

Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes

By

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I Noah Kenny Sichula declare that this thesis, which I hereby submit for the degree Philosophiae Doctor in Adult and Community Education and Training at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other tertiary institution.

Signature

.....

Date: 23rd May 2018

ETHICS CERTIFICATE



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RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

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A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Bronwynne Swarts'.

CC Ms Bronwynne Swarts
Dr Gerhard Genis

This Ethics Clearance Certificate should be read in conjunction with the Integrated Declaration Form (D08) which specifies details regarding:

- Compliance with approved research protocol,
- No significant changes,
- Informed consent/assent,
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ABSTRACT

Research in education suggests that pedagogy is crucial for both improving and achieving the desired learning outcomes. This means that the success of a learning programme involves the appropriate selection and application of pedagogical approaches, methods and strategies. However, the literature on adult literacy-learning has neglected research on pedagogy in general. Many studies have focused on the pedagogy for children's literacy - learning, thereby leaving knowledge gaps on pedagogy for adult literacy-learning. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to use the Literacy as Social Practice (LSP) and adult learning as Experiential Learning (EL) theories to explore and understand the pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.

This study was conducted in the Katete District of Zambia and sought to answer two research questions, which were: How are pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes? Why are these pedagogical practices used? The two research sites included the following adult literacy-learning providers: the government Department of Community Development and an NGO called Tikondane. The research participants included the adult literacy-learning centre managers, the adult literacy-learning facilitators and the adult learners. All these participants were selected purposively and their participation was voluntary. Data were collected qualitatively through face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, classroom observations and documents.

The conclusion of this study is that the pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District are based on two major practices. The first practice is the participants' conceptualisation of adult literacy which is influenced by their perception of the adult learner. The second practice is the use of pedagogical approaches, methods and strategies in adult literacy classes. The study revealed that adult literacy was narrowly conceptualised as the acquisition of reading and writing skills for the purpose of eliminating illiteracy and ignorance among the adult learners. This was influenced by the manner in which facilitators perceived the adult learner, whom they narrowly and discriminatively viewed as an illiterate and ignorant person. In terms of pedagogy, the study found that learner-centred pedagogical practices have not fully permeated the practice of adult literacy-learning in the Katete District. The teacher-centred manner in which expository and evaluatory pedagogical methods and strategies were used was inappropriate for meeting the learning goals of the adult learners. This was an indication of the facilitators' lack of both Content Knowledge (CK) and Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) in adult literacy-

learning pedagogy. The facilitators admitted to this gap in their pedagogical knowledge. This lack of knowledge implied that the untrained facilitators were assigned pedagogical tasks that they could not cope with. Therefore, it is recommended in this study that professional development should be provided to the facilitators to improve their practice so that their pedagogy evolves into an eclectic approach rather than decontextualised teacher-centred practices.

Key words: Literacy, pedagogy, pedagogical practices, non-formal learning, adult literacy-learning, social practice and experiential learning.



21 May 2018

Declaration – Language editing

To Whom It May Concern

This is to confirm that Dr Gerhard Genis (staff number: 91321124) edited the language in the thesis, *Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes*. I am also the supervisor for this study.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Genis'.

Dr Gerhard Genis

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my mother, Mrs Naomi Ngama Sichula and late father, Mr Ellie Sichula. Their prayers, encouragement and support towards my education have been a strong driving force. They always believed that despite the challenges we went through as a family God was going to provide a way for me regarding my career. To my father, I know you cannot hear these words, but may the Lord delight in your fervent prayers and labour for his Kingdom and for us your children: Noah, Nebert and Evelyn. May your soul rejoice in the presence of the almighty God.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCING AND CONTEXTUALISING THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to a qualitative case study in which I explored pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District in Zambia. Pedagogical practices in this study refer to all educational decisions and actions taken by the adult literacy facilitators to support adult learners in their efforts to improve their literacy practices. It also includes the pedagogical methods and materials used in non-formal adult literacy classes. The aim of this study was to explore pedagogical practices in relation to the expectations of non-formal adult learning (NFAL) pedagogy and Literacy as Social Practice theory (LSP). The chapter highlights the changing global context of both literacy and pedagogy in the 21st century, and its implications for both the provision and pedagogy of adult literacy learning in Zambia. In addition, the chapter provided the location of the study, the historical overview of non-formal adult literacy-learning in Zambia, and the training of adult literacy educators. Furthermore, the chapter explains the rationale and motivation for exploring pedagogical practices as a response to the existing knowledge gaps on pedagogy in adult literacy-learning. It also includes the research questions of the study, purpose and focus, and the clarification of key concepts used in this study. Lastly, the chapter gives an overview of the research design and methodology, the organisation of the thesis and the conclusion of the chapter.

