotional experience for each of the role players involved. The AVES Strategy on Cascara was developed specifically for the island, but it is evident that issues arose out of the fact that the Strategy was developed by a consultant who, although having spent some time on the island, did not have sufficient exposure to fully appreciate and understand the dynamics that exist within this small, isolated context. Difficulties such as these are identified by Posner (2005: 57) as “frame factors”. He argues that during the implementation or translation of an educational policy into practice, there are numerous ‘frame factors’ that limit, shape or constrain the proposed educational changes. The ‘frame factors’ include temporal, political, historical, organisational, economic, cultural and personal influences. In recognising these influences, Rizvi & Lingard (2009) and Kemmis & Rizvi (1987: 89) counsel those working with education in a change context to be aware of:

... the ubiquity of disagreements about goals and means, the complexity of the situations in which programs work, the resistances which the articulation of goals and means may generate, the existence of contrary pressures among those associated with the program, and the difficulties of defining, let alone attaining successful programs.

Given the ‘messiness’ of curriculum change, Kemmis & Rizvi (*ibid*) advocate that decision-makers often place more value on the design and development of a new curriculum strategy to the neglect of its actual implementation. As already outlined many changes in curriculum are technically simple but socially complex. I was interested in understanding how the planned curriculum became the actual AVES Curriculum offered; as well as in gaining insights into what ‘frames’ caused a variance between the ‘planned’ and ‘actual’ curriculum. I was also keen

to ascertain how the workforce was responding to learning opportunities available through the AVES as this would impact directly on issues relating to sustainable delivery. Despite efforts to offer what is perceived as a relevant curriculum, specific personal and social circumstances within the learning environment can be complex and, on occasion, they can extend to confusing or can even be contradictory (Rizvi & Lingard, 2009). Issues such as these have the power to determine the success of a curriculum intervention, and in the case of Cascara, ultimately the success of the economic community for whom the curriculum was designed. It is for this reason that it is imperative that a curriculum change process is systematic and strategically planned and takes into account local frames.

Blignaut (2001: 3) suggests that curriculum change involves four aspects: need, mobilisation, implementation and institutionalisation. Each of these stages are relevant to my study as they have (or are currently being) applied in the Cascarian context.

1.2.3.1. Need for change and the establishment of AVES

A curriculum change begins with an expression of concern; a dissatisfaction or with a need in relation to current or existing curriculum practice (Dean 2005: 2). This need or expression for change may come from a variety of different sources that include teachers, learners, employers, administrators, users, funders or a combination of these role players. Stakeholders need to embrace and recognise the need for the curriculum change as failure of the stakeholders to welcome the innovation could jeopardise its success. Therefore, it is vital that all the stakeholders are consulted and that the change agents (in this context, the Cascarian Government, the Cascara Education Department and the AID) convince the wider contingent of stakeholders of the value that the change will bring. On reviewing the AID AVES Consultant's report of June 2005, it is evident that a wide variety of stakeholders across the public and private sectors were consulted to establish the current training needs of the island. Further to this, the Strategy aimed to take into consideration the needs and changes that imminent air access would require. The difficulty was in predicting what the actual needs and the implementational issues would be as the change process unfolded.

1.2.3.2. Mobilisation of stakeholders

In the Cascarian context, mobilisation began with the development of the AVES Strategy. This Strategy guided the mobilisation through a blueprint for the design and structure of the Service, making wider recommendations as to how government personnel could be redeployed to centralise the provision of training on the island (Lincoln, 2007). The Strategy further assisted with providing a curriculum structure for the Service so as to support workforce skills development towards economic growth. Mobilisation requires internal and external support (Blignaut, 2001). The Cascara Government and its departments constitute internal support while the private sector and the Agency for International Development (AID) represent external support. Internal and external stakeholders represent the mobilisation agents. Internal agents central to AVES include the Education Department, the Human Resources Department and the Department for Development as well as the Office of the Chief Administrator (OCA) which has ultimate authority over all of the government departments. External agents include the AID as the funders and the private sector who, although are end users, were widely consulted and engaged in the development and establishment of the Service. The CDB and the Cascara Chamber of Commerce (CCC) are two prominent stakeholders within the private sector.

In the planning aspect of the mobilisation phase, it is important for decision makers to ensure that the change is compatible with the local culture and the availability of human, physical and financial resources (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Goodson, 2004). Suitable human, physical and financial resources are therefore of major importance to the implementation of the curriculum under the AVES. The availability of these should support the AVES in its efforts to provide appropriate learning opportunities that will enhance economic development on the island. Conley (2003:) supports Fullan & Steigelbauer's (1991) view when he argues that decision-makers need to create readiness for the change as this is often an overlooked dimension of the change process. Bush (2010: 111) stresses that "above all planning must consider the pre-implementation issues of whether and how to start, and what readiness conditions might be essential prior to commencing" the actual curricular change implementation. On Cascara this

involved, amongst other things, the establishment and staffing of the Adult and Vocational Education Centre; the centralisation of government training resources, the availability of a relevant curriculum with its associated human and physical resources, publicity and marketing and the engagement of stakeholders across the public and private sectors. These will be discussed in Chapters 3 and 4 of this thesis.

1.2.3.3. Implementation of a relevant curriculum

In an ideal world, the implementation of a curriculum change innovation may be seen as a continuum stretching from the need for the new curriculum until its complete acceptance (Print, 2003). The readiness of the stakeholders to embrace the change becomes an independent dimension of the innovation. This process requires the organisation to firmly “initiate, develop and adopt a given innovation” (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991: 112) so that implementation runs as smoothly as possible. Understanding the rationale for change and the conceptual framework within which it exists provides an opportunity for stakeholders to engage in the process at a different and more fundamental level (Fullan, 2003). This should, Fullan further argues, aid a smoother implementation of the new curricular innovation. Fullan’s contention highlights the need for stakeholder engagement in the curricular change process. Over and above aiming to understand how the AVES curriculum was aiding skills development on the island towards economic growth, I also hoped to gain an understanding into stakeholder perception regarding the degree to which AVES was aiding personal and professional skills development on the island. Fullan & Steigelbauer (1991: 112) describe the early difficulties associated with a curricular innovation as an “implementation dip”. They suggest that even in cases where the reform ultimately succeeds, things will often go awry before the innovation is successful. The absence of early difficulty in a change innovation is usually a sign that not much is being attempted, essentially trivial or insignificant change is substituting substantial change (Fullan & Miles, 1992). The implementation difficulties illuminated in Chapter 3 would suggest that the introduction of the AVES as an island-wide training organisation represents change of a substantial nature.

A study conducted by Berman & McLaughlin (1977) concluded that it was implementation problems rather than the nature of the change intervention that often resulted in the failure of the change innovation. They found that the scope of the selected change and its associated implementation strategies had a greater impact on success than the actual nature of the change itself. Factors that are likely to contribute towards the successful implementation of a change innovation are: the provision of materials and resources, the degree of preparedness of all relevant stakeholders, user commitment and understanding, ongoing technical aid and in-service training, team meetings, administrative support, peer consultation and access to external consultants (Huberman & Miles, 2002: 78). The basis for problems associated with implementation have been described by Louis & Miles (1990) and Dean (2005) as insufficient communication, lack of staff skills, slow progress, disagreement over desired activities, a highly ambitious project plan, physical constraints, unanticipated crises, faculty time and energy, maintaining interest, resources, staff development and competition from other change programmes. These issues may also be of consideration to the AVES as there are many stakeholders who provide ongoing input into the activities of the Service. It would be useful for me to ascertain the degree to which personal visions, wants, needs and agendas impacted on the implementation and the sustainability of the curriculum. The challenge, and what I hoped to discover, is in finding a medium whereby appropriate and sustainable learning opportunities could be offered within the scope of the available resources.

The problem with implementing a curriculum change as large as that currently in progress under the AVES on Cascara is that a blueprint that effectively cuts across a wide scope of cultural, social and political differences cannot exist. This is because change needs to explicitly consider the context in which it is to be executed. Dean (2005) argues for the use of a guided approach that can be adapted for different contexts and that can evolve throughout the implementation of the change. This is a view shared by Louis & Miles (1990: 193) when they state:

The evolutionary perspective rests on the assumption that the environment both inside and outside organisations is chaotic. No specific plan can last very long

because it will either become outmoded due to changing external pressures, or because disagreement over priorities arises within the organisation. Yet there is no reason to assume that the best response is to plan passively, relying on incremental decisions. Instead, the organisation can cycle back and forth between efforts to gain normative consensus about what it may become, to plan strategies for getting there, and to carry out decentralised incremental experimentation that harness the creativity of all human members to change efforts Strategy is viewed as a flexible tool, rather than a semi-permanent expansion of the mission.

Fullan (2003: 190) advocates this as “do, then plan ... and do and plan some more”. This process of continual reflective practice can assist stakeholders to better adapt to the needs of the roles that fulfil the change implementation (*ibid*). Fullan further contends that for the implementation of the curriculum change to be effective, the process and management needs to include a wide scope of stakeholders. The data collected as part of my study, as far as possible, incorporated the views of both ‘insiders’ and ‘outsiders’. Grundy (2002) suggests that systemic change is difficult because of the fluidity of the implementation period, continual changes at management and decision-making levels and because of the constant need to measure progress. Higdon (2003) suggests that it is important to listen to critics within an organisation because they provide good feedback which is helpful in making changes and corrections during the implementation process. Grundy (2002) disagrees with Higdon and argues that changes or corrections made during the process are problematic. She contends that corrections should be guided by an overarching framework for implementing the innovation. My observation of the AVES approach to curriculum change implementation finds synergy with Higdon’s argument as it would appear that involved stakeholders are constantly re-informing the curricular change process. This seems to happen for two reasons. Firstly, the AVES Strategy does not seem to provide a robust model that would support what Grundy describes as an ‘overarching framework’; and secondly, because this may have been intentional – the AVES curriculum, in its implementation, would need to constantly respond to the needs of the labour market. This could aid in ensuring that the curriculum is relevant and actively responding to the needs of the economy.

to implement an appropriate curriculum, Bush (2010) and Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991) advocate that internal stakeholders must acknowledge whether they possess the capacity for change and whether the need for change is warranted. An assessment of this should therefore be a precursor to any change effort. This needs to be considered recursively as other changes may be required prior to the implementation of the major change (Beach, 2003). The curriculum change brought about by the newly established AVES is the result of the socio-economic context that provides impetus for curriculum change. The role of the various stakeholders although different can also vary in approach, depending on the way in which curriculum development is addressed. Cornbleth (1990; 2000) indicates the futility of trying to bring about substantive curriculum reform simply by substituting one curriculum process for another and, in so doing, negating the roles of the actual stakeholders. Fullan (1991) noted that stakeholders need to understand what they do and why they do it for educational change to effectively take place. Bush (2010) supports Fullan in this regard by suggesting that fully briefed and engaged stakeholders are more likely to support the change process. This dimension can be recognised at all levels within the context in which the change is being implemented. The manner in which stakeholders understand curriculum change needs to be uncovered and made explicit in an attempt to understand what sort of impact the new intervention is actually having on them (*ibid*).

Critical pedagogy (or for the purposes of this study – critical andragogy) can also be a useful tool in ascertaining the curricular relevance to the needs of local people. Critical pedagogy has traditionally been concerned with educational theory and teaching and learning practices that are designed to raise learners' critical consciousness regarding oppressive social conditions (Giroux, 1992). In the colonial context of Cascara Island, critical pedagogy has an important part to play. The AVES Strategy and its supporting Curriculum are premised on supporting economic growth in light of the air access project; I was interested in ascertaining how the economic aspirations of Cascarians could be achieved by the curriculum on offer under the AVES. This was not as straightforward as I had envisaged because critical pedagogy also has a focus on personal liberation through the development of critical consciousness.

The establishment of the AVES as a centre for adult learning on Cascara demonstrates a commitment by the AID towards emancipating local people. This shift however, was of mutual benefit – as increased economic activity would reduce the dependence of the island on the metropole over time. The AVES Curriculum on offer did not include any courses in areas such as citizenship, local politics or community education that might have aided in raising the awareness and consciousness of local people in respect of the repression associated with social and historical issues on Cascara.

By developing a critical consciousness, learners are able to recognise the relationships and connections that exist between their individual problems and experiences and the social contexts in which they are embedded (Freire, 2001). The notion of critical pedagogy is supported, to some extent, by the establishment of the AVES, in that the learning opportunities on offer aim to provide the citizens of Cascara with the tools to better themselves, support progressive social action and strengthen democracy (Giroux, 1992 & 2010). Giroux further notes that critical pedagogy aims to aid learners in connecting knowledge to power so that constructive action can be taken. The construction of the airport on Cascara should present Cascarians with many economic opportunities – these will include work in the construction and hospitality sectors, and will also extend to areas such as arts and crafts that will preserve and capitalise on indigenous knowledge and skills. While 72% of the local population support the construction of the airport, it is important that (in supporting critical pedagogy), the curricular approach of the AVES is mindful of the philosophy of all citizens. Such consideration should support the empowerment of the vast majority of learners/potential learners as these learners aid in constructing ideological and institutional conditions that are empowering to themselves. Critical pedagogy places stakeholders at the centre of the learning process – they become drivers and not recipients of the change.

Cornbleth (1990; 2000) draws attention to the paternalistic nature of curriculum change, as does Hargreaves (1982) when they ponder if stakeholder participation in curriculum change leads to their control of the curriculum, or to their remaining in service to ends formulated by others. To remain relevant, in so far as catering to the needs of the developing economy on Cascara, the

curriculum should, as implied by Cornbleth and Hargreaves, be controlled by the stakeholders who will benefit from it. Cornbleth (1990: 56) indicates that stakeholder opinion and insight has the potential of being emancipatory:

Critical inquiry can thus serve as a catalyst for change, not only to explain but also to reveal inherent contradictions in the structure of schooling and how repression or dissatisfaction can be alleviated by altering underlying structural conditions.

Purkey & Smith (2003) propose that success is more fully realisable when all stakeholders – implementers and administrators – work together in planning and implementing the change. Sarason (2004: 61) contends that decision-makers and managers can strongly impact on the outcomes of a curriculum, stating that “... when a process makes people feel that they have a voice in matters that affect them, they will have a greater commitment to the overall enterprise and will take greater responsibility for what happens to the enterprise”. How stakeholders respond to curriculum change is more complex as culture also plays a significant role in how stakeholders approach a change in curriculum. Deal (1987: 61) notes that:

People develop attachments to values, heroes, rituals, ceremonies, stories, gossips, storytellers, priest and other cultural prayers. When change alters or breaks the attachment, meaning is questioned. Often the change deeply affects those inside the culture as well as those outside The existential explanation identifies the basic problems of change in educational organisations as cultural transitions.

Higdon (2003) concurs with Deal by emphasising the cultural dynamics associated with the implementation of a new curriculum. He states that cultural change takes place over an extended period of time and that placing unreasonable timeframes on the change process is counter-productive. Grundy (2002: 61) argues that the greatest consideration in measuring the change process is in how it ultimately meets its “overarching framework”. She further states that systemic change is complicated by the need of the stakeholders to see measurable progress. This progress usually only becomes apparent once the change intervention moves towards institutionalisation.

1.2.3.4. Institutionalisation of the AVES over time

A curriculum change innovation becomes institutionalised when it is used over time (Print, 2003) and institutionalisation cannot be said to have taken place until the change innovation is considered a success. Many change innovations appear to be successful in their infant stages, but this situation often changes when they are exposed to the broader context for which they were intended over time. Many curriculum innovations receive ‘artificial support’ in the form of finance, consultants and administrative favours but the withdrawal of these supports ultimately leads to the demise of the innovation over time (*ibid*). The infant stage for the AVES on Cascara Island is effectively over, now is the time that the start-up supports which have been in place for three years are systematically being removed and the Service will start to move towards institutionalisation. There are plans (as laid out in the AVES Strategy) to establish an AVES Council, an independent statutory body that will monitor, guide and quality assure the activities of AVES. The AVES Council will have the task of ensuring that the curriculum on offer remains relevant; is sustainable; and supports the economic activities of the island – issues all central to my study. The ultimate goal is for the AVES to break away from the Education Department and to function as an autonomous organisation, much like the Cascara Development Bureau (CDB). The difference being that the CDB supports private sector development and the AVES supports the training needs of both the public and private sectors.

As the AVES is still in its implementation phase, the notion of institutionalisation will not be explored in this thesis. Once the AVES becomes institutionalised on the island there may be more local and metropole pressure (from the AID) for the AVES to demonstrate that it can stand-alone. This will require that it sustainably offer a relevant and appropriate curriculum that will develop work-based skills for the overall benefit of the economy.

The interest and pressure demonstrated by both the AID and the local Cascarian Government highlight the vested interest of the state in the learning made available to its citizens. In the Cascarian context, this is further emphasised by the learning and training required to facilitate the activities associated with air

access. The close interest shown by the state in the change process, extends my debate to an exploration of curriculum development and how these serve the needs of the labour market.

1.2.4. Curriculum Developments in response to the needs of the market

Gleeson (1979: 102) describes learning institutions as “state apparatuses” and “ideological agencies”. Althusser (2008; 1979: 99) supports these sentiments by suggesting that schools (or learning institutions) represent a “powerful state apparatus” that aim to produce learners with specific skills and appropriate thought processes. He suggests that these skills and processes are “concerned with a respect for the existing social relations of production” (Althusser, 1979: 100). The AVES Strategy shows that the AVES on Cascara was established as a ‘state apparatus’ or ‘ideological agency’ to develop skills in the workforce that would be required to provide opportunities to both local government and to the private sector to access economic opportunities that may arise as a result of the airport project. The long term aim of the metropole in the construction of an airport and the establishment of an adult learning service is to encourage the island to become more financially self-sufficient so as to reduce dependency. I investigated the degree to which the curriculum on offer through the AVES may have been doing this. The long term plan of reducing financial aid also required me to explore the challenges of sustaining a relevant vocational curriculum for the island. Holmes & McLean (1992) argue that the authority of the teacher has eroded over time. They argue that curriculum theories have developed in response to the attempts of governments to institute the kind of societies they predict would support their ideological viewpoints. The development of the AVES Strategy and its subsequent curriculum on Cascara are no exception to this attempt. The mission of the Service is to provide Cascara with an appropriately skilled and qualified workforce able to meet the island’s future needs, thus the curriculum is geared at supporting economic development so that financial dependency on the metropole can be reduced over time.