1.2 Background and context of the study

The challenge faced by many adult literacy-learning programmes (ALLP) in the 21st century is to remain relevant to the ever-changing global environment of literacy. In general, literacy is regarded as an important tool for the holistic development of individuals and nations (Hanemann & Scarpino, 2016), as well as an essential component for the betterment of society through lifelong learning (Benavot, 2015; Hanemann, 2015). The literature shows that this view of literacy and adult literacy as important tools for national development is not new. It has been held since the 1940s, and, since then, adult literacy has been on both the global developmental and educational agenda (Aitchison, 2005; Alidou & Glanz, 2015; Benavot, 2015; Bhola, 1995; Rogers, 1999; UNESCO, 2013a).

Significantly, within the foregoing recognition of the importance of adult literacy, it has been claimed in the literature that the acquisition of adult literacy skills leads to human development

specifically with regards to improved health practices and poverty alleviation among those labelled as 'illiterates' (Robinson-Pant, 2016; Unesco Institute for Statistics, 2013). However, there is inadequate evidence in the literature that I reviewed for this study to support this claim, and there is no clear consensus among scholars and development specialists on what comes first in national development: human development or literacy skills (Rogers, 1999; Street, 2006; UNESCO, 1999). The focus of adult learning in developing countries has largely been to teach literacy skills to young adults and adults who are labelled as 'illiterates' (Resnick & Resnick, 1977; Rogers & Street, 2012; UNESCO, 2013b). This skills-based notion of literacy has globally influenced the provision of adult literacy-learning. Importantly, adult literacy-learning has had various proposed outcomes that have been influenced by different sociocultural contexts, and which have influenced its pedagogy.

For example, in the 1970s and 1980s, the educational ideology of Paulo Freire compelled adult educators in developing countries to rethink their pedagogical practices for adult literacy-learning (Freire & da Veiga Coutinho, 1970). Freire argued that literacy is ingrained with power and those who are privileged to hold power have used literacy to oppress others. He associated adult literacy-learning with the political freedom of the marginalised people in society. Based on this thinking, adult literacy-learning programmes in developing countries were largely designed for the purpose of human liberation. Freire argued that the traditional pedagogy for adult literacy was not helping to emancipate the people from social, economic and political forms of oppression. Based on this, Freire (1993) and Freire and Macedo (2005) emphasised the need to teach adults not only to read a 'text' but also to enable them to change their 'reality' through critical reading. Freire argued that the political, social, economic and religious elements in any environment have the power to either oppress or liberate the people. Therefore, in order to achieve human liberation through adult literacy-learning, critical pedagogy was proposed because it focuses on raising the consciousness of the people regarding the oppressive forces in their sociocultural contexts.

Through critical pedagogy, teaching literacy practices to adults entails enhancing their knowledge and understanding of the text that they are confronted with. Text in this context refers to both the written and spoken word. Critical pedagogy asserts that when people engage with text they are essentially interfacing with real-life situations. Text is never neutral, as it always has a context through which the meaning of the text is deduced. Critical pedagogy endeavours to raise the consciousness of the adult learners in their respective environments. Subsequently, the influence of critical pedagogy on human liberation captured the interest of some social justice groups such as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), trade unions

and religious groups particularly in developing countries which were under colonial rule (Dighe, 2006; Omolewa, 2008;). This resulted in the emergence of mass literacy campaigns in some countries in Latin America and parts of Asia and Africa, which include Nicaragua, Cuba, India, Nigeria, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Zambia to mention a few (Bhola, 1995; Nyirenda, 1996; Omolewa, 2008).

After critical pedagogy, feminist pedagogy emerged in the 1980s as an education approach, which also functions within the context of human liberation and focuses on adult literacy from a gender perspective. It emerged on the basis that critical pedagogy focused on political and other sources of human oppression, and overlooked the oppressive elements ingrained in gender. Similar to critical pedagogy, feminist pedagogy uses adult literacy to emancipate those voices that have been silenced on the basis of discrimination and, in the latter's case, of gender (Dighe, 2006). Although most adult literacy-learning programmes cannot be divorced from gender-related issues, there is inadequate information in the literature on the use of feminist pedagogy in modern adult literacy-learning programmes, particularly in developing countries. The existing literature shows that feminist pedagogy is more pronounced among NGOs working in transformative adult learning, whose focus is on gender and human rights than those involved in literacy learning programmes (Manicom & Walters, 2012; Mayo, 2016; Rogers, 1997).

Other pedagogical approaches relevant to adult literacy-learning are participatory and experience-based pedagogies. Participatory approaches include Participatory Research (PR) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), which are also rarely mentioned in contemporary literature on teaching in adult literacy-learning (Campbell & Burnaby, 2001; Dale & Hyslop-Margison, 2010). The emphasis in both PR and PRA approaches is on adult learners who are faced with a particular problem that is being studied. During its implementation, adult learners are expected to become co-researchers and collaborate in making decisions on what should be studied and how the results should be used. This approach should by nature be situated in a context (Campbell & Burnaby, 2001; Dighe, 2006). Aligned to this approach is experience-based pedagogy that is central to adult literacy-learning. In this pedagogy, the emphasis is on adult literacy-learning which is based on the experiences of adult learners as a starting point for new learning. Therefore, this pedagogy is also aligned to context, and the current global context of adult literacy.