I will now outline four curriculum development theories, namely: essentialism, encyclopaedism, polytechnicalism and pragmatism as advanced by Holmes & McLean (1992). These theories demonstrate the dynamic landscapes of

curriculum in response to the aims and ideals of the state and its key decision-makers. In effect, these theories exist on a continuum of curriculum development theory since curriculum responds to the dictates of social, political and economic movements which ultimately effect ideological changes.

Curriculum theory development has an historical trajectory in different contexts. The development of curriculum is dependent on the requirements and dictates of the government (or in the case of territories such as Cascara – the colonial power). No curriculum fits neatly into any one curriculum development model and the AVES Curriculum is no different in this regard. Working with the AVES Curriculum, is leading to suggest that a mixture of development theories is being applied – these are dependent on the relevant curricular focus and the required outcome. This would indicate support for a reconceptualised view of vocational theory. This view of curriculum will be more fully explored in 1.2.6.

1.2.4.1. Essentialism – social class and access to learning

At one end of the continuum is essentialism, one of the earliest curriculum theories that viewed the public service duties of teachers as political acts. Essentialist theory is an elitist model that views people according to their class and recognises women as lesser beings than men. In the Cascarian context, my observation has been that women are, for the most part, treated equally to men with many women holding senior government positions. There does, however, appear to be an active class system and an unwillingness (or nervousness) of those in the lower classes or positions to question those above them. Essentially Cascara is a social democracy, and as such it provides equal learning opportunities to both genders – in the formal schooling sector and in respect of the AVES courses made available to the general public. The theory of essentialism also views social and political change as a threat to governmental powers and does not provide scope for people to move beyond the class into which they were born. Essentialism is preoccupied with the task of identifying and educating future political leaders. These leaders will emanate from a section of the population that Plato writing in Holmes & McLean (1992: 9) calls the guardians – the people who, by their social standing, have the ability to reason. Plato also identifies the auxiliaries who are assumed to possess the energy

required to drive the ideas of the guardians. Finally, Plato identifies the workers who should be trained - as opposed to educated - to develop their “animal instincts” (*ibid*).

Education and training as viewed by the essentialists is preoccupied with educating citizens for the knowledge society. Curriculum knowledge is viewed in terms of its content and how the acquisition of that content will ultimately benefit society. While the AVES aims to provide a curriculum that will support economic growth for the island, the focus is on how individuals can improve their work-based skills for their own improvement and ultimately for the improvement of the society and economy at large. Essentialism regards the social context and social relationships within the acquisition of knowledge with little importance. What is important is the extent to which different classes within society reach the expected level of education appropriate to that class. Knowledge is absolute and what is taught is more important than the methodological approach used. Education is concerned with performance as opposed to competence. This is in conflict with the vision of the AVES where the process of skills competence acquisition is a priority in preparing the workforce for economic growth activities. Also in contrast with the ethos of the AVES – essentialist notions of the curriculum are measured by what the learner *cannot do* as opposed to what the learner *can do*.

1.2.4.2. Encyclopaedism – equal opportunity and learning for life

Next in the continuum of curriculum development theory is “encyclopaedism [which] is based on the premise that the content of education should include all human knowledge” (Holmes & McLean, 1992: 11). This model supports the idea of all people being given equal opportunity to acquire knowledge and in so doing, provide equal opportunity to education and in turn, to life. The emphasis, in encyclopaedism, is that all citizens should have autonomous opportunity to participate in learning. This commitment to equality is stated in the AVES Learner Handbook which extensively covers issues on equal opportunities. The AVES Strategy also lays down a sound commitment to lifelong learning. The focus for my study in this regard was on equal opportunity in relation to work-based skills learning opportunities which could take place over an adult’s life

span. I was curious to understand how work-based skills development could improve the lives of the workforce as they made a contribution to a growing economy.

Encyclopaedism argues that people should not be viewed as ‘rulers’ and ‘the ruled’. Through equal education in a democratic environment competent leaders will ultimately emerge. Descartes’ well-known statement, “I think therefore I am”¹² highlights the intellectual, rational approach to knowledge acquisition as viewed by critical thinking encyclopaedists.

Although the model of encyclopaedism aims to promote and develop the individual as a valued citizen, the capitalist nature of democracy ultimately defeats the socialist notions of absolute equality. The encyclopaedist model aims to educate learners beyond the knowledge society and supports the competency skills model in that its successes are measured by the tangible outcomes and objectives achieved by the learner. Although this model is essentially focussed on education beyond the knowledge society, “where caring develops character and builds cosmopolitan identity” (Hargreaves 2003: 52), it is also concerned with the economic and social goals of education that prepares learners for “making a living and living a life” (*ibid*). My research probed the relationship between learning and development and the needs of the labour market. It also contemplated how learning provision could be sustained and improved so that workforce skills development could continually be enhanced to the betterment of both citizens and the economy of Cascara. The provision of lifelong learning within the Cascarian context by the AVES to some extent supports the rationale behind the encyclopaedic model in that it offers equal learning opportunities across a range of focus areas, some work-based and others for personal and physical development. For such a model to successfully educate entirely beyond the knowledge society, the overriding educational ideology needs to be rooted in social democracy. While Cascara is a dependent colony social democracy is, for the most part, the evident and practiced political ideology.

¹² Descartes’ contention has been widely criticised, with one such argument focussing on the issue of moving from ‘I am thinking’ to ‘I exist.’ This contends that it is a syllogistic reference in that the conclusion (‘I exist’) is inferred from the premise (‘I am thinking’). Another argument is that Descartes pre-supposes the existence of ‘I’ and therefore concluding with the existence of ‘I’ is logically trivial (Kierkegaard, 1985: 40). It could be argued that Descartes is merely extending the content of a concept, specifically that ‘I’ exists (*ibid*).

1.2.4.3. Polytechnicalism – equal opportunity and market fundamentalism

Polytechnicalism has a socio-economic and political base where the content of education should directly relate to the life of an individual, as well as cater for the needs of society. From a political perspective, this model aims to free learners from the dictates of a capitalist society. In so doing, learners are encouraged to use the skills they have acquired for the good of society. While it could be argued that the AVES curriculum is aiding skills acquisition to advantage society through an improved economy, the ultimate aim is capitalist in nature. Skills are being developed to generate wealth for the island. The ultimate aim of polytechnicalism is to shift the political landscape to that of communism.

Polytechnicalism advocates that, teaching should take account of “the fact that the behaviour of individuals is conditioned by biologically inherited factors and external stimuli” (Holmes & McLean, 1992: 13). At classroom level, polytechnicalism is not easy to implement as teachers have difficulty in relating theory to practice. To provide an effective education, “worthwhile knowledge” needs to be easily recognisable (Holmes & McLean, 1992: 14). In my study, this ‘worthwhile knowledge’ related to the relevance of the curriculum in supporting economic growth and how it could be sustained in the isolated context of Cascara Island. The relevance of knowledge under this model is determined by the needs and wants of the individual and of society. These needs, particularly those of greater society are largely determined by the market.

Hargreaves (2003: 54) explains that the ideology of market fundamentalism impacts on the public and economic policies of governments and for this reason “it has command[ed] and control[led] styles of policy”. The educational theory of polytechnicalism is clear in its aims to educate for the knowledge society. Hargreaves (*ibid*) warns that the dangers of such a model usually result in inadequate provision relating to teacher training and educational resources. Hargreaves cites state control and a focus on citizen-directed vocational education as the basis of these problems. Hargreaves’ argument was particularly relevant to my study because the establishment of the AVES and the contents of the vocational curriculum were informed by strategic government policy. Kelly (2004: 52) raises the issue of this type of education – “education as

transmission” - as being “simplistic and unsophisticated”. He argues that there is no consideration for either the learners themselves or the ultimate impact of the curriculum upon them. “Their task [the learners] is to learn as effectively as they can what is offered to them” (*ibid*). While adult learners on Cascara have a choice in what learning opportunities they will participate in, the curriculum is largely focussed on serving the economic needs of the island. This gave impetus to the aims of my study in that I needed to probe to what extent the curriculum on offer was satisfying the real needs of the learners and ultimately the economy.

1.2.4.4. Pragmatism – relevant education for self and society

Early pragmatists recognised that the application of science was transforming the economic base of the knowledge society. These pragmatists realised that the theoretical changes in education, science, mathematics, technology and many other disciplines needed to be addressed to facilitate the necessary responses to societal change. Dewey (1916; 1938) describes worthwhile knowledge as “that knowledge which provides learners with the skills necessary to tackle present and future problems”. This would appear, therefore, to be the approach behind the establishment of the AVES on Cascara Island. I was interested in understanding why the curriculum on offer through the AVES had been decided upon and how it would aid Cascarians in ‘tackling present and future problems’ in respect of the economic changes that the airport construction may bring about.

Pragmatists would argue that practicality is paramount – education and knowledge transfer need to be for a specific and worthwhile purpose. A pragmatic curriculum does not make clear distinctions between general and vocational training and sees the latter as core to the learning process. Thus, it could be suggested that the current AVES Curriculum (see Appendix 1) demonstrates pragmatist qualities as it does not distinguish between general and vocational learning. For the most part, the courses on offer are vocational in nature but non-vocational courses within the areas of sports and leisure, crafts and other academic learning that include further and continuing education are also included. In addition to this, many of the vocational qualifications comprise a practical or technical component and a key skills component that includes literacy, numeracy and in some instances Information Technology. The

vocational courses on offer are geared towards enhancing the acquisition of work-related skills on the island so as to support economic growth and development. In my study, I aimed to understand how learning opportunities such as these could be sustained.

There are two branches or trends associated with post-Dewey pragmatism: one stresses learner-centeredness as the basis for curriculum content, while the other is society-centred and strives to use learning institutions as centres where society can be reconstructed. It might be argued that the AVES on Cascara falls within the latter as it was established to aid workforce development to support economic growth in preparation for the airport construction and associated economic activities. If the AVES was considered with this branch of post-Dewey pragmatism, I would argue that it was predominantly within the area of work-based skills development for which a ‘reconstruction of society’ might be aimed. The AVES Strategy and mission statement demonstrate a commitment to lifelong learning and opportunities for all across a range of learning areas and disciplines.

This model clearly aims to educate both for and beyond the knowledge society. It recognises the need to educate learners for both the economy and for citizenship as well as for the community. Halsey (2004: 52) promotes the idea of educating for “both economic growth and social fairness, [for] both prosperity and progress, [for] both entrepreneurship and security” as this will benefit the knowledge economy. The vocational nature of the AVES curriculum supports a commitment to entrepreneurship; it also demonstrates a commitment to community and personal learning with the craft and sports and leisure courses that it offers. What is important from a pragmatic perspective is that the learners have the right to choose the learning path they see most appropriate to satisfy their personal needs and interests.

Summary

Holmes & McLean’s (1992) curriculum development models of essentialism, encyclopaedism, polytechnicalism and pragmatism largely inform the *what* and the *why* of government’s aims in the provision of curricula. Whatever the

development model adopted, the curriculum needs to be offered or presented in a specific manner. This approach beckons the *how* in respect of curriculum delivery. My debate therefore extends to an exploration of different approaches to curriculum delivery.

1.2.5. Curriculum Theory and Practice: Approaches to curriculum delivery

Curriculum theory and practice is an area of curriculum delivery which has been well debated. Aristotle (1976) categorised knowledge into three disciplines: the theoretical, the productive and the practical. How each of these are viewed impacts on the adopted approach to curriculum. With these areas foregrounded, I will discuss four approaches to curriculum theory and practice:

- the curriculum as transmission;
- the curriculum as product;
- the curriculum as process; and
- the curriculum as praxis.

These four approaches to curriculum delivery, as I will demonstrate are all evident, in different measures in the context of the delivery of the AVES Curriculum, on Cascara. The curricular approach used varies from tutor to tutor and is influenced by the learning area and content in question. Approach is also determined by the experience and pedagogic approach of the tutor. The curricular approach adopted also impacts on the long-term sustainability of curriculum provision under the Service as each approach views knowledge and learning in a different way. Some approaches are better suited to the curriculum development models explored in 1.2.4. while others are not. To some extent, the desired outcome and subsequent success, of a curricular development intervention is informed by the approach adopted.

1.2.5.1. Curriculum as Transmission

Smith (2002: 2) states that curriculum is a “concise statement or table of the heads of discourse, the contents of a treatise, the subject of a series of lectures” – essentially curriculum is a syllabus. A syllabus does not usually indicate the

importance of topics or the order in which they should be covered. Curzon (2003: 22) points out that curriculum designers often design curricula using a “textbook approach” and set out the contents in what is deemed to be a “logical process”. An approach to curriculum that is concerned with its theory and practice from the point of view of the syllabus is only really concerned with content. If a curriculum is a body of knowledge-content or subjects, then education in this sense is the process by which content is transmitted or ‘delivered’ (*ibid*) to students through the most effective methods devised. The AVES on Cascara Island does, to some extent, support the approach of curriculum as transmission in that the curriculum is set out to achieve pre-identified means. Courses on offer are often composed of specific components or focus on a specific learning area or activity. This approach would seem to advocate that the dominant conception of curriculum on Cascara is a technocratic one which views curriculum as a tangible product like a policy document.

Cornbleth (2000: 114) cautions that such an approach to curriculum results in a product which is disseminated for implantation by those who “work on the ground”. For my study, this approach was worthwhile contemplating because the published curriculum aimed to satisfy specific economic and social needs. This leads my discussion to curriculum as product as the AVES curriculum is constantly evolving to meet current needs and demands – particularly in relation to work-based skills and competencies that might aid economic advancements made possible by the airport construction project and its subsequent activities.

1.2.5.2. Curriculum as Product

Historically, curriculum has largely been conceived as a technical exercise in which objectives are set and plans are drawn up, then applied, and finally the outcomes measured. This approach to education gained popularity in the 1970s with the rise of vocationalism and the concern for measurable competencies. Such an approach to curriculum emphasises curricular outputs and therefore is pertinent to my study. As stated at the outset, this study investigated how the curriculum implemented through the AVES was addressing the needs of the island by aiding workforce skills development and supporting economic growth.

Such an approach to curriculum, is however, not new and was pondered by theorists like Bobbitt (1918: 42) early in the last century:

The central theory [of curriculum] is simple. Human life, however varied, consists in the performance of specific activities. Education that prepares for life is one that prepares definitely and adequately for these specific activities. However, numerous and diverse they may be for any social class they can be discovered. This requires only that one go out into the world of affairs and discover the particulars of which their affairs consist. These will show the abilities, attributes, habits, appreciations and forms of knowledge that men [*sic*] need. These will be the objectives of the curriculum. They will be numerous, definite and particularised. The curriculum will then be that series of experiences which children and youth must have by way of obtaining those objectives.

Bobbitt's conception of curriculum is broad in that he advocates that a well structured curriculum will prepare learners for life. Tyler (1949) extended this concept of curriculum into the workplace. In his observation of the curriculum from a management perspective, Tyler proposed greater division of labour with jobs being simplified; an extension of managerial control over all elements of the workplace; and cost accounting based on systematic time-and-motion study. Examples of his approach can be identified in many training programmes where specific tasks and responsibilities are analysed, reduced to their component elements with lists of competencies developed thereafter. This implied that the curriculum emanated from practical needs and resulted from a systemic study.

Critics of Tyler, such as McNeil (1990) and Ledwith (2007: 601), argue that this approach has "no social vision and programme to guide the process of curriculum construction as it is a stand-alone technical exercise". This approach to the curriculum is evident in many of the overseas accredited courses – particularly the National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) offered under the City & Guilds (C & G) umbrella through the AVES on Cascara. NVQs are 'competence-based' qualifications.

As such learning is practical, and work-related tasks are designed to ensure that learners develop their skills and knowledge to do a job more effectively. NVQs are based on national standards for various occupations. The standards set out

tangible outcomes which an occupationally competent person is expected to demonstrate. NVQs are at levels 1 to 5 on the NQF of the metropole and Cascara. (See NQF in Appendix 2). As shown in the AVES Curriculum, (see Appendix 1), the AVES offers numerous NVQ courses¹³. Consistent with the Tylerian approach to curriculum, many of these NVQs offered by the AVES aimed to address areas that would support economic activity associated with the air access project. Tyler (1949) provided a rationale for curriculum specialists in which he posed the following four questions:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organised? and
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

Notwithstanding the criticism levelled against the Tylerian rationale, this approach to curriculum theory and practice is extremely useful because it is systematic and it presents a logical framework around which the curriculum can be organised. Central to the approach is the formulation of behavioural objectives that provide a clear notion of outcome so that content and method may be organised and the final product evaluated. A concern with this approach is that the plan or programme assumes major importance. Grundy (1987: 57) confirms this in her definition of curriculum, “a programme of activities (by teachers and pupils) designed so that the pupils will attain, so far as possible certain educational and other schooling ends or objectives”. Adhering tightly to such a plan can hinder the full potential of the learning process. Another concern relating to the Tylerian rationale is that of the nature of the behavioural learning objectives. The implication is that behaviours can be objectively and mechanically measured but practical application proves that this is not always

¹³ Health & Social Care – Level 2 & 3
Maternity & Pediatric – Level 3
Customer Service – Level 2 & 3
Agricultural Crop Production – Level 2 & 3
Land Based Operations – Level 1
Business & Administration – Level 2 & 3
Hospitality – Level 1 & 2
Automotive Maintenance & Repairs – Level 2
Wood & Trowel Occupations – Level 1 & 2

possible. Another criticism of this approach is the fact that sight is often lost of the bigger picture.

Learning content is often broken down into smaller and smaller units resulting in competencies being measured against a long list of irrelevant and sometimes trivial skills. A further concern with this approach is the lack of impact that tutors have on pedagogic (or andragogic) practice of the objectives (Cornbleth, 2000). A final concern with this approach is the problem of unanticipated results. A focus on pre-identified goals may lead those involved in the learning process to disregard learning which may occur as a result of the interactions, but which are not listed as objectives. Identifying unanticipated results was important to my study because trying to understand how a sustainable curriculum could be implemented was central to my research. Given that the AVES Curriculum is striving to fulfil skills needs associated with economic activity on the island, it could largely be considered to be a product-based curriculum.

1.2.5.3. Curriculum as Process

In this approach, curriculum is not a physical or tangible product; instead it is an interaction of learners, teachers, knowledge and their environment. In effect, curriculum is what actually happens in the classroom and what teachers (and learners) do to prepare and evaluate the intended and unintended processes.

The process approach is informal and the context is of major importance to the learning process. The teacher will enter the context with a planned idea of what is about to happen – although the plan is not always executed as initially conceived or conceptualised. This notion of curriculum supports the definition of curriculum forwarded by Stenhouse (1975a: 4 - 5): “[a] curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice”.

Stenhouse (*ibid*) argued that curriculum was not entirely about process but also about the *means* by which the experience of attempting to put an educational proposal into practice is made available. This view is particularly relevant in the

Casarian context. The original AVES Strategy presented a vision for the development of the Adult and Vocational Education Service and the curriculum that it would ultimately deliver. Through the implementation of the curriculum and through various social, political and financial factors – the original curriculum has been revisited from time-to-time in line with current and emerging training needs. This was particularly important to my study as it provided a key-hole look into exploring how the curriculum was already responding to the changing needs of the island and aiding workforce development and economic growth.

One can only surmise that Stenhouse's definition of curriculum was to keep the objectives in focus but also to allow for the process to be meaningful, fluid and dynamic. Newman & Ingram (1989: 11) offered a definition of curriculum that stated it is "an organic process by which learning is offered, accepted and internalised". The problem with a definition such as this is that it becomes so wide and interchangeable that it is difficult to distinguish the difference between curriculum and education. Reflecting on the transferable nature of *curriculum* and *education* within this definition, I chose to focus my research mainly on the *curriculum*, as my research did not take place at learning implementation or operational level but focussed rather at a strategic planning level where I investigated how a meaningful curriculum that met the needs of the islands economy could be sustained. With this in mind, I conducted a learner (or client) questionnaire in which I asked learners and tutors to comment on issues that were more operational in nature than remarking on matters of content.

The problems associated with a process approach to curriculum lie in the fact that the learning and/or teaching relies heavily on the quality of the tutor. Learners in an environment where the teacher is not committed or highly competent do not always have the luxury of curriculum materials which might provide alternative support. Another danger associated with the process approach is that it can become over concerned with the acquisition of skills. To this end, skills acquisition is often confused with the completing of a process. The assumption being that when learners are able to demonstrate certain skills they are deemed to have completed a process. Grundy (1987) suggests that the actions become the ends and that processes become the product. She argues that whether or not learners are able to make sense of the world around them is

somehow overlooked. On Cascara, there is a severe shortage of skilled labour and this is particularly noticeable in the education sector where there are few teachers and tutors. Many AVES tutors have full time jobs and offer their services after hours. In some instances, these teachers and tutors are not fully qualified to facilitate the classes that they offer and the breadth and depth of the learning experience does not always amount to a rich and fulfilling experience for the learner. This has an impact on the economic growth of the island, as a competently upskilled workforce should aid economic growth and development.

1.2.5.4. Curriculum as Praxis

This approach to curriculum is, in many respects, a development of the process model. While the curriculum as process places an emphasis on judgement and making meaning, it does not clearly define the interests that it serves. The praxis approach to curriculum concerns itself with both the learning process and “collective human well-being [that moves towards] the emancipation of the human spirit” (Smith, 2002: 2). Thus, the praxis perspective is concerned with freedom, empowerment and emancipation. Action is not simply informed; it is determined by the actions and attitudes of those involved in the process so that the course of action becomes beneficial and meaningful to all.

A praxis approach to curriculum is dependent on continuous interaction and reflection. Curriculum is seen “not simply as a set of plans to be implemented, but rather is constituted through an active process in which planning, acting and evaluating are all reciprocally related into the process” (Grundy, 1987: 115). Such an approach centres on praxis, which involves informed and committed action.

In praxis there is no prior knowledge of the right manner in which to achieve the ultimate aim of any situation. The end itself is “specified in deliberating about the appropriate means to a given situation” (Bernstein 1983: 147). To achieve a predetermined end, we alter approach in a way which supports the outcomes being reached. In praxis, there is a continual interplay between the ends and the means.

As discussed in 1.2.3.3., critical pedagogy is concerned with the issue of power in the teaching and learning context. To this end, critical pedagogy focuses on how and in whose interests knowledge is produced and imparted. The ideal aims of education in the context of critical pedagogy are emancipatory. Freire (2010), terms such emancipatory education as ‘liberatory education’ because it focuses on the development of a critical consciousness. Freire (*ibid*) further suggests that this coming to ‘consciousness’ is the necessary first step of praxis as it requires an ongoing, reflective approach to taking action. Praxis, therefore, involves engaging in a cycle of theory, application, evaluation, reflection, and then a revisiting of the associated theory. Social transformation is the product of praxis at the collective level.

Praxis therefore is not simply action based on reflection – it is action which embodies certain qualities. These qualities include a commitment to human well being; the search for truth; and respect for others. Essentially, it is the action of people who are free and who are able to act for themselves. Praxis, by virtue of its emancipatory stance, can present risks as it requires the learner to make “a wise and prudent practical judgment about how to act in *this* situation” (Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 190).

Summary

In this review of approaches to curriculum, it is clear that the AVES Curriculum is aiming to serve a particular economic need. The curriculum, by design, should therefore rightly not be fully focused on transformation or empowerment. It is also evident that the curriculum has been revisited and adapted during the short life of the Service to continuously meet the changing and emerging training needs of the island.

With an overview of these four approaches to curriculum provided, I now contemplate arguments around the notion of a reconceptualised view of curriculum. This view sees the curriculum as an ever-evolving, fluid process.

1.2.6. Reconceptualisation of Curriculum

Slattery's (1998) reconceptualised view of education includes his views of curriculum: an infinite process in which the outcomes need to be continually reassessed and updated. He argues that in attempting to understand the social, political and economic implications of the curriculum in relation to the past, present and future, we are in a stronger position to provide learners with an "individual experience" in which they can make "broader connections" (Slattery 1998: 58). Slattery further suggests that the curriculum needs to be based on the present. He contends that the past and the future need to be considered in relation to the present. The design of the AVES Strategy and the subsequent establishment of the AVES with its associated curriculum, support Slattery's assertion that the curriculum is a political text. Kenway (2008: 2) suggests that it is commonly argued that even in capitalist societies, the main factor of production in today's economy is knowledge. She suggests that "capitalism is now often equated with the knowledge economy" (*ibid*) and that policy-makers all over the world have developed curriculum policies that combine different ideas about the association "between knowledge, information, learning, the economy and society" (*ibid*). These policies are informed by the past, the present and the future aspirations of the context in which the curriculum is placed. Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery & Taubman (1995: 67) write that by "bracketing what is, what was, and what can be, one is loosened from it, potentially more free of it, and hence more free to freely choose the present". Slattery (1998: 59) identifies four stages in the process of curriculum reconceptualisation:

1. the regressive stage where we are to turn to our past to determine how our educational experiences have impacted on our present;
2. the progressive stage requires us to explore and identify the options and possibilities open to us. By assessing our options we choose a way forward;
3. the analytical stage requires us to focus on the present without consideration of the past or future; and
4. finally, the synthetical stage requires an assimilation of the first three stages so that the present can be effectively informed.

In addressing each of these stages, the ideologies that underpin the social, political and economic structures of the context need to be considered. This will

ensure that a curriculum that is relevant, and within the means and vision of the context which it aims to serve, is continually provided. The lessons of the past, the circumstances of the present and the opportunities of the future all need to be carefully contemplated so that a meaningful learning experience can be offered. If a meaningful and relevant curriculum survives the synthetical stage and the regressive stage at the point of evaluation and assessment, the new progressive stage needs to assess how these opportunities can be sustained within the parameters of available resources. This process appears to be ongoing at the AVES where the curriculum is dynamic and fluid – and constantly being revisited.

Pinar *et. al* (1995: 67) suggests that in its reconceptualisation, the curriculum needs to be understood “... as a political text, as phenomenological text, as autobiographical text, and the other major sectors of scholarship”. Slattery (1998: 63) suggests that in doing this, people who work with the curriculum need to “re-envision their pedagogical roles and autobiographical methods” so that the curriculum remains relevant. If the curriculum is not relevant and meaningful it will not be widely subscribed to and will ultimately fail. In the Cascarian context and for the purposes of my study, this relates to a curriculum that is meaningful in so much that it aids workforce skills development to support economic growth. Its relevance is determined by the politics, the phenomenology and the autobiography of the island and its people. What is of major importance is that continuously evolves to stay relevant. The reconceptualised curriculum could aim to teach both for and beyond the knowledge society – the present will inform why certain development models are adopted and what approach will be used to convey the curriculum.

1.2.7. Synthesis

Curriculum theory and practice is largely dependent on broader social movements that impact directly on curriculum development. The current Cascarian landscape is a good example of this in practice. The Adult and Vocational Education Service has come about as a direct result of the changes, both social and economic, that the proposed air access development project will bring to the island. To this end, the AVES Strategy and its subsequent core

curriculum were developed specifically with activities that would aid the economic activity that will come about as a result of economic change. My review of the AVES Curriculum suggests that it embodies curriculum reconceptualisation but its stance on *curriculum development* and *curricular approach* are *polytechnicalist* and *product* respectively.

When implementing a curriculum change, it is important that all stakeholders are considered and consulted and that there is synergy between the planned change and the culture of the context in which the change will be implemented and ultimately adopted. When implementing a curriculum change, it is also imperative that stakeholders see the relevance of the curriculum to their needs and the needs of their immediate society and economy. If this is not evident, lack of stakeholder commitment or buy-in will hinder the success of the curriculum innovation.

Also of major importance, particularly in the Cascarian context is how the curricular change will support and serve the economy and workforce of the island. I now continue my argument with an exploration of the curriculum in relation to economic theory and the needs of the market.

1.3. THE ECONOMY AND THE WORKFORCE ON CASCARA ISLAND

In this section I introduce and explore economic development in relation to curricular provision and expand on the followings theories of economic development and their relevance to the Cascarian context: economic base theory; competitive industry cluster; entrepreneurship; and post-secondary and further education. I then move on to examining the concept of human capital theory, capacity building and social capital theory in the Cascarian context. Thereafter, I discuss the relationship between learning and work and I conclude with a deliberation on the 'new global economy' and what this means to Cascara Island.

1.3.1. Economic Development

The AVES on Cascara Island was established in 2006 primarily to serve the changing economic needs of the island in the wake of the decision by the metropole government to build an airport on the island. The construction of an airport on the isolated island of Cascara has the potential to bring with it considerable consequences that will have varying impact both on the society and the economy.

Smith (1776) – originally published in 1776 – a pioneer of political economics wrote that a nation would best improve its wealth through individual decision-making with minimal interference and input from the state. Smith further argued that an economy would adjust automatically to full employment if it was left alone.

Malthus (1798) – originally published in 1798; and Marx (1867) – originally published in 1867 (vol. 1), 1885 (vol. 2) and 1894 (vol. 3) differed in their approach to the economy. Marx, being a socialist, saw capitalism as a doomed enterprise as it claimed to exploit the main-stay factors of production: i.e. land, labour and capital. Malthus, on the other hand, theorised that growth in the economy would cause an increase in population, but further suggested that the increased population would overtake the increases in production. The thinking behind the introduction of the AVES Strategy and its subsequent curriculum on Cascara, show support for Malthus' argument that economic growth might increase productivity and thereby also encourage population growth. The AVES curriculum was designed to give impetus to the visions of local government and the AID for the development and growth of the island. It was envisaged that increased skills levels in relevant areas, as well as the opportunity to develop these skills on the island, would not only boost the economy but also encourage Cascarians around the world to return to their homeland.

Keynes (1930) suggested that economies should focus on spending and adjust production and employment to align with spending (*ibid*). In the Cascarian context, there is no substantial local production with most of the workforce being employed by government. Cascarian Government budgets are designed with

salaries aligned in relation to the budgetary support received from the metropole. Keynes (*ibid*) further suggested that some government intervention was always needed to control economic activities. The AVES is one of those government controlled services and its curriculum aims to improve work-based skills in order to develop the economy. This approach appears to be in line with Keynes' contention that government intervention is always needed to control economic activities. Given the impending air access project on Cascara, the actions of the local and metropole governments seem to be prudent.

On exploring the potential for the economic advancement of the island, it is worth noting that although the Cascarian economy is essentially capitalist in nature – with freedom of enterprise existing – nearly 80% of the workforce are employed in the public sector. This makes it difficult to fully explore the opposing theories of Marx and Malthus. It is, however, worthwhile to note that the population of the island, due to a variety of factors, is declining on an annual basis. Some of these factors include sub-standard local wages, medical needs and insufficient opportunity for tertiary learning. Many young people leave the island to undertake post-secondary or tertiary learning abroad; often they do not return as they receive more substantial remuneration for their newly acquired skills abroad.

It is largely for the reason of a declining population, as well as the lack of local industry that Cascara Island does not have a self-sustaining or self-regulating economy. The island is dependent on the metropole for all of its funding with in excess of 60% of the local workforce employed by the government (Weaver 2002: 12). As stated previously, local wages are very low, with the average annual government wage in 2009/10 being \$2418¹⁴. Due to a social welfare system, there are no desperately poor people on the island; there are also very few rich people. Financial assistance from the metropole government amounted to US\$27 million in the 2009/10 financial year with an additional US \$5.25 million to subsidise the island's ship managed by the International Passenger and Freight Shipping Service (IPFSS), (Cascara Government, 2009a: 3). In the early part of the last century, Cascara was an important victualing station for ships.

¹⁴ 2009/10 Statistics received from the Financial Planning Manager by email on 04.03.2010

The opening of various canals and trade lines in the latter part of that century provided a shorter, more direct route for ships travelling between major countries and ports around the globe. This resulted in ships not needing to visit the island for supplies and the island has felt the economic impact of this ever since. Besides the tour and leisure sailing industry which includes visitors arriving only sporadically, there is less and less demand on the island's agricultural and natural resources. Another factor responsible for the economic downturn of the island was the demise of the flax (or sisal) industry in the 1960s. In the first part of the last century, Cascara had a thriving economy that was made possible through growing flax for ropes and fibres. The advent of synthetic fibre in the 1960s saw the decline of the flax industry which impacted negatively on the island's economy. Almost overnight, Cascara went from a prosperous island to a struggling economy (Weaver, 2002).

Besides financial aid received by local government, there are numerous additional revenue streams for Cascara: these include tuna fishing; coffee growing; tourism (although there are fewer than 1000 tourists who visit the island each year on the IPFSS); the sale of stamps and first day covers to philatelic collectors around the world; livestock farming, which takes place on a very limited scale; and finally the small-scale sale of local handicrafts that include aloe work, beadwork, lace and tailored clothing (*ibid*). The latter four similarly having declined considerably over the last 50 years. In my study, I aimed to explore the degree to which the curriculum on offer by the AVES supported these additional revenue earners on the island, I also investigated whether such learning opportunities were viable and sustainable as well as whether new revenue earners could be developed or introduced.

As there are few jobs available locally, a large proportion of the workforce leave the island to seek employment overseas, mostly in the metropole but also on other small islands with stronger economies and where higher wages are paid. About one third of the total population of Cascara is living offshore, while one third of the working population is presently working abroad. While this brings economic benefits in terms of reducing unemployment and of increasing remittances (now a little under US \$3 million per annum), it brings with it social burdens in terms of family separations. A campaign is currently underway to

encourage the return of Cascarians from all over the world to the island in order to aid the development of the island's economy. The announcement by metropole government to fund an international airport on the island has brought about economic policy on the island that aims to encourage inward investment. This has sparked considerable interest in development on the island and to date one building development – a hotel with a golf course – has been approved. It is of interest to note that as part of gaining inward investor status, investors need to submit a detailed training programme as part of their application (Cascarian Sustainable Development Plan, 2007: 15).

A lack of capital to provide funds for asset replacement and a lack of inward investors to date has meant that the major municipal utilities such as energy, water and public health are likely to remain under government control for the foreseeable future. There are 13 government departments¹⁵ that employ in excess of two thirds of the island's working population. There are also a number of private sector companies across the island, the largest of these being Wisedoms¹⁶ – a group that includes three supermarkets, two petrol stations, a DIY store, a shoe shop, an insurance agency and the shipping agency. Wisedoms, although classified as a private sector business, is essentially a parastatal as it is 63% government owned. There are at least four other larger private sector players on the island but none compare in size and scope to the operations and activities of Wisedoms. In addition to these there are up to 200 small businesses (employing between 1 to 4 people) that operate across the island. These businesses maintain very small profit margins and in most instances only generate the wages of those employed in the operations. It is therefore understandable that the construction of an airport will give the island's economy a much needed boost and that new jobs and opportunities could be

¹⁵ Audit Service
Police Department
Human Resources Department
Department for Development and Economic Planning
Fiscal Service
Office of the Chief Administrator (including Tourism and Customs)
Municipal Services Department
Education Department
Public Health and Social Services Department
Legal and Lands Department
Agriculture and Natural Resources Department
Employment and Social Security Department
The Post Office

¹⁶ This is a pseudonym.

created as a result of the envisaged air access. Two areas cited for development associated with air access are tourism and construction. The AVES aims to offer skills development to aid, support and encourage these and other skills required for economic, personal and social development (Brookes, 2005: 9). Bearing in mind these factors, it was of interest for me to grasp how a sustainable curriculum on the island could help to achieve this aim.

With this overview of the unique Cascarian economy outlined, I now explore economic development in greater detail. Economic development encompasses a wide range of concerns that encompass: growth per capita, competitiveness and community upliftment. I discuss four economic theories that aim to encourage economic development, namely: economic base theory, competitive industry clusters, entrepreneurship and post-secondary and further education.

1.3.1.1. Economic Base Theory

In its true form, economic base theory is concerned with the division of employment in two broad categories: these are the *basics*, which incorporate manufacturing and related activities; and the *non-basic*, or service and trade related activities (Tiebout, 1962; Woo, 2005). The Cascarian context is in effect a good example of economic base theory, albeit that most of the workforce are government employees. The economic base of a community is made up of those businesses that provide basic employment and income on which the community depends. On Cascara the government is effectively the economic base – albeit that it receives its funding from the AID. If the main enterprise, in this case the government, falls on hard times, the effect is widely felt. The reality on Cascara is that although manufacturing exists, it is of no real consequence as export does not generate much revenue. The island is dependent on aid money, which is for the most part used to pay wages and salaries and to provide basic government services. As the provider of adult and vocational education on the island, the AVES is classed as a non-basic service. It is a particularly interesting one as, by the provision of a relevant curriculum, it has the power to improve activities across both the basic *and* non-basic categories.