In the 21st century, the context of adult literacy-learning and pedagogy has changed (Adjapong & Emdin, 2015; Benavot, 2015; Robinson-Pant, 2016). Adult literacy has been identified as

an important part of the communication processes that constantly take place in our daily lives regardless of political, economic and social status (Benavot, 2015; Rogers & Horrocks, 2010; Rogers & Street, 2012). In support of this, Rogers (1999) indicates that these communication processes consist of oral, text and visual elements which enable us to interact over time through different tools. This entails that adult literacy-learning should no longer over-emphasise the assumed benefits that it brings to improved health, the eradication of poverty, and the total well-being of the people, but should also recognise the changing globalised and technological communication context, and the subsequent need for appropriate action by all adult literacy practitioners.

That said, the specific changes in the context of literacy represent a shift from seeing adult literacy as a single universal skill to multiple literacies influenced by the New Literacy Studies (Rogers, 1999; Street, 1997). This approach emphasises active social learning and meaning making that is influenced by social constructivism, as opposed to the passive transfer of knowledge which is influenced by behaviourism (Wang, 2007; Vygotsky, 1980). This view of adult literacy includes situated, participatory and experiential-based pedagogy as opposed to *one-size-fits-all* pedagogy (Chandler & Teckchndani, 2015; Davidson, 2010; Rogers, 2006). In light of these changes, non-formal adult learning programmes have become exponentially varied. They consist of those which are “non-formal literacy classes with or without a developmental content; informal literacy-learning embedded within development projects and taught by specialists from agriculture or health, and literacy within the formal adult basic education establishments” (Rogers, 2006:21). Within the expectations of both NFAL pedagogy and the LSP theory, this variety implies that the teaching of literacy should largely be shaped by the purpose and context of the adult literacy-learning programme.

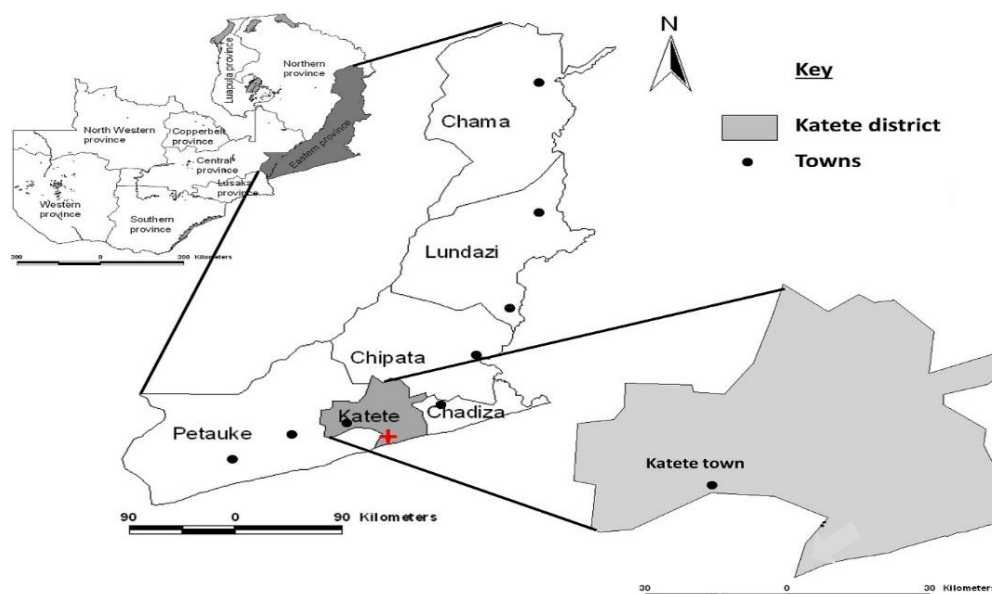
Furthermore, all these changes in the conceptualisation of literacy and its context should have implications on the designing, provision and the pedagogy of adult literacy. However, the absence of adequate information in the literature has made it difficult to determine the impact of these changes on the pedagogy of adult literacy among adult learners in developing countries. For example, research on adult literacy-learning in developing countries, and Africa in particular, has remained minimal. Much of what is in the literature on adult learning has been contributed by studies conducted in the United States of America (USA) from the 1960s to date. However, even in the USA, the focus of research in adult learning is no longer on pedagogy, but on the literacy practice of adult learners in business and industry (Caruth, 2014:6). This has resulted in knowledge gaps on adult learning pedagogy in the changing global context of teaching and learning. Similarly, in developing countries, pedagogy in adult

learning has been ignored as much of the research focuses on educational policies and on adult learners' participation in learning programmes (Kendall & McGrath, 2014; Omolewa, 2008; Rogers, 2006).