In the economic base theory model, Woo (2005) argues that private sector competition creates economic growth. It was for this reason that the AVES was established on Cascara. It was hoped that by injecting relevant skills into the marketplace through the provision of an appropriate and sustainable adult and vocational curriculum the economy would demonstrate growth. The small business base and the severe shortage of human resource on the island does not appear to be an encouraging scenario for real substantial or significant economic growth.

1.3.1.2. Competitive Industry Clusters and private sector businesses

A competitive industrial cluster is a concentration of competitive businesses in the same industry. Hill & Brennan (2000) describe industrial clusters as those driver industries that are dependent on customers, labour, suppliers and common technologies. For a competitive industry cluster to exist there needs to be businesses that compete with each other to enhance services, products and quality. The Cascarian private sector is very small but within this economic microcosm, “there are numerous garages and car hire companies, construction companies, independent handymen [*sic*], superettes, self catering accommodations, hotels and restaurants” (Cascara Development Bureau, 2008: 5). In promoting healthy competition, the AVES Curriculum needs to offer appropriate learning to the private sector. Skills development in these competitive areas will improve services, standards and costs; with the added benefit of increasing the scope of the economy.

The theory of competitive industry clusters suggests that when competing businesses are in close proximity to each other, the fibre of all of the businesses is strengthened (Harrison, 1994). The size and geomorphology of the island suggest that most businesses in the Cascarian context are situated close to each other which intrinsically promotes sharing the same captive and limited client base.

1.3.1.3. Entrepreneurship and the role of the entrepreneur

In order to understand the limitations of the island of Cascara as competing in a world market or global economy – or even to sustain itself adequately without extensive governmental aid – it is of importance to examine how traditional understanding of entrepreneurial concepts are appropriate to the study of the economics of the island.

The concepts 'entrepreneur' and 'entrepreneurship' have been described in a variety of ways by different writers. Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum & Shulman (2009: 520) describe an entrepreneur as somebody who possesses a distinctive motivated personality, who has a command over resources in order to reach his/her own goal(s). Backman (1983: 3) suggests that an entrepreneur plays a critical role in the establishment of new business, and hence, is a major contributor to economic growth. Glancey & McQuaid (2000: 84) explain entrepreneurship as risk "taking, resource allocating and innovating", while Hisrich & Peters (1998: 14) see entrepreneurship as "a process of creation and dedicating resources to meet goals". Casson (2010: 56) contends that entrepreneurship is in actual fact 'economic theory' where the central driver of entrepreneurial economic development is innovation. Innovation can be characterised by the combinations of creativeness or resourceful thinking (*ibid*).

It should therefore follow that the growth of the economy on Cascara is largely dependent on the presence or absence of entrepreneurial instincts in the Cascarians themselves. While a relevant and appropriate curriculum can boost economic development, there needs to be a desire and volition in the people themselves to take up skills development learning opportunities on offer. This is particularly appropriate to employees within both the public and private sectors, especially at a time when government is moving towards policies in outsourcing and the AID is considering ways of reducing financial support. These potential threats highlight the need for entrepreneurship on Cascara Island. An example of this exists in local crafters not capitalising on the local client base; instead they focus on preparing stock for cruise ships that visit the island, on average, 6 times a year.

In relation to the educational theories that inform the AVES Curriculum, entrepreneurship, as an economic theory, can be viewed in terms of creating new businesses. Glancey & McQuaid (2000) suggest that too much emphasis is placed on entrepreneurship as a means to starting a new business. They argue that job creation is the main objective of people involved in economic development and they suggest that this is where the link between economic development and entrepreneurship lies. This thought is central to the AVES on Cascara as it supports the mission of the Service which purports to skill, upskill and qualify the workforce to meet future needs in relation to economic growth and sustainability. It also has the potential of enhancing existing as well as developing new businesses. It is the task of the AVES to provide training to meet this aim. The Cascarian Sustainable Development Plan (2007: 8) demonstrates the government's commitment to developing the private sector:

Another important measure to promote private sector development is reinvigorating the outsourcing/privatisation of activities currently undertaken in the public sector. An outsourcing programme will be designed and its implementation will be given priority. Furthermore, an effective business support programme will be implemented. This will be done through the [Cascara Development Bureau], in co-operation with or using existing or potential private sector providers of business support services.

The AVES works closely with the CDB in providing appropriate learning opportunities to the private sector on Cascara Island. Often resources are pooled and training programmes are offered to representatives from both the public and private sectors. The differing arguments on the entrepreneurship model would suggest that perhaps the AVES should offer training specifically in entrepreneurship, so Cascarians are in better position to capitalise on prospects that the air access project might present.

1.3.1.4. Post-Secondary and Further Education

At first glance, it may seem inappropriate to explore Post-Secondary and Further Education with economic theories but organisations such as the AVES, colleges and higher learning institutions of learning are designed to contribute to local economic growth (Welch & Welch, 2010). This, after all was the basis on which

the AVES was established. Falcone (1994: 44) suggests that institutions such as the AVES can contribute to local growth as follows:

1. preparation of students entering the workforce;
2. improving literacy rates of citizens in the service area;
3. offering courses for specific businesses; and
4. providing pre-screening services for employment.

The AVES as far as possible prepares Cascarians for the workforce but due to the size of the island it does not operate as a college as such, as there are insufficient numbers to support such an operation. The AVES is also only able to offer development and training within the scope of available resources – human, physical and financial. It would appear that training through the AVES is predominantly aimed at people already in the workplace, while the community high school also aids (in collaboration with the AVES) the preparation of school leavers for the workplace. Similarly, the Employment and Social Security Department runs a youth trainee programme for school leavers to gain practical work experience. The AVES offers literacy and numeracy classes at a variety of levels and provides work-based skills learning opportunities across a variety of disciplines.

With regard to training possibilities for school leavers/young members of the workforce, Welch & Welch (2010) and Daugherty & Bakia (1999) contend that adult learning institutions contribute to local economic development through contract training, small business development and incubation, and local economic planning. This is true in many respects of the AVES on Cascara. Due to the size of the island and its economy, these economic functions are implemented in partnership with agencies such as the CDB in the area of training that supports local business development.

Without able, qualified and experienced human capital, no approach to economic theory will advance effectively. Thus it is necessary to explore human capital in the context of economic theory, with a particular focus on the Cascarian context.

1.3.2. Human Capital Theory, Human Resource Development and Social Capital Theory

The concept of 'capital' is historically associated with cash, savings accounts, stock and shares. Modern trends have broadened the notion of 'capital' to include employers appreciating the skills of their employees as a form of capital; hence *human capital*. This is particularly relevant when considering the training and the retraining of employees. From an economic point of view, capital can be described as "buildings, equipment, inventories and other non-human producible resources that contribute to the production, marketing and distribution of goods and services" (Mansfield, Bravesh & Paige, 2004: 10). Maoz & Moav (1999: 684) contest this view of capital and highlight the need to consider people as a predominant resource in respect of economic potential and capacity building. The concept of capital can also extend to include civil society and the relationships that exist within these structures – this form of capital has been termed *social capital theory*. In this section I will explore the notion of human capital theory and human resource as follows:

- Human capital and education;
- Capacity building in the Cascarian context;
- Social capital and the Cascarian context.

1.3.2.1. Human Capital and Education

When human capital is investigated in the context of education and learning, there is a shift away from the description of Mansfield *et al.*'s (2004: 10) "non-human producible resources" towards notions of training, education, health benefits and the ideal of improved jobs (Maoz & Moav, 1999). This view of human capital incentivises employees to voluntarily want to migrate to higher wages or better paid jobs (*ibid*). Hao (2000) sees human capital in terms of health related issues and this view supports Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of human needs, where the focus is initially on physical wellbeing before other higher order needs are taken into account. Economists generally concur that people (or human resource) are significant when weighing up the equation of the accumulation of wealth in an economy (Mansfield *et al.*, 2004). People invest in

themselves and aim to become better at what they do – this is an investment in human capital. By investing in themselves, people can enhance their opportunities and expand their options (Welch & Welch, 2010).

Education and training are imperative investments in human capital because these are the means by which self-improvement occur - essentially through individuals increasing their own knowledge and skills bases. Participation in training reduces the dependence of employees on employers and government aid (Becker, 1993). The potential to emancipate employees and reduce government aid is at the heart of the AID's objectives behind the establishment of the AVES. As the government is the major employer on the island, the training and empowering of civil servants in particular, will give the workforce an opportunity to move into the private sector and to take advantage of economic opportunities that will arise in and around the air access project. There are ideally, long term benefits for both Cascarians and the AID: the Cascarians will become more skilled and more self-sustaining, while the AID will reduce financial support to the island over time. My view is that unless the airport brings significant economic investment to the island, the reduction of aid will be minimal for the foreseeable future as the private sector is very small. If financial aid is reduced and the economy does not grow, the result will be deteriorating conditions and more Cascarians may leave the island.

Even if opportunities arise which might motivate the more entrepreneurial-minded Cascarians; many have limited capital resources which will restrict them from setting up large scale businesses. Although the local bank does offer bank loans, these are not easy to obtain. Economic growth can predictably be expected when the airport is built, but it is imperative that the Cascarians themselves realise much of the opportunity and not outside inward investors who will cash in on the potential opportunities. For reasons such as these, the Cascarian Government has implemented a Sustainable Development Plan, which clearly states its purposes for the manner in which the AVES on Cascara will aid human resource development:

[As] education plays a key role in developing a strong human resources base, the establishment and continued development of an Adult and Vocational

Education Service aims at providing vocational education in a lifelong learning context. It specifically aims at promoting the participation of [Cascarians] in the building and operation of the new airport and in its associated economic development, particularly in the tourism sector. Adult education is envisaged in areas of general education, as well as business-related education, and skills training (Cascara Government Sustainable Development Plan, 2007: 36 – 37).

Although not explicitly stated in terms of human capital theory, it is clear from the above extract that the Cascarian Government has a vision for the development of the island's people so that they can contribute effectively to its economy. Thus, it is imperative that the AVES offers a curriculum that is relevant and appropriate. It would appear that many Cascarians appear to have a deep commitment to self improvement with training sessions on offer by the AVES often being oversubscribed. This can probably be attributed to the fact that until recently, training opportunities existed only in a limited form through the Human Resources Department. More than 80% of the training participants are from the public sector, and this may be attributed to the fact that private sector workers feel the financial impact of 'no work, no pay' because their presence in a training intervention will result in lost working and earning time. Public sector employees attend training sessions during working time with full pay. Another issue is that private sector workers and business owners need to pay to attend training sessions with only certain training subsidies available through the Cascara Development Bureau (CDB). There is no cost for government employees participating in AVES learning opportunities as the AVES is a government run and controlled agency. The Cascara Sustainable Development Plan (2007: 36) does, however, lay out a long-term plan for the Service to become independent:

As part of the establishment of AVES, the revitalisation of the Vocational Training Advisory Council into the Adult and Vocational Education Service Council (AVESC) is envisaged. This Council will have representatives of the public and private sectors and will make recommendations on vocational education priorities and monitor the AVES.

The CDB is currently implementing formal policy to assist with subsidies for private sector representatives who wish to participate in learning and training opportunities offered under the AVES. For the curriculum to effectively serve the

needs of the economy by developing work-based competencies that will promote economic growth; it is imperative that the AVES continues to engage private sector agencies such as the CDB. It is through such partnerships that capacity will be locally built in relevant vocational areas.

1.3.2.2. Capacity Building in the Cascarian Context

Experience has shown, over the relatively short time of the existence of the AVES, that Cascarians show a keen interest in furthering their personal educational objectives. This makes it worthwhile focussing on factors relating to capacity building, i.e. in as far as the islanders themselves feel a need for, and actively pursue, continuing education.

Massell (2000: 1) conceives of capacity building as the “need to translate high standards and incentives into effective construction”. Human resource is central to this ‘effective construction’ as the actual implementation of any intervention is dependent on people and their skills. Fullan (2005) contends that capacity building is about learning how to act collaboratively so as to bring about a positive change and in so doing, develop mechanisms that are clear in focus and purpose. He suggests that decisions, actions and leadership should be consciously employed to improve and sustain the situation. The AVES Strategy was established to assist in creating a Service that would build capacity on the island. Professional development through work-based skills enhancement is the core activity on offer by the Service; it is only once this is sustained in support of positive economic growth that the Service can be deemed to be successfully building capacity. The sustainability of the Service is dependent on numerous factors that include human resource provision, funding and local support. These are key to the aims of my study which include exploring how the implementation of the AVES curriculum leads to economic growth and longer-term sustainability.

The knowledge and skills of tutors, administrators and managers is an important facet of capacity development (Foley, 2001) and it should not be underestimated. Bowman, Donovan & Burns (2001) suggest that the knowledge and skills of stakeholders are among the most important factors in determining success. Swanson (2003: 207) emphasises the importance of “expertise” in the area of

human resource development and claims that “improvement and change can only really materialise when expertise is available”. Although the AVES has been tasked with developing skills and knowledge to aid economic growth, the problem lies in the lack of availability of human resource. At a management level, the AVES has had to recruit two officers from abroad (my position of AVES Manager being one of those) with funding for these positions received from the AID.

In addition to this technical support, expert trainers are periodically brought to the island at great expense to run training sessions in technical and specialist areas. Washington (2003: 221) extends Swanson’s view of ‘expertise’ and suggests that ‘competence’ is dependent on the expertise of the available workforce. This can be viewed from two dimensions, firstly from the angle of input – the competency of human resource to administer the intervention; and secondly the output – the level of competency in the human resource that has undergone the process (*ibid*). There will, Washington suggests, always be a link between the two. In other words, well-skilled human resource has the potential to produce equally strong human resource. On Cascara, skills migration has occurred over many years with the population declining annually. There is currently a large skills shortage on the island across many sectors and it is for this reason that expatriates with scarce skills are employed at salaries much greater than those offered to Cascarians. Local labour is often allocated to expatriate employees as counterparts and undertake a dedicated training programme that aims to build this capacity. The only issue with this approach is that transient nature of employment on the island does not always guarantee that local employees will remain in post.

Employee selection is crucial when making appointments as it is important that the “right person-job fit” is achieved (Robbins, Judge, Millet & Waters-Marsh, 2008: 369). The selection of relevantly experienced and qualified tutors is important as it aids in securing learner success in courses offered through the AVES. The necessity for drawing on appropriate human resources impacts on the area of financial resource, as the ‘purchasing’ and development of skills and expertise have a cost implication.

Financial resources are central to the sustainability of any innovation as they impact directly on both human and physical resources – without a sustainable budget, human and physical resource will run into short supply and impact negatively on the innovation. In addition to the cost of full time and part time staff as well as additional training experts, there are also the costs associated with materials, equipment, shared government services, buildings and operational overheads. The annual recurrent budget for the AVES in the 2008/09 financial year was US \$489k¹⁷. This budget included all of the costs associated with the running of the Service with US \$106k of this allocated to training. For the 2009/10 financial year, the recurrent annual budget, in line with government right sizing and budget downscaling, was reduced by US \$67.5k to US \$415.5k, with US \$45k being removed from the AVES training budget allocation. This budget reduction was due to overall funding cuts by the AID which they attributed to the world economic situation. This budgetary cut impacted significantly on the provision of the continued training offered by the Service. Monies were also cut from the materials and equipment section of the budget, and while the Service is housed in a government building this restricted the purchase of additional materials and equipment. The absence of adequate financial resources resulted in numerous hardships for educational institutions as it impacts negatively on lack of human resource and teaching materials (Penn & Reagan, 1995). Moffett (2003) cautions that capacity building can also be hindered by certain other factors that interfere with the organisation and the individuals within it. Such factors include building projects, staff turnovers, changes to administration and budget cuts that stall the reform process.

The three capacity building components of human, financial and physical resource need to be carefully balanced to promote effective and relevant learning that will prove to be sustainable over time. Work-based skills development is more likely to become sustainable if there is a commitment by employers to invest in their staff. Such an approach builds trust in the community and has the potential for offering a platform whereby resource utilisation can be

¹⁷ This excludes the AVES AID Development Aid Budget of just over US \$1 million which will come to completion in 2012. Figures sourced from the AVES Budget for the 2008/09 financial year.

more fully maximised. Capacitated and well utilised human resource can also aid community development.

In its broadest sense, community development includes the social and economic well-being as well as the sustainability of communities in relation to their economic and geographic situations. By combining the ideals of ‘community’ and ‘development’, community development theory implies development or advancement through the interaction between people rather than individual activity. Flora & Flora (1993) call this ‘collective agency’ and describe it as a process that is aimed at improving the social, economic and environmental situation of any given community. The notion of community development theory is very relevant in the Cascarian context and highlights the need for AVES stakeholders and decision-makers to consult with community members so as to work together in ensuring that the learning opportunities made available by the AVES will effectively serve, in particular, the economic needs of the island.

Community development learning can also take place outside of the formal AVES Curriculum. Such learning can be achieved when individuals and different organisations meet with each other to share experiences; learn from each other; and develop their skills, knowledge and self-confidence. Community development learning is therefore a developmental process which is both a collective and individual experience. It is based on a commitment to equal partnership between all those involved. Community development has a vital role to play amongst the citizens of Cascara as they prepare for increased economic activity which will be brought about by the air access project. On one hand, they will need to share their knowledge, skills and experiences to cope with the change and increased activity; while on the other hand they might – as a collective – also draw on the skills of visiting contractors, thus developing the capital of the local community.

1.3.2.3. Social Capital in Cascara

Whereas physical capital refers to physical objects and human capital refers to the properties of individuals, social capital refers to connections among individuals – social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness

that arise from them (Putnam 2000: 19). This view of social capital is closely related to the notion of 'civic virtue'; the difference being that social capital suggests that civic virtue is more powerful when it is rooted in a network of reciprocal social relations. Putnam (*ibid*) suggests that "a society of many virtuous but isolated individuals is not necessarily rich in social capital".

In the Cascarian context, the concept of social capital highlights the value of social relations and the role of confidence and co-operation in achieving collective and economic results. The social relations on Cascara are made more complex by the influence of the colonial power: whilst the resident population is relatively consistent, the expatriate community is somewhat transient. Expatriate employees usually hold much of the decision-making power and their appointments range from a couple of weeks to up to three years. The interactions and relationships that exist between Cascarians and the transient expatriate community will therefore continuously reshape the social capital of the island.

Bourdieu (1983) calls social capital a 'neutral resource' but cautions that it can be practically used to produce or reproduce inequality. Bourdieu further demonstrates how, for instance, people can gain access to positions of power through social connections. In the Cascarian context, this is a relevant consideration as the limited population on the island and the even smaller number of people of working age means that family members and social acquaintances will, no doubt, work closely in the workplace. Coleman (1994) takes a more positive view of social capital. He suggests that it is a resource possessed by individuals to an attribute of collectives which focuses on trust and norms as the producers of social capital to the exclusion of networks. To this end, Coleman (*ibid*: 1994: 302) suggests that:

Social capital is defined by its function. It is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities, having two characteristics in common: they all consist of some aspect of a social structure, and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within the structure.

Coleman's definition of social capital suggests that it is non-static, with citizens collectively having some control over it. Putman (2000) suggests that social capital is a key driver in building and maintaining democracy. This claim highlights the importance of social capital in the Cascarian context as the establishment of the AVES and the prospect of the construction of an airport on Cascara indicate a shift by the metropole away from colonial control towards autonomy for the people of Cascara. What will be important is how the transition towards autonomy is managed by democratically elected local leaders and decision-makers. Putman (*ibid*) cautions against declining social capital caused by lower levels of trust in government; lower levels of civic participation; television; and urban development. He argues that influences such as these result in a society that is less 'connected' and lacking in strong social capital. Given the isolation of Cascara as well as the move towards autonomy, a delicate balance will need to be struck in preserving and growing different elements of the social capital of the island. Within the context of change and economic opportunity, the social capital of the island might be best measured, by what Putman (2000) describes as the amount of trust and 'reciprocity' in a community and between individuals.

Beem (1999: 20) argues that "trust between individuals thus becomes trust between strangers and trust of a broad fabric of social institutions". Beem therefore implies that it is this trust that ultimately becomes a shared set of values, virtues and expectations within society as a whole. It would therefore follow that during the period of change and opportunity in relation to the air access project on Cascara, it will be the establishment of trust between a variety of local role-players that will shape or shift the social capital that exists on the island.

The AVES on Cascara has an important role to play in the reinvention of the island's social capital. Not only will it equip local people with skills necessary to capitalise on the economic opportunities that air access will bring, but it could also facilitate the change process and aid in bridging differences (social, cultural and political). Halpern (2009) suggests that there is much evidence to suggest that communities with a good stock of social capital are more likely to benefit from lower crime figures, better health, higher educational achievement, and

better economic growth – these are all, no doubt, indicators that the island of Cascara will aim to achieve once an airport makes the island much more globally accessible.

This extends my discussion to explore learning and work and the role of Cascarian employers in assisting Cascarians to develop themselves and to further their own personal educational goals.

1.3.3. The Relationship between Learning and Work

Training and learning should not end with formal education, but should extend into the world of work. Once in employment, employees enter both formal and informal training sessions that improve their vocational aptitude. Knight & Song (2006) suggest that employees increase their personal productivity and their vocational skills by learning new skills at work. Blau, Ferber & Winkler (2009) suggest two types of on-the-job training, namely, general and industry specific training. General training comprises learning that is easily transferred from one organisation to another; these organisations may even be within totally different industries. Information Technology skills such as, Word Processing is an example of general training interventions. Industry specific learning relates to skills that are not easily transferable to other industries, for example, automotive vehicle maintenance skills. Learning new work skills encourages professional development, which is not only crucial to individuals but also of major benefit to the organisation which employs the workers (Kydd, Crawford & Riches, 2002).

Effective professional development aims to cater for the needs of both the individual and the organisation as a whole. Kisner, Elliot, Foster, Covington, King & Liou (1998) suggest that organisations will only develop if their employees are developed professionally. The findings of Kisner *et al.* particularly addressed my own interest in explaining how a relevant curriculum could develop employees (and self-employed individuals) to the greater economic advantage of the organisations within which they operated. Bassi, Cheney & van Buren (1997: 49) contend that in order to remain competitive, “businesses must see professional development in the form of education training and skills enhancement as an investment”. Professional development has become synonymous with

organisational development and without a concern for professional development, economic advancement is highly unlikely. The challenge for small businesses such as those on Cascara is that training is an expensive undertaking.

In this section I will explore the relationship between learning and work as follows:

- Learning and Work on Cascara Island;
- Employer Demand and the New Global Economy.

1.3.3.1. Learning and Work on Cascara Island

Historically on Cascara, skills have been learnt informally in the workplace and passed from generation to generation in an informal manner. Informal learning is, for the most part, learning that is not done for accreditation. Cross (2006) suggests that over 70% of what we learn in life and at work is learned informally. Informal learning encompasses the incidental acquisition of 'hard' or more technical and work-related skills as well as soft skills which are more social in nature. Soft skills are gradually acquired and refined through life experience and include attributes that can enhance an individual's interactions, job performance and career prospects (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2006). Unlike hard skills which relate to an individual's skill set and ability to perform a certain type of task or activity, soft skills are interpersonal and broadly applicable (*ibid*). Soft skills encompass personality traits such as common sense, optimism and a sense of humour; they also cover abilities that can be practiced and that require the individual to genuinely like other people – these skills include: empathy, teamwork, leadership, communication and good manners (Cross, 2006). Both hard and soft skills can be an important contribution to the success of a business.

In the Cascarian context, it would appear that a shift is taking place towards recognising the importance of investing in employees, as well as Cascarians seeing the advantages of investing in themselves. For instance, the Personnel Department was renamed in 2007 to the Human Resources Department. The name change demonstrates an ideological shift on how government views civil

servants in its employ. Personnel are now seen as invaluable resources. It is of importance to note that this name change came about shortly after the establishment of the AVES as a Service offering opportunities for the people of Cascara to improve both hard and soft skills that will enhance their success in the economic environment. The commitment to increase work-based training opportunities extended not only to the public sector but also to the private sector which now also benefits from subsidised training. Further financial assistance from the Cascara Development Bureau (CDB), has made it possible for more private sector employers to engage their employees in relevant learning opportunities. A joint partnership between the AVES and the CDB has resulted in draft policy which states that the Service, the Bureau and the learner will each be responsible for one third of the training cost.

This draft policy is proving useful in the worthwhile provision of National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) on the island. NVQs are qualifications that demonstrate how learning in the work place is operationalised on Cascara. The advantage of NVQ delivery is that it results in City & Guilds accredited certification which is internationally recognised. As such NVQs are valued and sought after within the business community on the island. NVQs do, however, pose other difficulties in that they require stringent quality assurance measures which then place pressure on staff already over extended in the workplace. NVQ delivery and quality assurance can also be quite costly. Unfortunately, NVQs cannot be offered across all of the island's industries and sectors as quality assurance processes require the sector to have in place a qualified assessor and a qualified verifier who are both occupationally competent. The AVES continually works with City & Guilds to find creative means, within the quality assurance parameters, to expand this accredited means of work-based learning to develop a compromise between the needs of the awarding body, the employee (or candidate) and the employer. AVES does not levy any cost to government employees who partake in these NVQ learning opportunities as the AVES is still a government controlled agency. The issue of variances in learning costs across the private and public sectors has caused much discontent in the private sector where small businesses cannot always afford training costs. Private sector training is further problematic due to the fact that lost working time, results in lost earnings. It is for reasons such as these that private sector representatives will

often decline training opportunities, denying employees the opportunity to develop their work skills and competencies.

Becker (1993: 67) proposes that it should be the responsibility of employees to cover any training-related costs as they take those skills with them when they change employment. Becker (*ibid*) further argues that this practice has always been the case in formal education. This view, in effect, requires trainees to invest in themselves as a form of human capital. Blau *et al.* (2009: 83) concur that employers should not be obliged to cover the cost of general training as they do not always reap the long term benefits of the training. By making a financial investment into the training of their employees – stronger, more positive, relationships between the employer and employee are developed as each invest in the other. Blau *et al.* (*ibid*) contend that this provides the basis for a long-lasting work relationship.

As has been discussed, the private sector on Cascara is relatively small with only about 20% of the island's working population actively engaged in this sector. Due to time constraints, and the impact of the loss of working time on income, the private sector is not yet fully involved in training opportunities offered by the AVES. Private sector companies, with few exceptions, are similarly small and in most cases comprise one or two people. Due to the paucity of the businesses, it became a difficult task to ascertain, as argued by Blau *et al.*, where the responsibility for the costs of training lie. What served the purposes of the island better, was rather to investigate curriculum contents and how the learning opportunities available supported the needs of the public and private sectors. The identified skills needs in respect of the air access project were stated in the AVES Strategy as being mainly in the construction and hospitality sectors. These areas highlight the need for the AVES to offer, through its curriculum, training opportunities in both hard and soft skills. Hard skills include the technical aspects of construction (like welding, carpentry and masonry) and hospitality (like food preparation and laundry). Soft skills are important for businesses that interact with people as social skills are vital to client happiness. I was keen to ascertain if the AVES Curriculum offered courses that taught a balance of these skills.

I also hoped to more fully understand the dynamics and implications of the AVES fees and charging structure. Within the public sector, the government takes responsibility for all training costs and this seems to be echoed within the larger private sector companies. There is considerable up – or sideways mobility of staff between government departments and from time to time across the public/private sector divide. A culture of taking financial responsibility for personal development does, for the most part, not yet seem to be evident on the island. Hlavna (1992: 49) emphasises the importance of businesses and organisations working together with training institutions as the overall results of training benefit society as a whole. This, he suggests, needs to be a constantly reflective process as businesses are always evolving to meet the needs of the market; and training programmes must be adapted to meet those needs.

1.3.3.2. Employer Demand and the New Global Economy

Employer demand is a very complex issue because the needs of employers in different fields of business can be very varied. The needs of the public and private sectors would not necessarily always be the same. This would also be the case across small, medium and large businesses and organisations. The concern then is how an organisation such as the AVES, on Cascara Island, provides a service that satisfies the needs of the economy. There is no easy solution as the limited human, financial and physical resources within the Cascarian context would suggest that in the short term this would not be easily achievable. This highlights the difficulties associated with how the AVES can effectively respond to the training demands of the private sector businesses and local government. The broader issue relates to the level of skill required (or demanded) by the employer. These are what Young & Gamble (2007: 18) call “high skill and low skill”. The present curriculum would suggest that, for the most part, the AVES offers learning opportunities that fall under the definition of ‘low skill’. Such courses include training in basic Information Technology applications. Cascarians who need to undergo technical and/or academic training often leave the island for extended periods of time. During the course of my research, I hoped to understand how relevant training opportunities, of both ‘high skill and low skill’ could be sustainably operationalised to effectively serve the economy. Brown & Keep (1999) refer to numerous studies in which different levels of skills

required by business and organisations were explored. They suggest that while apprenticeships and NVQs to some degree incorporate and support basic education, the demand for key skills (which are also low skills) embedded in these courses were only significant at lower levels of employment. The AVES on Cascara offers the full range of key skills and these are well attended. Wolf (2002: 37) argues that businesses in our times are more concerned with traditional academic skills and she states that:

... the evidence on skills suggests that employers in the brave new 'knowledge economy' are after just those traditional academic skills that schools have always tried to promote. The ability to read and comprehend, write fluently and correctly, and do mathematics appears more important than ever.

Wolf's comments are particularly relevant to the Cascarian context and there is a definite demand for courses in basic numeracy and literacy as well as in English and Mathematic at the Continuing Education (CE) and Further Education (FE) levels. The AVES cannot offer tertiary academic courses, although it does facilitate logistics in this regard wherever possible. In contrast to what Wolf argues, there appears to be a demand from employers on Cascara for the provision of technical and trade related skills.

Sultana (1997) conducted a study of employer demand on the Mediterranean island of Malta. Malta, in comparison to Cascara is bigger in size, with a population of around 400 000 and a more sustainable local economy. Its economy is, however, similar to Cascara in that most of the private sector employers are small, local, family owned businesses. Sultana (1997: 49) found that at the higher skills level, business owners were looking for employees that offered a "package that might include academic credentials, but are particularly anxious to find evidence in their future recruits of such personal qualities as adaptability, a sense of responsibility and a willingness to keep learning". This implies that employers use the basic education of attainment of potential recruits as a kind of "short-hand" (*ibid*: 55) - as an assessment of their character and personality. The Cascarian Government grades civil servants from levels 1 – 8, while heads of departments are graded at either 'super scale 1' or 'super scale 2'. Expatriate workers and a few Cascarians are appointed in what are called

'key posts'. These posts are generally specialist in nature and difficult to fill locally as many Cascarians have not had the opportunity to attend training to acquire the relevant skills. These posts usually offer higher salaries and additional employment benefits. The larger private sector companies offer employment at levels similar to those used within government, although salaries within the private sector may be slightly, but not significantly, better than those on offer in the public sector. Sultana's findings in relation to higher level skills on Malta seem to be evident in the Cascarian context. Within the Cascarian government, higher order skills would probably apply from government grading 4 and up. Cascarian civil servants aspire to gaining higher level skills as higher graded jobs offer better remuneration.

At the lower skills level, Sultana (1997: 48), echoing similar views to those of Plato, suggests that employers require people who are more 'trainable'. He claims that employers want workers with:

... a sound general education, that is in literacy and numeracy, the ability to read and follow simple instructions, convey messages accurately, understand simple diagrams, perform basic calculations and have knowledge of such matters as wages, social security, work books and trade unions.

Sultana's description of what employers want of lower skilled workers does not include a reference to technical or trade skills and these are of particular relevance in the Cascarian context, where private sector employers are eager for both themselves and their employees to acquire technical skills that may secure additional business – particularly in relation to the activities that will come about before, during and after the airport project. Sultana (*ibid*: 40) does however state that:

... employers in this peripheral, post-colonial state [Malta] do not require highly technical advanced abilities from their workers. Many employees in the manufacturing sector, for instance, are involved in what is termed 'screwdriver technology' industries, where high-technology components produced abroad are simply assembled locally

Sultana's point is valid in the Cascarian context in that manufacturing on Cascara is what amounts to 'screwdriver technology' and other technical and trade skills cannot be demonstrated in the fullest sense as the isolation of the island often makes it difficult to use technologies to the maximum. The size of the Cascarian economy and the limited client base also make it necessary for employees to be able to multi-task – this is something that employers will often look for when taking on new recruits.

In the Cascarian context, where human resource is in short supply, it is more likely that employers – within either the public or private sector – will always seek training that meets their specific and immediate needs. Welch & Welch (2010) outline the importance of collaboration between business, government and training institutions as they argue the result is an individual who is adaptable, productive and a contributor to the tax base. To this end, both society and the individual mutually benefit. Such a view is technical in nature. This highlights the need for meaningful relationships to exist between, education, training and the economy.

Welch & Welch (*ibid*) say that economic success is determined by education and training and as such argue for an increase in vocationally related learning opportunities to drive economic improvements. This argument is opposed by those, who advocate that this model is too simplistic and that it is more accurate to see the economy as having an impact in determining how stakeholders participate in education and training initiatives (Wolf, 2002). This view makes the relationship between education and the economy less obvious. It also highlights the complexity of the relationship and demonstrates that economic success is not determined by a link between education and training (Brown & Keep, 1999). It would appear that the Cascarian Government is aligned to the position of Welch and Welch (2010) as the AVES was established primarily to provide vocational and business related learning opportunities that would provide the basis for economic development. It was of interest to me to probe the debates about the relationship between education and training and the economy. I was interested in understanding the degree to which the AVES curriculum was providing a platform for potential economic growth; the relevance of the

curriculum to the needs of the island; and how appropriate learning opportunities could be sustained over time.

Whatever the view adopted it appears that, for the most part, policy-makers and governments are in agreement that education and training should be central to long-term global economic competitiveness. It could be argued that Cascara is not situated in the global economic arena but in light of the economic opportunity that the proposed airport will bring, the island does need to start to view its training provision and its economy as being positioned in the global arena. Castells (2001: 72 - 73) suggests that the global economy is calling for labour that is more flexible and portable. He argues that labour is as much the source of competitiveness and productivity in the new global economy as it has always been. Castells outlines three interrelated characteristics of the new global economy (*ibid*):

1. It is an economy in which levels of productivity and competitiveness are brought about by knowledge and information, which is supported and powered by information technology.
2. It is global, but not in the sense that the whole world has one single economic system, or that jobs are global. It can be described as global because most, if not all, jobs are influenced by what happens in the global core or centre of the economy. However, when it comes to the planning stage, most jobs are still determined by local, regional and national labour markets.
3. It can work as a single unit, in real time. This is true right up to the point of the whole planet operating as a unit. In technological terms, this refers to global telecommunications and informational systems. A result of this fact is that firms and networks in the global economy also have the capacity to organise themselves globally in terms of markets and supplies. At the institutional level, trade deregulation and liberalisation have also opened up the possibility for the economy to operate globally.

Castells argues that value is added to the labour market by what he describes as “self-programmable labour”, meaning “labour which has the built-in capacity to generate value through innovation and information, and that has the ability to reconstruct itself throughout the occupational career” (*ibid*: 74). These are

exactly the type of workers required in the Cascarian context – workers who are not only multi-skilled but who can also demonstrate the ability to be flexible in their working lives. Castells suggests that the content of the curriculum, including those areas that have traditionally been vocational in nature, should comprise a good balance of vocational and academic inputs. An investigation of the curriculum contents, the balance and relevance of learning opportunities on offer were central to my study. The AVES on Cascara is currently implementing programmes associated with the establishment of apprenticeships under the AID Development Aid Project. The elements of an apprenticeship support the notion of a learning programme that incorporates both vocational and academic skills. On one hand, it requires candidates to demonstrate specific work-based competency, while on the other hand, it incorporates components in key skills (encompassing literacy and numeracy) as well as a Vocationally Related Qualification (VRQ) which includes more theory or underpinning knowledge in the relevant field.

The supporting Strategy and Operations Manual published by the Cascarian Government evidences bold steps having been made towards the establishment and development of the AVES that would assist in preparing the people of the island for the changes, challenges and opportunities that air access might bring. My study aimed to investigate how the curriculum on offer would support this change in regards to the development of work-based skills competencies that aided or could aid economic advancements.