1.2.1 Location of the study

The research site for this study was the Katete District that is located in the Eastern Province of Zambia. This choice was motivated by the national adult literacy assessment of 2012 that found that the Katete District had the highest adult illiteracy rates in the country (Central Statistical Office, 2012a). Just like many other districts of Zambia, non-formal adult literacy-learning has been providing opportunities for many people who had missed a chance to take part in formal learning (Ministry of Education, 2015). Therefore, I envisaged that the Katete District would provide a suitable context for a better understanding of pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes. The Katete District has a total population of 243,849 with a female population of 123, 854 and a male population of 119, 995 (Central Statistical Office, 2012a). In terms of the economy, the district is characterised by small-scale subsistence agriculture as the main economic activity, with an emphasis on maize production. The minority of the residents of Katete engage in petty trading for their livelihoods. Socially, the district is known for low levels of formal learning among the people, high school-based illiteracy and poverty, and poor road networks and infrastructure (Central Statistical Office, 2012a). The district is also strategically located for cross-border trade between Zambia and Mozambique in the south. Figure 1.1 below is a map of Zambia, with the Katete District shaded in light grey.

Figure 1.1 Map of the research site for the study



Source: Central Statistical Office (2012b)

Given the above context of adult literacy-learning and pedagogy, it is necessary at this stage to provide the historical overview of non-formal adult literacy-learning in Zambia.

1.3 Non-formal adult literacy-learning in Zambia: an historical overview

The origin and development of non-formal adult literacy-learning in Zambia is ingrained in the political history of the country. Zambia is a land-locked country in Sub-Saharan Africa, located in the central-region of southern Africa. She shares her physical national boundaries with eight neighbouring countries which are: Malawi in the east; the Democratic Republic of Congo in the north; Tanzania in the north-east; Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia in the south; and Angola in the west (Central Statistical Office, 2012b). The country has a total land area of 752, 612 square kilometres and lie between 8 and 18 degrees south, and latitudes and longitudes between 22 and 34 degrees south (Central Statistical Office, 2012a). Additionally, 40 million hectares that represent 60 percent of the total land area are classified as suitable for agricultural production. Therefore, agricultural is the second key sector of Zambia's economy after mining. The name Zambia is derived from the Zambezi River which means River of God, implying that Zambia is a gift from God (Roberts, Williams, & Hobson, 2018). The Zambezi River is ecologically significant for Zambia's wildlife and humans, and the Zambezi River is the fourth longest river in Africa which is estimated at 2574 kilometres (Tumbare, 2004).

Before Zambia gained political independence in 1964, she was called Northern Rhodesia from 1911 to 1964 and was governed by the British colonial government. In 1953, Northern Rhodesia (Zambia), Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) and Nyasaland (Malawi) merged to form the Central African Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, but due to continued opposition to colonisation, the federation was dissolved on 31 December 1963. After independence on 24 October 1964, Zambia adopted a multiparty system of government. However, in 1972 the country became a one-party state until 1991 when Zambia reverted back to a democracy, as it is today.

The population of Zambia is 13.1 million. The majority of the population, 7.9 million, live in the rural areas and represent 60 percent of the total national population. The remaining 5.2 million Zambians live in the urban areas which represent 40 percent of the total national population (Central Statistical Office, 2012a). In terms of gender, the total male population is 6.5 million which represent 49.3 percent of the population and 6.6 million females which represent 50.7 percent of the population (Central Statistical Office, 2012b:3). Economically, Zambia has a mixed economy comprising of mining and agriculture. Mining is concentrated in the urban

areas, while agriculture is concentrated in the rural areas. Agriculture is the main economic activity of the rural population and it is the major source of livelihood for most of the rural population. They practice small-scale subsistence farming and maize is the main crop which is cultivated. The rural population in Zambia is classified as poor because they live below the country's poverty bench mark as they lack access to basic social amenities such as health and education services, safe drinking water, decent housing, market facilities and good road networks (Central Statistical Office, 2012b). Surprisingly, although the rural population has been classified as poor, they are one of the major producers of food in the country (Central Statistical Office, 2012a).

In terms of education, the current education system in Zambia has its roots in the British colonial education system that was introduced by the European missionaries in the 1800s (Snelson, 2012). Currently, Zambia has a three-tier education system that comprises of seven years primary education, five years secondary education, which is divided into two years junior secondary education and three years senior secondary education, and, finally, tertiary education which is also referred to as higher education. In practice, formal (school-based) and non-formal (non-school-based) are the main systems of education that are provided in Zambia. It is in the context of non-school-based, non-formal education that I conducted this study, as will be explained later.

For administrative purposes, Zambia is divided into 10 provinces: the Eastern, Copperbelt, Southern, North-western, Luapula, Northern, Muchinga, Western, Central and Lusaka provinces. Only the Copperbelt and Lusaka provinces are classified as urban provinces, while the rest are rural provinces (Central Statistical Office, 2012b). The 10 provinces are further divided into districts, and currently Zambia has a total of 74 districts. Lusaka is the capital city of Zambia and hosts most government ministries and departments as well as all diplomatic missions. In light of this overview of Zambia, it is important at this stage to analyse the origin and development of non-formal adult literacy in Zambia.

Adult literacy-learning in Zambia is mainly provided as non-formal adult literacy classes with the added economic purpose of alleviating poverty. It is assumed in absolute terms that adult literacy skills will empower youths and adults to participate fully in national development (Ministry of Education, 2015:23). Its provision and specific focus are guided by the geographical location. For example, in the urban areas, adult literacy-learning focuses on school-based literacies and livelihood skills to prepare those who wish to go back to formal schooling, and those who need skills for income-generating activities. Conversely, in the rural

areas, the focus is on teaching literacy skills to improve agricultural production as a means of eradicating poverty. It is in this context of small-scale subsistence agricultural production that I conducted this study.

The beginning of non-formal adult literacy-learning in Zambia can be traced back to the traditional education system. Implicit in this system were different forms of literacy practices which included rock paintings, drawings and oral practices that include folklore. They represented very significant and effective communicative tools for the people (Snelson, 2012; Kelly, 1999). However, the coming of Western-based education (Formal Learning), introduced by Christian missionaries around 1800, marked the disintegration and devaluation of these literacy practices. Western forms of literacy practices were introduced through a formalised system of learning and dominated the old practices (Mwanakatwe, 1974; Snelson, 2012).

Prior to Zambia's independence in 1964, a UNESCO mission in the country made a number of recommendations concerning adult literacy-learning. It recommended that adult literacy-learning should be taught in English and that the teachers of literacy-learning should be trained for a period of six months (Muyoba, 2000). It should be noted here that the idea behind the six months training was to create a corpus of full-time career teachers. This situation is quite different from that of today as volunteer facilitators are usually trained in adult learning pedagogy for only one to two weeks. It is also important to indicate that the training of volunteer facilitators is not guaranteed and it rarely happens as will be explained later. Changing the training period from six months to two weeks was based on cost implications as the government could not afford longer training programmes.

The 1964 UNESCO report recommended that the Ministries of Community Development (MCD) and General Education (MGE) should implement adult literacy-learning programmes. The Ministry of General Education was tasked to provide formal school-literacy learning in English, whereas the Ministry of Community Development was to provide non-formal adult literacy-learning that focused on work-oriented skills in agriculture, hygiene and Community Development (Department of Community Development, 1991). Although these recommendations by UNESCO were wide in scope, Mwanakatwe (1974) records that promoting literacy was not taken seriously by the government officials because they did not fully realise its importance for national development.

This stance by the government changed after Zambia's independence in 1964 as the need to accelerate the provision of basic adult literacy-learning was acknowledged. The adult literacy

national profile indicated that there were over 1,000,000 adults who could not read and write (Central Statistical Office, 1969). This represented 61% of the adult population in the country (Mwanakatwe, 1974). This situation was compounded by a shortage of trained human-resource specialists that were needed to stimulate national development. In response to this, the new post-independence government launched different education programmes throughout the country to address the problem of adult illiteracy and to train youths and adults in various areas for national development.

The government used community development as a rallying cry to introduce a countrywide Basic Literacy Programme (BLP) through non-formal literacy-learning in 1965, the Functional Literacy-Learning Programme (FLLP) in 1971, and the National Literacy Campaign (NLC) in 1990. In 1996, the BLP was relaunched to sustain the 1965 and 1990 efforts towards the improvement of literacy among adults and youths in the country (Ministry of Education, 2015; Ministry of Community Development and Social Services, 2003). However, it was found that the results were not encouraging due to the following reasons: the lack of supervision of these initiatives, the lack of interest and dedication among the literacy-learning facilitators, the lack of transport for attendees, the fact that the contents of the primers had little to do with the social contexts of the learners, and the lack of an effective literacy-learning delivery system.

While much of adult literacy-learning takes the form of non-formal learning in Zambia today, and is provided within the framework of lifelong learning, literacy is narrowly conceived as the skills of reading and writing. This means that Zambia has not yet fully embraced the view of adult literacy as situated practices. From Zambia's independence in 1964 until 2012, when the government introduced a national adult literacy-learning curriculum framework, there had never been a national adult literacy-learning curriculum that was followed by literacy-learning providers. The practice was that respective primers were developed based on the prevailing needs within the sociocultural context of the learners (Ministry of Education Science Vocational Training and Early Education, 2012; Ministry of Community Development and Social Services, 2003). The provision has been conducted in the rural parts of the country where it is provided in response to illiteracy and poverty (Ministry of Education, 2015, 2008).

The providers of adult literacy-learning include the Government of the Republic of Zambia (GRZ), NGO's, Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), Faith Based Organizations (FBOs) and Community Based Organizations (CBOs) (Ministry of Education, 2015). They provide adult literacy as either formal or non-formal learning or both, and they engage both trained and

untrained persons to teach. In view of this, it is important to highlight the training of professional adult literacy educators in Zambia.

1.4 The training of professional adult literacy educators in Zambia

Adult literacy educators are trained by the government through the Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare (MCDSW) and the University of Zambia. It is important to emphasise that these are professional adult educators and not the volunteer facilitators that were mentioned earlier whose training lasts for one to two weeks only. The ministry has two community development staff training colleges that include Monze Staff Training College in the Southern province and Kitwe Staff Training College in the Copperbelt province (Ministry of Education, 2008). The educators are trained for a period of two years as both community development officers and adult educators. The University of Zambia through the Department of Adult Education and Extension Studies has been supplementing the training of adult literacy educators both at diploma and degree levels (Ministry of Education, 2010).