1.3.4. Synthesis

The debates raised in this section highlight the need for synergy between approaches to economic development and human capital development. For an economy to be successful, it is imperative that employer demand in relation to skills need is met. Both “high skill and low skill” (Young & Gamble, 2007: 18) training requirements need to be addressed if the economy is going to benefit. This can only be achieved if relevant training needs are clearly identified and human capital is invested in a variety of ways to ensure that skills development and enhancement is achieved. This is best achieved when there is a clear vision of what the curriculum aims to achieve as this will inform its philosophy,

approach and contents. The AVES is one of the vehicles being used by both the AID and the Cascara Government in their efforts to increase the local skills base, so as to aid economic activity on Cascara – with the ultimate aim of alleviating the need for financial aid. The vision is that the AVES will aid public and private sector development – particularly in areas relevant to the economic opportunity that the airport may bring to the island. While the AVES as a vehicle for skills and economic development somewhat contradicts Adam Smith’s (1977) contention that wealth is best improved through individual decision-making with minimal interference and input from the state, it is worthwhile noting that stakeholders across all sectors were consulted in the development of the AVES Strategy. What is important now in the Cascarian context is that economic development theory, whether it be economic base theory, competitive clusters, entrepreneurship, post-secondary and further education or any combination of these, must be carefully considered as Cascara moves towards air access and its related economic opportunity. These prospects will ensure that Cascarians secure their place in the global economy.

If Cascara is to develop its economy as fully as it is envisaged, stakeholders need to begin to see themselves in relation to the global economy and the opportunities for trade that may be open to them. The AVES Strategy of 2005 made attempts to address the wider social and economic needs within the context of imminent change, but for the most part the curriculum does not always present learning opportunities that provide a balance of practical or vocational and academic or theoretical learning. Training interventions, usually, involve theoretical and practical inputs that can then be practiced and trialed once learners return to their workplaces.

As Cascara’s population is small (and declining), the concept of the new global economy (Castells, 2001) is of great significance to the island. The locals are often expected to fill a variety of roles and by virtue of this they possess skills that are flexible and portable. The issue with Cascara is that the skills possessed by the workforce are usually passed informally from generation to generation without certification and/or accreditation. The challenge in the Cascarian context is in finding an accessible and affordable route by which to recognise and formally accredit these skills, in this environment of change and opportunity.

These issues will ultimately be determined by the sustainability of the AVES Curriculum and the Service as a whole. This leads my debate to a contemplation of the wider issues that impact on the sustainability of the curriculum in the unique context of Cascara Island.

1.4. SUSTAINABILITY ISSUES AND INTERNATIONAL LESSONS

In this section, I explore the difficulties associated with the sustainability of the AVES on Cascara. In so doing, I present the following as major factors challenging the sustainability of the AVES Curriculum: local leadership; colonialism; financial dependency; and geographical isolation and insularity. Secondly, I explore how adult and vocational education is approached in five other comparable overseas island territories, namely: the Tokelau Islands (a territory dependent on New Zealand); Montserrat Island and the Falkland Islands (both overseas territories of the United Kingdom); and Norfolk Island and Christmas Island (both Australian territories).

1.4.1. Sustainability in relation to the Curriculum

There are many definitions for the term ‘sustainability’ and it is conceptually difficult to determine because it is defined in many different ways in order to suit different agendas and applications (Hempel, 1999). According to Herremans & Reid (2002) the concept of sustainability and its ensuing system of values can be regarded as three overlapping areas. These values or dimensions are economic values, social values and environmental values. Herremans & Reid (*ibid*: 17) present a model and suggest that “an activity, process, region or project is deemed sustainable if it maintains, supports or carries weight or burden of all three dimensions over the long term”. Within this tri-dimensional body of sustainability, the economic dimension is concerned with material needs, property or anything having an economic value that is measurable in price (*ibid*). The social dimension of sustainability is concerned with groups or communities and encompasses the importance of maintaining and improving human living standards. It should also consider basic needs and high level social and cultural necessities (Brown, Hanson, Liverman & Meredith, 1987). The environmental

dimension is concerned with the integrity, preservation and productivity of functional ecosystems (Herremans & Reid, 2002).

Fien & Trainer (1993) extend Herremans' & Reid's (2002) tri-dimensional model of sustainability and contend that most approaches to sustainability do not consider the possible problems that may arise out of the act of social change, often making assumptions that do not probe the deeper issues that relate to values and ideals embedded in the culture. They suggest that to be truly sustainable, an intervention needs to, at an early stage:

... challenge the assumptions of all positions; imagine, explore and critique alternatives to their own position; question the influence of context and the social interests served by all positions, [and] use the values of ecological sustainability, justice and democracy as criteria in the evaluation of all positions and adopt a reflective scepticism to their own and other people's ideas and actions (Fien & Trainer, 1993: 26).

My study explored the degree to which this was done when the AVES Strategy was developed, as my study goals embraced understanding how an appropriate curriculum could be effectively sustained. Venetoulis (2001: 186) grapples with the concept of sustainability and he presents two different but associated approaches to sustainability: "strong and weak sustainability". Weak sustainability promotes an 'average' stock of capital (human, physical and financial) to future generations. When this form of sustainability prevails, future generations can expect to inherit resources equivalent to the present (Arnold, 2005). Strong sustainability, on the other hand, promotes a higher vision for self-reliance and aims to transmit to future generations resources and practices more superior to the present. It is therefore of interest to ascertain if the curriculum change intervention underway within the AVES was weak or strong in nature. The issue of sustainability on Cascara Island is made more complex by many other issues.

1.4.1.1. The Impact of Local Leadership on Curriculum Implementation

Power and leadership are central to the dynamics on Cascara. They include and extend beyond the relationship between the coloniser and the colonised. In this

section, I will explore the relationships that exist between different stakeholders within local government.

Power is predominantly evident in the form of the control that the metropole government has over the island in relation to political and economic direction and decisions. The execution of power by the coloniser is evident in the fact that the Governor has the right to override decisions made by council, even though council comprises a democratically elected group consisting mostly of Cascarians. Groups such as these councillors and organisations such as the Cascara Government are themselves political arenas, where given the small and isolated context, sensitivities and personalities often result in it being difficult to ascertain who is really in control, and with whom the power really lies. Local organisations within both the public and private sectors comprise “individuals and groups with different values, goals and interests” (Pfeffer, 2003: 47). These values, goals and interests can create conflict over resources such as budgets, scope of responsibility, space allocations and staff. I was keen to ascertain how decisions made in relation to such conflicts impacted on the sustainable delivery of an appropriate AVES curriculum that would aid workforce development so as to complement economic growth. Pfeffer (*ibid*) further contends that the degree to which stakeholders enact or realise their values, goals and interests is essentially about converting their power into action. This in itself is a political act. “Those with good political skills have the ability to use their bases of power effectively” (Vredenburg & Maurer, 1984: 51). Effective use of power, involves dialogue collaboration and the inclusion of all stakeholders.

McClelland (1961) developed a needs achievement theory that identified three basic needs that people develop and acquire from their life experiences. These are achievement, affiliation and power. He claimed that individuals develop a dominant predisposition for any one of the three needs. This predisposition will determine how people interact with peers and associated stakeholders. Further to this initial work, McClelland & Boyatzis (1982) conducted further research that indicated successful leaders had a high power need and lower achievement needs. They suggest that power seems to be the key to achieving success. McClelland & Boyatzis (*ibid*) differentiate between personalised and social power, with personalised power serving individual needs for domination and

socialised power being useful in achieving organisational and group objectives. Deal & Peterson (2009: 72) suggest that the norms and expectations of an organisation comprise “the dynamic social system of complex interrelationships and symbolic webs”. The micro-context on Cascara makes for interesting observation in relation to the needs of achievement, affiliation and power – particularly the prevalence of opposing notions of personalised and social power.

Benne (1952: 235) suggested that the achievement, affiliation and power balances of individuals within an organisation impact on organisational culture and that “the skills of cooperative work should be a vital part of the general education of our people”. Schein (2010) describes organisational culture as a system of beliefs, values and norms that members of an organisation share. Writing before her, Deal & Kennedy (1982: 23) suggested that “culture is an abstraction that is linked to the unconscious side of an organisation”. Firestone & Corbett (1998) extend Deal’s & Kennedy’s notion of culture by suggesting that the subconscious becomes evident through predictable and recurrent behaviour patterns which are known and understood by members of the organisation.

Sergiovanni (2006) advocates that the values, beliefs, perceptions and assumptions that are central to an organisation need to be altered to permit the organisation to shift in thinking and orientation, thus allowing it to develop new paradigms. Serious attention needs to be given to the relationship that exists between stakeholder culture and the intended change. The attitudes, emotions, personalities and emotions of the stakeholders play a critical role in determining the success of the change innovation. These aspects are particularly pertinent to my study because when the Adult and Vocational Education Strategy was developed by the AID funded consultancy in 2005, the centralised provision of adult learning within the government sector (as this is where the staff came from) required that certain training staff within various departments relocate to the newly established AVES under the Education Department. This created many difficulties and challenges. Some staff reluctantly relocated to the AVES, while others protested and stayed within their respective departments. The lack of vital human resource impacted negatively on the provision of learning under the newly formed Service, which as a sub-section of the government needed to create its own sub-culture.

Cunningham & Gresso (1993: 26) define school culture as “an informal understanding of the way we do things around here”. This definition also encompasses wider institutional culture as with examples such as the AVES on Cascara Island. This definition highlights the importance of understanding the operational mode and actions of the organisation by the stakeholders. The hierarchical structure of the organisation has less significance under this definition. This was relevant to my study as I needed to understand how the AVES curriculum was being responded to in its efforts to support local work-based skills development. The response of the public and private sectors to the curriculum would indicate, to some extent, how relevant the curriculum was and this would in turn lead to exploring issues of sustainability.

Sustainability is further determined by the decision makers and how power and control is exercised in the organisational setting. Firestone & Corbett (1998: 334) suggest that the unique conditions within an organisation undergoing change are “critical in determining success”. They further highlight the significance of the individual organisational setting and argue that the process of change cannot be universally applied. Each organisation has a set of institutional characteristics which are for the most part, specific and unique. These characteristics include: staff stability; curriculum articulation, institutional leadership, continuing staff development, support for change, stakeholder relationships, sense of community, clear goals and expectations, teacher demographics and ability to plan with flexibility (Bush, 2010). It was important for the purposes of this study to assess how these impacted on the curriculum as it was being operationalised under the newly formed AVES on Cascara. It is also worthwhile noting that Deal & Kennedy (1982) suggest that learning institutions can be improved when the organisational culture is taken into account. This was relevant to the Cascarian context, as similarly implies that the success and sustainability of the curriculum are highly dependent on the culture of the greater organisation. The ‘organisation’ within my study extended beyond the education department to include other vital stakeholders in both the private and public sectors.

The composition of local stakeholder relationships, the community, local government, the AVES, (the curriculum on offer under it) and the AID are further compounded by the dynamics of control created by the colonial relationship that

the island has with the metropole. This control further informs curriculum content and its sustainability – the central aims of my study.

1.4.1.2. The Impact of Colonialism on Learning Provision

The colonial history of Cascara Island has impacted, not only the wider current socio-economic status but also, on the provision of adult and vocational learning under the Education Department. The establishment of the AVES and the subsequent implementation and acceptance of the curriculum on offer under the Service has its roots in the colonial arrangements between Cascara and the metropole. Kipling (1901: 21) describes colonialism as “... the extension of a nation’s sovereignty over territory and people outside its own boundaries, often to facilitate economic domination over their resources, labour and often markets”.

The term ‘colonialism’ also refers to a philosophy that is used to legitimise or promote the system and sets out to reinforce that the way of life of the coloniser is superior to those of the colonised (*ibid*: 26). “Although colonialism is often used interchangeably with imperialism, the latter is broader as it covers control exercised informally as well as formally” (Fanon, 1961: 32). My research explores the formal control exercised by the colonial power in respect of the curriculum introduced under the AVES and aims to understand how this may benefit economic activity. (It should be noted that Cascara once formed part of the empire of the metropole). The establishment of the AVES has been informed by the AID in relation to air access developments and it is encouraging to note that the vision and mission of the AVES is to move the island towards emancipation. This might be achieved by providing Cascarians with the opportunity to acquire skills that may lead them to become more financially autonomous and independent. In turn, this should effectively reduce the reliance of the island on the metropole, thus benefiting both the Cascarians and the government of the metropole.

The concept of ‘post-colonial’ literature suggests a concern with the culture, economy and politics of a people, nation or country after the departure of the imperial power. The term ‘colonial’ has traditionally referred to the period before independence from the imperial power, but Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin (2002: 42)

suggest that the term post-colonial is best used to “cover all of the culture affected by the imperial process from the moment of colonisation to the present day”. They further suggest that there is a continuity of “preoccupations throughout the historical process initiated by European imperial aggression” (*ibid*) and propose that it is a term that most appropriately labels the new cross-cultural criticism which has emerged in recent years.

Spivak (2008) draws attention to how Eurocentric world views have marginalised and colonised what Giroux (2010; 1992: 104) calls the ‘Other’. In a system she terms ‘neo-colonialism’, Spivak implies a domino effect wherein as the power shifts from the centre to the margin, the margin merely reproduces the colonial model and its related systems. In my study, I needed to explore how the new AVES curriculum was providing the basis for sustainable curriculum delivery and subsequent skills and economic improvements that would shift dependency on the AID towards economic emancipation. Given Spivak’s concerns, it would be imperative that the curriculum truly become that of the island so that it served them in a refreshing manner. Spivak further warns that neo-colonisation can hamper the decolonisation process and highlights the difficulties inherent in conceptualising post-colonial space. In so doing, she also emphasises the importance of pressing forward with the decolonisation agenda:

The political claims that are most urgent in decolonised space are tacitly recognised as coded within the legacy of imperialism: nationhood, constitutionality, citizenship, democracy, even culturalism. Within the historical frame of exploration, colonisation, decolonisation – what is being effectively reclaimed is a series of regulative political concepts, the supposedly authoritative narrative of production of which was written elsewhere, in the social formations of Western Europe (Spivak, 2008: 60).

My reference to the term ‘neo-colonial’ will therefore infer Spivak’s understanding of colonial control – in the island’s case, the control of the metropole, from the first exertion of power by early colonial rulers to the present day. Cascara is a unique island in that it is one of the last remaining dependencies in the world and therefore still under the control of its colonial power. It is hoped, however, that economic opportunity and the availability of relevant and sustainable work-based learning opportunities may eventually lead to the cessation of this dependency.

In the meantime, Cascara remains a colony under the ultimate rule of the metropole. Shujaa (1996: 18) contends that “post-colonialism brings into focus numerous issues for cultures that have undergone a colonial experience”. These issues, he argues, provide a clearer picture about the paradoxes of post-colonialism: Two of these issues relevant to my research are concerned with:

1. The dilemmas of developing a national identity in the wake of colonial rule; and
2. The ways that the knowledge of colonised people has served the interests of colonisers, and how knowledge of subordinate people is produced and used (*ibid*).

The uniqueness of Cascara is further highlighted by the fact that the island was uninhabited when it was discovered. Although the island has developed its own national identity over time – ‘the Cascarians’ – their culture has unceasingly been influenced by and modelled on that of the metropole. To this end, they have not been at liberty to autonomously fully develop their own identity, nor have they had opportunities for learning what would support the ultimate establishment of their own unique identities. My research aimed to explore how the skills development opportunities on offer under the AVES would assist towards emancipation, with a particular focus on how the curriculum supported identity and freedom within the economic realm. Shujaa (*ibid*) highlights that the tactics of the coloniser can often be subtle and discreet and highlights the need for the colonised to be vigilant to the motives of the coloniser. This has impact on my study as the AID have funded the construction of an airport and supporting agencies such as the AVES for longer-term financial reasons. Just under a third of the Cascarians are opposed to the building of the airport¹⁸ and while people are divided in opinion, many would prefer to be free of the control of the metropole as they are often suspicious of the motives of the AID. This might suggest that they want to be free of colonialism.

It is of vital interest and importance, when discussing the impact of an outside body exercising control over a nation, to closely examine how various writers have dealt with such aspects particularly with regard to education. In many

¹⁸ Air Access Referendum, 2002.

cases, colonial control is not only evident as imposing law-enforced structures, but seen to be instilling more pre-cognisant factors such as suspicion, distrust and fear in the nation. Freire (2001) alludes to subtle and discreet motives in the context of education. In his examination of the role of education in oppression and liberation he suggests that education can be used by the government (or for the purposes of my research – the coloniser) as a means to oppress people. Friere’s concern highlights the need for public consultation and input into the curriculum content. I was interested in understanding how local stakeholders were involved in the design of the curriculum under the AVES and how they viewed this selection in light of emancipation towards economic development. Freire (*ibid*: 69) supports the idea of education for emancipation and strongly opposes the notion of education as a practice of domination:

Education as the practice of freedom – as opposed to education as the practice of domination – denies that man [*sic*] is abstract, isolated, independent, and unattached to the world; it also denies that the world exists as a reality apart from men [*sic*]. Authentic reflection considers neither abstract men [*sic*] nor the world without men [*sic*], but men [*sic*] in their relations with the world.

Freire argued that colonial education is in effect a cultural invasion that silences the colonised and imposes the views of the coloniser, thus inhibiting local creativity and expression. This was pertinent to my study as it would be beneficial for me to understand if the curriculum was indeed serving the economic aspirations of the Cascarians for whom it was designed. It was further significant because if the curriculum was not relevant to the people of Cascara, it would be unsustainable and not contribute positively to the economy. It might not then also fulfil another agenda – that of freeing the metropole from some of its financial obligations to the island. Freire contends strongly that dialogue between the coloniser and the colonised needs to be ongoing if education is going to liberate its people (Freire, *ibid*: 150). Bourdieu (2010; 1998: 20) alludes to its complications as:

... by a series of selection operations, the system separates the holders of inherited capital from those who lack it. Differences of aptitude being inseparable from social differences according to inherited capital, the system thus tends to maintain pre-existing social differences.

Bourdieu observed two forms of inherited capital – economic and cultural – and suggested that these are used by the coloniser to maintain and impose existing approaches. He contends that cultural capital is endorsed through education, the choice of content, the methodology and opportunities presented. Bourdieu (2010) also suggests that education and its associated structures are used to maintain power and control and further suggests that the effectiveness of these structures is often highlighted by general societal resistance to change. I sought to ascertain whether there was any form of resistance to the AVES and the curriculum that it offered. Any noted resistance might have signalled that the Cascarians were not fully invested in or convinced of the relevance of the curriculum being offered. Bourdieu further suggest that resistance often perpetuates the colonising ideology. Cope & Kalantzis (1997: 294) warn that the cultural and economic capital of a people should be preserved and respected. They state, “if white men [*sic*] and the old intellectual establishment are disoriented – if they feel they are being told new and uncongenial truths – they are right. The world is changing”.

This statement sends out a very clear message to ‘the coloniser’ that, not only is the world progressing beyond the limits of colonisation but also that all stakeholders should have a voice in any development process. Giroux (2010; 1992: 98 - 99) cites the need for the development of a critical pedagogy that sees the views of all stakeholders and that allows teachers (or colonisers) and students (or the colonised) to think critically about knowledge, how it “is produced and transformed in relation to the construction of societal experiences informed by a particular relationship between self, others, and the larger world” (*ibid*).

Giroux’s (2010; 1992: 99) view of cultural capital accords with that of Bourdieu (2010; 1998) in that he also recognises it as “an object of unquestioning reverence”. Thus, he calls for a new concept of culture that presents as a “set of lived experiences and social practices developed within asymmetrical relations of power” (*ibid*). This notion of cultural capital calls for a challenge to traditional views within colonised contexts and is political in nature. Giroux posits that it is such a view that will begin the process of liberation or decolonisation. This is a

view that I explored within the context of the AVES curriculum and the sustainability thereof. Giroux (1992: 99) further counsels that this process of critical pedagogy begins with the colonised being able to reclaim “their own histories, voices and visions”. This highlights the need for the AVES to incorporate local nuances into the curriculum in order to improve work-based skills so as to aid economic growth and development.

The inclusion of relevant areas in the curriculum is pertinent to AVES on Cascara Island, especially at a time when the island is preparing for, potentially epic, social and economic change. What is needed is a move away from colonialism towards local empowerment and ultimate political autonomy or independence from the metropole. The island is effectively directed and led by a democratically elected Legislative Council but the Governor appointed by the metropole has ultimate autonomy in relation to island decisions. Spivak’s notion of neo-colonisation and ‘the margin’ gives a good indication as to the post-colonial situation on Cascara; this also alludes to the massive opportunity available to the island in the wake of the air access project and its associated economic activities – with the eventual prospect of being more self-efficient and autonomous. It seems, however, that the island will remain for the foreseeable future at least, under the control of the metropole for economic and aid related reasons. It is hoped that air access may encourage the decolonisation process but Cascarians, despite current initiatives like the establishment of the AVES and its associated curriculum, are likely to endure the impact of being marginalised for some time to come. Marginality according to hooks (2008; 2003; 1995: 341) is “much more than a site of deprivation ... it is also a site of radical possibility, a space of resistance It offers the possibility of radical perspectives from which to see and create, to imagine alternatives, new worlds”.

This positive view of marginalisation highlights the hope and prosperity that the AVES curriculum could bring to the people of the island – as long as the learning on offer is relevant, sustainable, skills-based and supports economic growth. hooks further suggests that within the space of marginality, stakeholders and citizens can feel a sense of belonging. Ferguson (1990: 13) argues that there is a difference between marginality and marginalisation. He contends that “... margin and centre can draw their meaning only from each other. Neither can

exist alone”. This is true of the Cascarian context, especially in light of the air access project and the need for local government and the AID to set new parameters as the margin is shifted. hooks (2008; 2003; 1995: 342) recognises the importance of the margin in creating a new narrative and advocates that “by abstaining from silence and refusing to be wounded” the marginalised can initiate change. She proposes that this can be done “[by] sending a message from that space in the margin that is the site of creativity and power, that inclusive space where we recover ourselves, where we move in solidarity to erase the category colonised/coloniser” (*ibid*: 343).

hooks (2008) further suggests that the margin and the centre can form relationships when marginality is recognised and power differentials are sensitively considered. The notion of centre and margin are additionally complex in the Cascarian context because of the issue of financial dependency as ‘centre’ holds the islands purse strings.

1.4.1.3. The Impact of Financial Dependency on Curriculum Provision

Coupled with the influence of colonial control exercised by the metropole is the system of the largely prescriptive funding streams on which the island is dependent. The island relies heavily on the metropole for aid money which it receives from the AID on an annual basis. It is this funding that supports local government, local development and initiatives such as the AVES and its supporting curriculum. As an island colony, Cascara received a recurrent budgetary aid of US \$24.75 million in 2008/09, an increase of US £0.75 million from the 2007/08 financial year. The Cascara Government itself generated revenue of US \$12.3 million in the 2007/08 year and this was largely raised from customs duties and indirect taxes. The recurrent budget covers government salaries and the costs associated with operating each of the government’s 13 departments.

In addition to budgetary aid, the island also receives funding from the AID in another three categories. These include development aid, technical co-operation and the shipping subsidy. Development aid projects are approved by the AID for specific development projects and the Executive Development Officer (EDO)

takes ultimate responsibility for these projects although they are implemented and managed by departmental officers. The AVES Development Aid Project that aims to implement air access related training initiatives is one such project. At the end of each financial year, the Cascara Government Fiscal Service will report on government expenditure to the AID. In hard terms, the technical co-operation budget and the shipping subsidy are not received by the island. The technical co-operation budget covers the costs associated with recruiting short-term consultants and expatriate workers, while the shipping subsidy is negotiated with and paid directly to the responsible shipping company to cover the net loss associated with the running of the ship.

Given current funding and economic statistics, Cascara will continue to remain dependant on the metropole until it is able to raise its own recurrent annual budget. This, in the foreseeable future is highly unlikely, and therefore, the ultimate political decisions of the island will rest with the AID and the government of the metropole. The AVES curriculum was developed to ultimately shift this economic dependence and I was interested in exploring the degree to which skills development opportunities on offer were aiding workforce development towards economic growth. Improvements in economic growth are prompted by using available resources wisely and effectively.

Mintzberg (1982: 24) argues that dependency is increased when “the resources you control are important, scarce and not-substitutable”. Money is a resource that is not substitutable and the spending power of Cascara is dependent on the exchange rates of the countries from where it imports goods and services. Exchange rates and as well as the freight rates of the International Passenger and Freight Shipping Services (IPFSS), the only means of getting freight to and from the island, effectively take the controlling of inflation out of the hands of the Cascara Government. These factors aside, the Cascara Government aims ultimately to achieve financial independence and it is hoped that the airport and its related activities will aid in achieving this. The Cascara Sustainable Development Plan (2007: 6) is very clear on this when it states that the vision for Cascara is “a prosperous, peaceful and democratic society for all achieved through sustainable economic, environmental, and social development leading to a healthy and eventually financially independent [Cascara]”.

The problem with the combination of colonialism and dependency is that it perpetuates white supremacy, it “prepares docile bodies” (Foucault, 1979: 112) and results in a nation of people who lose sight of the meaning and purpose of their lives – in effect they have had their power taken away from them. Foucault (*ibid*: 115) further suggests that “docile bodies [are] subjected, used, transformed and improved”. The problem with the notion of ‘improvement’ is that it is subjective and when viewed from the differing perspectives of the coloniser and the colonised it can take on a very different meaning. The issue of racial supremacy is highlighted on Cascara with the government of the mother-county’s appointment of a Governor (all white males to date) and a Chief Administrator (also all white males to date) who preside over a nation of people who are predominantly of mixed race.

Recent uncertainty about the funding for the airport has re-ignited tensions between Cascarians and the government of the metropole not demonstrated since the citizenship commission of the late 1990s and early 2000s. This extract from an anonymously published ‘advert’ in the Cascara Independent newspaper (17 April 2009: 24) gestures to the brewing tensions:

As many of you already know (but have not been advised to say in public), the [government of the metropole] has treated this island and it’s [Cascarians] as unimportant and third-rate stupid people ever since they took command in 1834. Now they are trying to cheat you and let us down once again. [Cascarians] are not stupid. After 175 years of listening to lies, 2009 is the time not to be scared either. Since 2005 we finally have a free press. Should we let [the AID] bend us up yet again? How many times is enough?

This extract gives a sense of the friction that exists between the colonial power and the dependency – particularly where money and funding are concerned. As the metropole’s government holds the island’s purse strings, the island needs to accept the appointments of various personnel made by the government of the metropole as well as of the many high-level decisions that the AID will make in relation to the island. The problem of financial dependence is further complicated by issues of power and leadership which are prominent at various levels – beyond and within the Cascarian local government. These issues of power and

leadership have not only informed the AVES curriculum but also the response to it.

1.4.1.4. The Impact of Geographical Isolation and Insularity on Curriculum Sustainability

Cascara is one of the most isolated places in the world. Maintaining and sustaining education interventions in mainland contexts can be difficult enough – insularity and isolation pose many additional challenges to the implementation and sustainability of a curricular intervention. The isolated and insular positioning of Cascara Island, with access currently only by ship, impacts on curriculum provision and sustainability. Biagini & Hoyle (1999: 5) suggest that insularity is not a difficult term to define and that the “concept of an *island* is straightforward enough”. Royale (2001) strongly opposes this view, suggesting that the idea of insularity is more comprehensive and problematic. The uniqueness of Cascara makes it difficult to draw comparisons from the literature when contemplating issues associated geographic isolation or insularity.

Insularity impacts on various aspects of the island and its development. Biagini & Hoyle (1999: 6) suggest that there are different types and degrees of insularity. They highlight morphological insularity as creating problems associated with “a land surface [being] entirely surrounded by water”. They also note economic insularity, biological insularity and cultural insularity and argue that insular areas – usually islands, but not always – have a unique economy, culture and biology as a result of their insular position (*ibid*).

Cross & Nutley (1999: 317) draw attention to the “marine barrier” that has to be crossed when accessing an island and highlight that this has a negative economic impact on the island. The negative economic impact is also felt by organisations such as the AVES in the delivery of their services. The costs associated with importing both human and physical resources across the ‘marine barrier’ are greater than those in mainland contexts. To provide high quality training, the AVES also needs to contract suitably and appropriately qualified and skilled tutors, particularly in specialist areas. The geographic isolation makes it very expensive to bring trainers to the island and wherever possible, learning is

often facilitated by personnel who hold other jobs locally. When specialised training is unavailable on the island, Cascarians often leave the island for extended periods, often at great cost, to attend training in the metropole.

Cross & Nutley (*ibid*: 318) further suggest that insularity often “implies dependence on the mainland, and therefore, emphasises the vital importance of external communications”. This suggestion is confirmed by the fact that Cascara is a dependency of a metropole and that strategic decisions are usually informed by both local government and the AID. Cascara has world class telecommunications, in the form of Internet, email and telephones and in many ways, these technologies have brought the island ‘closer’ to the outside world but they come at a high price – this is due to the isolated positioning of the island and the limited client base within a small and declining population. Not taking excessive costs into account, this technology does provide scope for the adoption of appropriate e-learning opportunities that might be sustainable in this isolated and insular context. As an island, the Cascarian nation is very dependent on the metropole for funding as well as on countries geographically closer for food and supplies.

Over and above the costs associated with transporting human and physical resources, the insularity of the island is felt in the form of learning support materials that often arrive late because they fail to connect with the ship and subsequently only arrive when the ship returns a month or more later, thus impeding the learning process. The insularity of the island has also posed difficulties in terms of distance learning and the submitting of written tests and assignments. Computer-based distance learning has helped to ease this problem but difficulties still persist. This is an issue that not even the airport will solve as, for the greater part, freight will continue to come to the island by ship once the airport has been constructed. It is envisaged that air access will mainly carry people and limited food freight to and from the island. It is also hoped that the airport will encourage Cascarians around the world to return home.

Another issue relating to insular islands is that they are inclined to develop a specific type of social relationship which comes about as a result of restricted social contacts and connections, social control, restricted privacy and anonymity

as well as long-term familiarity between people from childhood (Hogenstijn & Middelkoop, 2003). In these societies, social networks are firmly entrenched, “people who leave invariably come back, while those who are not born islanders are never really assimilated into island society” (*ibid*: 10). I was interested in understanding how a relevant and sustainable adult and vocational curriculum could effectively serve the economic needs of the island within the new global economy, while respecting the unique social relationships that exist in an insular context such as Cascara.

Poirine & Moyrand (2001: 22) describe what they term “vertical and horizontal solidarities”. They explain that horizontal solidarity implies an identification with and a loyalty to hierarchical structures, while vertical solidarity implies the same to a group or clan. They suggest that insular societies generally demonstrate vertical solidarity, while mainland countries in the western world are more prone to horizontal solidarity. High levels of social control and an excessive familiarity between people coupled with vertical solidarity result in a number of issues that impact on sustainability. Human resource relationships are one example where these solidarities might be evident. Often these relationships are invariably fraught with issues relating to family connections, past acquaintances and personal agendas. These can create interesting working relationship dynamics and have an impact on organisational culture.

In my efforts to gain deeper insights into issues of sustainability in the provision of adult and vocational learning, it was of interest to align and compare the island of Cascarians with other islands in similar geographic, demographic and economic situations. Thus, I turn my discussion adult and vocational learning approaches in other dependent islands where similar sustainability issues impact on the current and future provision of adult and vocational learning.

1.4.2. International Lessons: Other Island Approaches to Adult and Vocational Education

As already discussed, there are numerous distinctive factors that impact on curricular provision in an island context. Many of these challenges are not

usually experienced in mainland situations as islands are unique contexts.

Baldacchino, (2006: 5) contends that:

An island is for all seasons and for all tastes. An island can be both paradise and prison, both heaven and hell. Any island, any islander is a contradiction between 'here' and 'there', gripped by negotiating the anxious balance between roots and routes like the body, both sustained and yet threatened by incursion. Islands are paradoxical spaces which lend themselves to smug subordination via different discourses.

According to Baldacchino (*ibid*: 3) there are some 550 million people of the world living on islands. This equates to 10% of the world's population, while in terms of the earth's surface area, a mere 1.86% is occupied by islands. Many different and innovative forms of sovereignty tend to include islands, especially small islands such as Cascara and in some instances; these island territories, even if former colonies, have rejected outright political independence. Watts (2000) attributes this to issues relating to the lack of local economy and subsequent financial dependence.

In this section I will provide a brief overview of the approach to adult and vocational education in five other island nations that have sovereign connections to a metropole. These include:

- The Tokelau Islands: a New Zealand territory;
- Montserrat Island: a British territory;
- The Falkland Islands: a British territory;
- Norfolk Island: an Australian territory; and
- Christmas Island: an Australian territory.

Although I have specifically chosen these islands as they are all financial dependencies of a metropole, the Falkland Islands are the only exception in that they do not rely on aid funding. Falkland islanders are able to generate their own revenue through their oil and fishing industries. It should also be noted that Norfolk Island has a thriving economy in the form of tourism – but that in 2010 its economy was looking very unstable.

Learning opportunities on these small islands is dependent on the availability of funding. In these small island states, funding for education is allocated in relation to budgetary funding requirements across all government departments and sectors. I have purposefully selected the islands stated as they offer a good cross-section of innovative, and sometimes questionable, approaches to adult learning in island contexts that share some characteristics with Cascara. It is interesting to note how the different islands approach similar challenges to adult and vocational education, given the restraints of limited human and financial resources. In keeping with my research aims, I will consider adult and vocational education in relation to:

- curriculum provision;
- the workforce and the economy; and
- curriculum sustainability.

1.4.2.1. The Tokelau Islands – a New Zealand Territory

These three island atolls in South Pacific are a New Zealand dependency and have a population estimated at 1700. The population is declining due to limited opportunity for islanders within the education and economic sectors and the Polynesian inhabitants have a subsistence economy, with copra (or coconut kernel) being the main export (Longman Encyclopaedia, 2007: 1063).

Curriculum Provision

Adult and Vocational Education on this island is still very rudimentary and the focus is largely technical in nature. The vocational learning available on the Tokelau Islands falls largely into two target areas. The first are vocational programmes which are made available parallel to the academic programmes on offer at the island's main secondary school; the second target area is focussed on community-based programmes. A variety of programmes relevant to the needs of the Tokelau people are also offered to aid social and economic development. These courses are run through a department at the secondary school and include amongst others: copra production, fishing, vehicle maintenance, construction and craft making.

Workforce and the Economy

According to the Central Intelligence Agency's list of countries by GDP, Tokelau has the smallest economy of any country in the world. As such, adult and vocational education on the island serves the island within its social and economic needs and means. The vocational courses run in copra production, fishing, vehicle maintenance, construction and craft making provide a basic income to local people with some of these products being sold to tourists. For these reasons, it could be argued that the curriculum is empowering and enabling the workforce to aid economic growth – albeit very small.

Curriculum Sustainability

The vocational activities of the island's secondary school are funded by the Tokelau Government which is very much dependent on the New Zealand Government. No revenue is collected from local people. There is virtually no economic activity on the island and the government is almost entirely dependent on subsidies from the New Zealand Government. This lack of funding and limited economic activity makes it very difficult to sustain a curriculum. A large number of Tokelauans live in New Zealand and support their families in Tokelau through remittances. This practice is also common on Cascara. In stark contrast is Montserrat Island in the Caribbean, where there does not appear to be any drive towards financial independence.

1.4.2.2. Montserrat Island – a British Overseas Territory

Montserrat Island is a British overseas territory in the Caribbean Sea. It covers an area of 176km² and has a population estimated at 4500. The island was evacuated in 1997, when a previously dormant volcano erupted. Most of the island's inhabitants have now returned, but this major incident and the destruction of the island's capital town have caused numerous social and economic problems that have impacted on the provisioning of adult learning (Longman Encyclopaedia, 2007: 713).

Curriculum Provision

Until the volcanic activity, post-16 and adult education on the island were made available through two institutions that provided educational support to adult learners. These were the Montserrat Technical College and the School of Continuing Studies of the University of the West Indies. The Technical College offered a full range of fulltime and part time courses and had an affiliation with the Montserrat School of Nursing. The college provided a wide variety of training in the areas of typing, shorthand, office practice, carpentry, masonry, electrical installation and auto-mechanics. The college prospered over the years and it provided local certification as well as certification by several overseas examination bodies for learning opportunities that it had on offer (DfID, 2000).

At the time of the volcano evacuation, there had been plans to upgrade the Montserrat Technical College to the Montserrat Community College. It was envisaged that a multi-purpose workshop that would be incorporated into the college system would be used to accommodate training in the areas of appliance repair, radio & television repair, auto-body repair & painting, auto-electrical repair, refrigeration, air conditioning and plumbing.

Unfortunately, the increased volcanic activity and the severe depopulation of Montserrat resulted in the closure of the college because it was no longer feasible to operate (DfID, 2000). As a result of this, islanders have access to a variety of programmes through the University of the West Indies School of Continuing Studies. Learning opportunities through the university are offered in formal academic classes and professional courses, while occasional courses and courses in the secondary sector are offered locally. The main focus of formal learning within the area of adult learning has been on the development of distance education. Through a teleconferencing facility, students have the opportunity to study certificates and degrees such as Public Administration, Business Administration, Bachelor of Law and the Bachelor of Social Sciences. These courses are cost effective and contribute to the island's human resources development (UNESCO, 2009).