Notwithstanding the availability of professionally trained adult educators, a lack of funding for adult literacy-learning programmes seems to be the reason for the hesitance by both the government and other literacy-learning providers to employ the properly trained adult educators. In support of this, much of the literature on adult literacy points to the cost needed to maintain such a resource considering the limited or non-availability of funding for adult literacy-learning programmes in many countries (Carr-Hill, Roberts, & Currie, 2010b). For this reason, untrained or undertrained adult literacy-learning educators or facilitators seem to offer a cost effective alternative. Furthermore, those who have unrelated teaching experience in primary or secondary schools are also preferred by the adult literacy providers (Oxenham, Diallo, Katahoire, Petkova-Mwangi, & Sall, 2002; Rogers, 2006).

Alarming, the information on the pedagogy in adult literacy-learning in Zambia has remained scanty in the literature. For example, the national status on adult literacy in Zambia as captured in the Ministry of Education's reports of 2010 and 2015 does not provide a complete situational analysis of adult literacy in the country. These reports only provide statistical information that is based on the assessments of school-based literacies, and ignore other forms of literacy and information on pedagogy. Despite these omissions, the two reports indicate that there has been a persistently poor performance of adult literacy-learning programmes which has been mainly attributed to the "lack of literacy-learning material, lack of training among literacy-learning facilitators, inadequate funding, lack of coordination among literacy-learning providers and lack of an independent national policy to guide the overall provision of literacy" (Ministry

of Education, 2015: 23-24). It should be noted that different policies are currently being used by the respective government ministries and departments to guide the provision of adult literacy-learning in Zambia (Ministry of Education, 2015, 2008).

The government has sporadically made efforts to respond to some of the foregoing challenges. For example, in 2012, the Ministry of Education introduced a curriculum framework to guide the provision of adult literacy-learning by all providers and this was expected to reshape the pedagogical practices in adult literacy in the country. The purpose of this measure was to harmonise adult literacy-learning activities in the country and also to increase opportunities for adults to progress in a formal learning context from lower levels to tertiary education. In the past, the situation was that each provider provided their own respective programmes. The new curriculum has been designed with the focus on the acquisition of three competencies: either English or a Zambian language or both, numeracy skills and entrepreneurial skills (Ministry of Education Science Vocational Training and Early Education, 2012). Currently, it is still unclear how many government departments and non-governmental literacy-learning providers are implementing this framework.

A notable challenge with the new curriculum has been the omission of information on pedagogy as evidenced by the lack of emphasis and details on teaching and learning strategies. The document mentions that learner-centred pedagogy should be used without specifying how this should be done. In addition, the curriculum has not given much attention to the training of facilitators in adult literacy pedagogy. It is also not clear how it intends to address the challenge of the persistent fluctuations in enrollments and the high levels of learner withdrawals from programmes which are probably caused by the curriculum's omission of adult learning principles both in its design and implementation.

Significantly, the foregoing reasons advanced for the failure of adult literacy-learning programmes are not unique to Zambia. Many other countries in Africa, including Egypt, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Namibia (Aitchinson & Alidou, 2009; Alidou & Glanz, 2015; Ngaka, Openjuru, & Mazur, 2012; Omolewa, 2008; Papen, 2005; Rogers, 2006) have often cited similar challenges. While I acknowledge that the preceding reasons can have negative effects on literacy-learning as a whole, it is not accurate to judge the failure of non-formal adult literacy-learning programmes in the country on these reasons alone. Research on pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes is crucial for arriving at progressive conclusions for informing theory and practice. In light of the above background and context of the study, it is important to explain

my rationale and motivation for studying pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.

1.5 Rationale and motivation for studying pedagogical practices

The rationale and motivation for studying pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes were based on my personal, professional, conceptual and scholarly reasons. My personal justification and motivation for this focus were based on my interest in the pedagogy of non-formal adult literacy-learning which developed during my undergraduate degree programme. Additionally, during my master's degree programme in 2012, my research focused on adult literacy-learning in which I explored forms of community adult literacy-learning in the Chongwe District in Zambia. It was at this time that I realised that pedagogy in adult literacy-learning was neglected. I found that although the focus of the literacy-learning provided was on the acquisition of the basic skills of reading and writing, which were incorporated with farming skills, the facilitators in all the non-formal adult literacy classes in the District had never been trained in the pedagogy of adult learning.

In terms of profession, I am a lecturer at the University of Zambia, and I have been participating in the training of professional adult educators in Zambia, since 2012. The nature of my work involves teaching and working with different communities and organisations that are involved in non-formal adult learning in Zambia. In most of the community education programmes, I observed a pedagogical challenge which was caused by the facilitators who treated their adult learners in class like children. Some of the facilitators who treated their adult learners in this way had undergone only one to two weeks training in adult-learning pedagogy. This led me to question this pedagogical practice, and particularly the training that adult literacy-learning facilitators received in this context. Therefore, this was another motivation to explore pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy with a view to enhancing my knowledge of pedagogical practices in reality and ultimately to improve my professional practice, specifically in the training of adult educators.

The theoretical and conceptual rationale was based on my understanding that pedagogy is crucial for improving learning and ultimately to achieve the desired learning outcomes. This is supported by Adams (2016), Caruth (2014), and Westbrook, Durrani, Brown, Orr, Pryor, Boddy and Salvi (2013) who confirm that the success of a learning programme is anchored in the appropriate selection and use of pedagogical strategies. Although the government of the Republic of Zambia has continued to introduce educational interventions, including reforming the adult literacy-learning curriculum, producing adult literacy-learning materials and

increasing the number of adult literacy-learning programmes in the context of lifelong learning (Ministry of Education, 2015; UNESCO, 2015, 2013b), there is little that can be achieved in the current situation where research on adult literacy-learning and pedagogy has been given minimal attention.

In terms of the academic scholarship, most studies (Daka, 2010; Kamocha, 2011; Manda, 2009; Nakweti, 2015; Ndashe, 2010; Pal, 2015; Sumbwa, 2013) on adult literacy-learning in Zambia were conducted by PhD and Masters students that focused on evaluating the participation of learners, and ignored the pedagogy of adult literacy. Although Chisenga (2013) reports on the need to train facilitators in adult-learning pedagogy, she does not provide a detailed account of how facilitators taught literacy in the adult literacy classes where she conducted research. Regrettably, most of these postgraduate studies have remained unpublished. Therefore, their ability to inform literacy-learning programmes in Zambia remains minimal due to their limited dissemination.

Additionally, published studies that attempted to explore the pedagogy of literacy in Zambia focused on literacy-learning in Early Childhood Education (ECE) (Chansa-Kabali, Serpell, & Lyytinen, 2014; Kalindi, McBride & Dan, 2017; Serpell, 2014; Walubita et al., 2015). Similarly, international studies (Arbaugh et al., 2016; Avsec & Jamšek, 2015; Boakye, Sommerville & Debusho, 2014; Brooks, 2016; Kazanjian & Choi, 2016; Lane-Kelso, 2015) on literacy-learning pedagogy focussed on school-based literacies for children and higher education, and paid little attention to non-school-based adult literacy-learning. Furthermore, most of these international studies which dominate the literature on adult literacy-learning have been conducted outside Africa. Although they provide insight into the practice of adult literacy in general, their relevance remains contextualised to where the studies were conducted. Therefore, the prevailing knowledge gaps contributed to my increased interest to explore pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District. As indicated earlier, Katete was reported to have the highest levels of school-based adult illiteracy in the country that were estimated at 63% (Central Statistical Office, 2012a).

1.6 Purpose and focus of the study

The purpose of this study was to explore pedagogical practices that are used in non-formal adult literacy classes. The focus was to establish and understand how and why they are used within the sociocultural context of the adult learners. Additionally, the purpose was to understand their relevance to achieving the adult learners' learning goals. This study's focus was inspired by the current epistemological emphasis on situated literacies and pedagogy, as

opposed to a universal view of both literacy and pedagogy (Perry & Homan, 2015; Lave & Wenger, 1998). In view of both the rationale and motivation, and the purpose and focus of this study, the following research questions were generated to guide the study.

1.7 Research questions

Based on the indicated research gap, the study sought to answer the following research questions:

- a. How are pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District?
- b. Why are these pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District?

1.8 Clarification of key concepts

This section provides clarification of key concepts used in this study. Other concepts have been clarified under their respective sections within the document.

1.8.1 Exploring

The phenomenon being studied is based on exploring pedagogy practices in non-formal adult literacy classes. To explore is to search for something which is not known or not well known (Nieuwenhuis, 2015a). The concept explore is derived from exploratory research, which according to Kumar (2014), is a type of research undertaken for the following purposes: (i) to generate knowledge on a phenomenon of which little is known; and (ii) to investigate the possibilities of undertaking a particular research. Drawing from this explanation, the concept exploring was applied to this study in a phenomenological context, in attempting to understand pedagogical practices from the perspectives and experiences of the research participants. Crucially, this was motivated by the minimal research that was available on this phenomenon.

1.8.2 Literacy

Literacy is traditionally defined as a set of skills that includes reading, writing and numeracy. However, this definition is limited because literacy goes beyond the acquisition of the skills of reading and writing. It consists of the social practices of how people use reading and writing in their sociocultural contexts (Rogers, 2005; Street, 2014). Therefore, in this study literacy as a working conceptualisation entails the communicative practices of reading, writing and

numeracy that are found within the everyday lives of the people. Furthermore, teaching literacy means helping participants to improve their existing practices of reading, writing and numeracy within their specific sociocultural contexts.

1.8.3 Non-formal adult learning

Non-formal adult learning in this study refers to lifelong learning activities that are organised and carried out outside the formal learning framework to meet the learning goals of adults in different settings. I agree with scholars who say that its focus depends on purpose, place and clientele (Rogers, 2014a; Romi & Schmida, 2009a), and when the focus is on literacy-learning, it is called non-formal adult literacy-learning. This is the context in which non-formal adult learning was applied to this study.