Workforce and the Economy

In addition to the academic learning opportunities on offer on Montserrat, islanders also have the opportunity to take part in professional or vocationally related courses that include Health, Counselling, Parenting, Nutrition and Reproductive Health. For the most part, the professional courses aim to foster community development and to provide community members with professional skills. Islanders also have at their disposal a range of occasional courses which are locally led. Certificates of attendance are usually awarded for these courses and courses available include: Care of the Elderly, Organisational Leadership, Aids Counselling, Public Speaking, Caribbean Studies, a Taxi Drivers Course, Introduction to Computers and Accounting for small businesses. At the secondary level, there are limited vocational opportunities on offer; these include Food Technology and Technical Studies. Local courses are mostly academic in nature as they assist learners with gaining access to tertiary level courses (*ibid*). These professional or vocationally related learning opportunities provide the potential for skills development that could support economic development but for the most part they support, as has been the case with Cascara, skills development to support social and government services. Private sector skills development is relatively limited as the private sector is very small. The island is totally aid reliant on the metropole with no expected prospect of this changing. Montserrat does have the luxury of air access, albeit on a neighbouring island with access to the island by a twenty minute sea ferry.

Curriculum Sustainability

Given the history of the island, the recent volcanic activity and the lack of economic activity, it is highly unlikely that the island will, for the foreseeable future, be able to sustain adult and vocational learning opportunities without budgetary aid from the metropole. Montserrat, does however, also provide public education in three forms; these include public lectures, radio discussions and a newspaper column by the resident tutor. These interventions appear to be sustainable as long as the local press is available. On Cascara, there are two local media organisations, (one government funded and one independent), each

with their own radio station and weekly newspaper. These, it would seem, are sustainable educational media that the AVES could tap into.

1.4.2.3. Falkland Islands – a British Overseas Territory

The Falkland Islands are a non-governing territory of the United Kingdom in the South Atlantic Ocean. They comprise two large islands and up to 200 small ones, covering a total area of 12 00km². The islands have a population estimated at 2200 with a thriving economy dependent mostly on oil rigging, but also on fishing and cattle farming (Longman Encyclopaedia, 2007: 364).

Curriculum Provision

The Falkland Islands have a firm provision of adult and vocational education learning. The Training Service on the island is not too different to the service structure outlined in the Strategy of the Cascarian Adult and Vocational Education Service. The island's Training Service is headed by a Training and Development Manager who oversees the activities of the Service.

The Training Centre on the island is a City & Guilds approved centre and offers apprenticeships, NVQs and VRQs. Currently, apprenticeships are offered in Carpentry, Electrical, Plumbing, Travel & Tourism, Catering, Painting & Decorating, Mechanics and Childcare with one candidate completing an apprenticeship in Aviation Engineering in Canada. NVQs are offered in Business and Administration, Customer Service, Teaching Assistants, Travel & Tourism, Learning and Development, Health and Social Care, Hospitality and Child Care Learning and Development. The centre is a European Computer Drivers License (ECDL) accredited test centre and is also approved to offer Construction Skills' International Online Health and Safety (IOSH) test and computer-based examinations for the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA). These courses are co-ordinated by an apprenticeship scheme co-ordinator and a quality assurance co-ordinator for the overseas NVQS.

Workforce and the Economy

The contents of the curriculum would appear to clearly aim at developing the workforce to complement the Falkland's thriving economy, particularly in oil rigging, fishing and cattle farming industries. Other training on offer also supports the business and administrative processes and functions involved with these export industries as well as skills required to operate and support local government. In addition to this, a Training Advice and Placement Officer, with the assistance of local trainers, oversees the locally run training courses that include: teamwork, effective letter and report writing, train-the-trainer, minute taking, coaching and mentoring, Photoshop, Microsoft Excel, Microsoft Word, computers for beginners, presentation skills and food hygiene. Further to this, the training centre runs an Employment Programme and an Entry-to-Employment scheme for young school leavers and people trying to enter the world of work.

Curriculum Sustainability

As the Falkland Islands has a thriving economy, and are economically self-sufficient, with a national budget that allocated US\$8 million (or 8%) in 2009/10 tax year to education and training (Falkland Island Government, 2009) it would appear that the curriculum is sustainable. The issue of sustainability is further reinforced by the relevance of the learning opportunities on offer and is supported by the fact that the experienced and qualified trainers are usually available on the island. As is the case on Cascara, the costs associated with external verification visits by awarding bodies remains substantial. The Falkland Islands do, however, have the luxury of an airport which assists in reducing these costs.

1.4.2.4. Norfolk Island – an Australian Territory

Norfolk Island is an external territory of Australia and is situated in the South Pacific Ocean 1700km north east of Sydney. The island has an area of 40km² with a population estimated at 2500 (Longman Encyclopaedia, 2007: 760).

Curriculum Provision

Within the secondary sector, a limited number of technical and further education subjects are available through the school. Currently available are a certificate in Information Technology and units in Hospitality. Norfolk Island also offers distance learning opportunities to learners wishing to take up technical and further education. In addition to this, Information Technology classes have been introduced to community members through the school (Magri & Pedel: 2003).

On the whole, Norfolk Islanders have limited access to adult and vocational learning opportunities. Magri & Pedel (*ibid*) suggest that the government needs to provide islanders with access to correspondence courses conducted by technical and further education institutions or universities. The government should, they suggest, start to work on a strategy that provides on-island training facilities that make technical and vocational learning as well as other industry related accreditations available. The Norfolk Island Government also provides a vocational education and training scholarship to assist with the cost of travel to the mainland for study purposes. These scholarships are, however, relatively small and are not designed to cover the full costs of relocation and study. Magri & Pedel (*ibid*) also suggest that Information Technology training be made more widely available through community and professional outreach programmes. To achieve this, they recommend that a teacher at the Norfolk Island School be charged with the co-ordination of a vocational development programme and that a careers adviser be appointed to facilitate learning opportunities locally and on the mainland.

Workforce and the Economy

Apprenticeships are available on the island, but there is no funding available and the full cost of the apprenticeship must be carried by the employer. This is difficult for employers who claim to work within very tight budget parameters. Apprentices can complete the practical component of their apprenticeship on the island but need to travel to the mainland to complete their technical studies. This has huge financial implications for the young students and their families who finance the majority of these expenses. Apprenticeships available include

Hospitality & Catering, Travel & Tourism, Construction and Auto-motive Vehicle Maintenance. These are similar to the provision of apprenticeships on Cascara Island. This similarity in apprenticeship provision makes for interesting observation as Norfolk Island, like the vision for Cascara, has an economy built on tourism and its associated developments – which foremostly include hospitality and construction.

Norfolk Island, unfortunately, finds itself in a difficult situation as a dependent island as it is unable to access opportunities on the mainland and provision has not been made for learning opportunities to be available on the island. The island does not have the financial resources to provide these learning opportunities. The Commonwealth Grant Commission's Report of 2005 identifies the problem of the lack of vocational education offered on Norfolk Island and highlights how this impacts negatively on skills development opportunities available to the economic sector:

The provision of government funded vocational education and training services, other than Norfolk Island based apprenticeships, is below that offered in remote areas of the mainland. This is resulting in an under trained workforce and is a threat to the long term viability of the island (Commonwealth Grant Commission's Report, 2005: 83).

The plight of Norfolk Island is not a unique one. The people of overseas territories often do not have access to learning opportunities equivalent to their mainland counterparts.

Curriculum Sustainability

There is relatively limited access to publicly funded vocational education and training or apprenticeship schemes on Norfolk Island. The Norfolk Island Government, despite a lucrative tourism industry, has a limited revenue base and the increasing costs of delivering services has meant that the government must direct scarce funds into areas such as health and welfare and primary and secondary education. It was of particular interest to note that a thriving economy

does not necessarily preclude sustaining education and developmental opportunities in island contexts.

A further problem that impacts on the provision of vocational education courses on Norfolk Island is the availability of suitably qualified and experienced teachers. Teachers and tutors need to be accredited to teach these courses and qualified teachers are not always available on the island. Restrictive funding does not always allow for suitably qualified teachers to be recruited from the mainland or abroad, as is also the case on Cascara Island.

1.4.2.5. Christmas Island – an Australian Territory

Christmas Island, like Norfolk Island, is an external territory of Australia. Christmas Island covers an area of 155km² and is situated in the Indian Ocean 2600km north east of Perth with a population estimated at 2100 (Longman Encyclopaedia, 2007: 218).

Curriculum Provision

There is one learning campus on Christmas Island that caters to the needs of adult and vocational learners. The Christmas Island District High School can accommodate 400 students in total. As Christmas Island can only offer limited training opportunities to its people, many of the islanders need to go to the mainland to engage in further education, vocational training programmes and other specialised training (Foo, 2003). The costs of mainland education are too prohibitive and as a result many potential candidates are not able to access adult and vocational learning opportunities. Foo (*ibid*: 28) cites travel agency training and courses in hospitality “as priorities for Christmas Island as these are vocations that could actively support the tourism trade”. Christmas Island is a member of the Indian Ocean Group Training Association and as such it can access limited distance learning opportunities through this organisation. These include: hospitality, tourism and basic business courses. As on Cascara, there is also the opportunity for candidates to complete a teaching qualification that is locally offered.

Workforce and the Economy

The economic situation of Christmas Island does not differ too widely from that of Cascara – both countries are totally financially dependent on their mother-countries. Christmas Island does boast an airport but the tourism industry and the larger economy are small and also financially supported by aid funding. In 2001, the Western Australian Department of Training provided additional funding in the area of vocational education and training in order “to maximise employment related training opportunities for apprenticeships and trainees of the Commonwealth-contracted Indian Ocean Group Training Association” (Australian Department of Transport and Regional Services, 2002: 79). To this end, training opportunities are now available in Health Care, Tourism and Information Technology, but there is a marked absence of any apprenticeships in basic trades like carpentry, construction, plumbing, electrical installation and automotive vehicle maintenance (Thomson, 2003). For the economy to grow and for the island to move towards becoming more financially independent, training in these trades will need to become a priority on the island (*ibid*).

Curriculum Sustainability

The biggest concern on Christmas Island, as with Cascara, is that the skills base lies mostly with the older generation who are nearing retirement. Many skills have been lost over time and the lack of opportunity for more formalised learning means that both the industry and the people of the island will feel the impact associated with vast gaps in training provision. This human resource issue is further hindered by the lack of sufficient funds to support and develop adult and vocational training that could aid economic advancements.

1.4.3. Synthesis

The geographic insularity of Cascara also impacts significantly on the provision of learning in a variety of complex ways. The insularity of the island, as with most insular islands, has created a unique social environment which itself needs to be contemplated in the development of a local curriculum. A credible and viable curriculum needs to be sympathetic to both the social and economic needs of the

environment it aims to serve. It is, however, also important to see the local curriculum in the context of international trends and accreditations, so that local people do not perceive to be receiving an inferior training option. It is factors such as these that will ultimately determine whether a curriculum will be sustainable or not. In the Cascarian context, the Adult and Vocational Education Strategy has carefully laid down a framework that aims to serve the island with a sustainable and relevant curriculum. It appears to a limited extent, that the social, political and economic impacts have been considered in the design of the curriculum.

The sustainability of a curriculum is, unfortunately, not only dependent on the factors outlined above. Curriculum sustainability is also largely dependent on the availability of the vital resources needed to maintain the constant and consistent delivery of the curriculum. These resources include human, financial and physical resources. In the Cascarian context the availability of financial resource remains the biggest challenge as it is this resource which determines the extent of both human and physical resources. The extent of funds available will determine the degree to which relevant resources will be made available. Cascara relies on aid money from the government of the metropole and this funding needs to be used prudently and cautiously to ensure that all of the government's 13 departments can function effectively. Although the AID has provided additional funding for the initial development of the AVES, the recurrent budget does not provide scope for the Service to grow substantially in the depth and breadth of the courses that it offers. This in itself raises issues about sustainability. In a large percentage of the population, there is great anticipation and hope in the airport project. An extract from an open letter published in the independent press highlights this:

Let's move away from surviving on handouts and build a solid legacy for our children. We will not prosper if we continue relying on [the AID]. Our local government will remain the largest employer, where wages will not increase because of the [AID's] budget constraints. We need to get these employees out into a growing and vibrant private sector. An airport is the best solution to help us accomplish this. Apart from its great tourism potential, it would provide other

avenues of development and income generation (Benjamin¹⁹, in The Cascara Independent Newspaper, 1 May 2009: 2).

If the economy of Cascara is truly going to flourish under the impetus and opportunities that air access proposes to bring, the people of the island will need to be presented with learning and training opportunities to equal those challenges. It is clear that local capacity-building must then be a priority. Unfortunately, the quality and scope of these training interventions will always be determined by the availability of limited funding, hindering access to learning opportunities. In addressing this concern, Cascarians can learn from the invaluable lessons learnt in other island nations as it strives to offer a solid and broad base of learning opportunity to its people. Whether these lessons be the need to focus learning opportunities on island specific activities as is the case on the Tokelau Islands; to offer distance learning opportunities as prevails on Montserrat; to share ideas, approaches and resources with similar structures as on the Falkland Islands; or to learn from the challenges faced by the Australian territories of Norfolk Island and Christmas Island – Cascara has a wealth of international practice to draw on.

1.5. STATEMENT OF CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

My conceptual framework is located in critical theory that seeks to “to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them” (Horkheimer, 1982: 244). Critical theory does not provide the means to achieve predetermined goals, but rather, it seeks to emancipate human beings. To achieve a predetermined end, the approach which supports the outcomes being aimed for needs to be continuously altered. This is praxis, where there is a continual interplay between the ends and the means. Horkheimer (*ibid*) states that critical theory is only adequate if it meets three criteria: “it must be explanatory, practical and normative” – all at the same time. In doing this, it must explain what is wrong with current social reality and identify the stakeholders that can change it. Critical theory therefore provides clear norms for criticism and practical goals that will achieve social transformation.

¹⁹ This is a pseudonym.

Within the scaffolding of critical theory, my conceptual framework is also based in critical andragogy which strives to understand learning in adults. It recognises that the learning needs of adults are different to their child counterparts and that adults often have specific motives for engaging in learning.

Within the colonial and isolated context of Cascara, my conceptual framework extends to encompass the emancipatory effects of a curriculum on the economy. Thus, recognising how an upskilled workforce will alter the *status quo* and shift the power differential on the island as citizens of Cascara move towards personal and national economic advancement.

Within the change context of Cascara, I consider critical theory, adult learning, curriculum and economy in relation to sustainability and change. The airport project on Cascara promises to bring about change (at varying levels). To ensure a positive, long-term and sustainable difference, the AVES needs to carefully utilise the human, physical and financial resource, as well as the social and cultural capital that is available on the island.

1.6. CONCLUSION

The provision of adult learning is central to workforce development within both the public and private sectors, not only in the development of island nations such as Cascara, but also in respect of economic development *per se*. In addressing workforce development, it is imperative that the approach to learning is one that recognises how and why adults learn and as such an appropriate approach to learning needs to be identified and employed.

The provision of adult learning in the current Cascarian climate has come about as a result of the anticipated economic and social change that air access will bring to the island. It is, therefore, important that the curriculum and its development be viewed as a dynamic process which is ultimately determined by the winds of social, political and economic change. In the context of impending change, it needs to be recognised that organisational culture is critical in determining the success and direction that the innovation will take. The

organisational culture will be determined by the curriculum stakeholders across various levels; these stakeholders all need to be central to the curricular change process at the point of need, mobilisation, implementation and institutionalisation. It is, after all, the stakeholders who will determine the success of the intervention.

Stakeholders will view the curriculum change innovation from their personal perspectives, identifying how the curriculum on offer will benefit their personal growth and enhance their opportunities for economic advancement. The literature suggests that for a curriculum change to be successful, it needs to serve the 'new global economy'. This notion of economy views learners as a resource in the form of human capital and suggests that learning programmes need to work towards employer demand and probe how such learning will work towards greater personal and economic development. As Cascara moves towards a higher degree of autonomy and emancipation, it is important that the curriculum also provides personal and individual learning opportunities, where learning for the sake of learning takes precedence.

Management and decision-makers within the Cascara Government and the AID clearly have a vision for the island in that they are providing funding that will pave the way for improved adult learning provision. It could be argued that the move towards skills development – and ultimately economic development – is strategic on the part of the Cascarian Government and the AID in as far as they are not only encouraging private sector development but also attempting to move the island and its people away from financial dependency.

Research has shown that even with the introduction of an international airport, it is highly unlikely that Cascara will achieve financial independence in the foreseeable future and remain a dependent colony for some time to come. In the wake of the impending economic, political and social opportunity it is important for Cascarians to create a decolonising narrative that will aid the transition towards independence. To aid in achieve this, Ferguson (1990: 14) suggests that the colonised “must simultaneously negotiate the crude classifications which are imposed upon [them] and create [their] own identities out of the twisted skeins of [their] backgrounds, families and environments”. Bhabha (1994: 72) defines the

unravelling of these skeins as “interstitial moments” and contends that “it is in the emergence of the interstices – the overlap and displacement of domains of difference – that the intersubjective and collective experiences of nationness, community interest, or cultural value are negotiated” (*ibid*).

At this time when the airport has shown itself to be a feasible and realisable prospect, the possibilities for the social, economic and educational advancement of the islanders are vast. They present themselves at a time when Cascarians can recall their past, not so much as to entrench their historical narrative, but to interpret the present, “creating an in-between space that facilitates the creation of a new narrative” (*ibid*) and a future full of opportunity and prospect. The AVES on Cascara has been designed as a mechanism to support Cascarians in moving towards this ‘narrative’. What remains to be assessed is the degree to which the AVES is achieving its mission of providing:

... [Cascara] with an appropriately skilled and qualified workforce able to meet its future needs in relation to growth and sustainability by defining and meeting the changing training/learning needs of the individual organisations and enterprises of [Cascara] through an efficient, cost effective, professionally managed and centrally coordinated Adult and Vocational Education Service (Brookes, 2005: 5).

This assessment also needs to extend to assisting the AVES in developing both Cascarians as individuals and the island as a whole. This is particularly important and relevant as the island prepares for air access and its related economic enterprises.

Having surveyed the central theoretical and conceptual issues that frame the provision of adult and vocational education on an isolated, dependent island; I now provide an account of the research methodology I employed in my attempts to explore the main research question and to address the aims of my study.