1.8.4 Pedagogy and pedagogical practices

Pedagogy in this study refers to both teaching and learning that are associated with all categories of learners: children and adults (Adjapong & Emdin, 2015). Thus, pedagogical practices in this study refer to the educational actions and decisions on approaches, methods and strategies that are used to support teaching and learning in non-formal adult literacy classes (Crowther, Maclachlan, & Tett, 2010; Siraj-Blatchford, Muttock, Sylva, Gilden, & Bell, 2002). The term pedagogical approach is used in this study to refer to the application of various pedagogical orientations to adult literacy-learning and learner development. The approaches include the skills-based and sociocultural-based approaches to adult literacy (Prinsloo, 2013; Rogers & Street, 2012). The term pedagogical method is used to describe the more fixed and prescriptive procedures that the facilitator chooses to facilitate the teaching (and learning) of literacy to the adult learners. This may involve the use of expository, discovery, evaluatory and participatory methods.

1.8.5 Teaching and learning

Teaching has traditionally been associated with the transfer of knowledge from the teacher to the learners. However, in the 21st century, teaching is used to refer to the facilitation of learning (Dale & Hyslop-Margison, 2010; Vaughn, Parsons, Gallagher, & Branen, 2015; Westbrook et al., 2013). This is based on research which shows that learners are not empty vessels, rather they have past learning experiences that range from a continuum of informal, non-formal and formal learning (Bélanger, 2011; Kerka, 2002; Rogers, 2014a). Informal learning is associated with incidental and unconscious learning that occurs in our everyday lives. Non-formal learning

is organised learning which is provided outside the school context and formal learning takes place within a formal school-based context. I used teaching and learning to refer to facilitating learning among adults and in particular how they wish to use literacy in their respective contexts. Learning refers to both the conscious and unconscious processes that produce change in literacy practices among the people in their sociocultural contexts.

1.9 Overview of the research design and methodology

In order to answer the research questions appropriately, this study followed a clearly planned and defined process. This involved making decisions on the research design and methodology which consist of the research paradigm, the research approach, research design, selection of the participants and research sites, data generation and collection methods and data analysis. The details of the research design and methodology are discussed in chapter four of this study. The following section provides the overview.

1.9.1 Research paradigm

This study was guided by the interpretive research paradigm. The interpretive research paradigm holds the position that there is not one social reality, but multiple realities that are bound by various contexts that can only be understood in a relevant context (Creswell, 2014a; Nieuwenhuis, 2015a). Based on this, the interpretive research paradigm was envisioned to provide an ideal philosophical orientation for understanding pedagogical practices within the sociocultural context of the adult learners. According to Nieuwenhuis (2015a), interpretivism is a qualitative research paradigm that is derived from the field of hermeneutics which is a philosophy of meaning, interpretation and understanding. It is based on the understanding that all humans live in a complex social reality, which eventually makes human text complex, and understanding this reality is made possible through interpretation (Kumar, 2014; Mayers, 2013).

Therefore, my rationale for adopting the interpretive research paradigm was motivated by its relevance to social science research. The social science research-based paradigm argues that the physical or natural science research-based paradigm is not suitable for understanding human beings and their social reality (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Bryman, 2012; Flick, 2014; Gary, 2011). This is because the realities of the social sciences and that of the natural sciences are fundamentally different (Bryman, 2012). The other motivation for choosing the interpretive research paradigm was that the purpose of the study and research questions were embedded within the interpretive research paradigm (Merriam, 2009; Nieuwenhuis, 2015a). For instance,

the purpose and focus of the study was to explore and understand pedagogical practices within the context of non-formal adult literacy classes. Similarly, the research questions were based on why and how questions which could be understood better from the interpretations of the research participants' own pedagogical practices (Nieuwenhuis, 2015a; Yin, 2011).

1.9.2 Research approach

In view of the interpretive research paradigm adopted for this study, the qualitative research approach was employed to explore pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning. Nieuwenhuis (2015a) indicates that qualitative research is concerned with understanding a phenomenon in its natural setting that is called the sociocultural setting. Additionally, the decision for a qualitative research approach was based on the nature of adult literacy: it is social practices of communication that comprise speech, written text and other tools or literacy events which are bound by the sociocultural context (Rogers, 1999). Therefore, it can be better understood through a qualitative approach (Black & Yasukawa, 2014).

Furthermore, Creswell (2014b) explains that qualitative research is a type of research whose aim is to explore and understand the meaning that individuals or groups attach to a phenomenon. For this reason, the qualitative approach was relevant for gaining insight into both adult literacy-learning and the sociocultural context in which it takes place (Rogers, 2009; Street, 2014). The qualitative approach created an opportunity for me to talk to my research participants regarding the pedagogical practices that are used in adult literacy classes and their interpretations of these practices (Mayers, 2013; Merriam, 2009). This view is in line with Mayers (2013) who emphasises that talking is crucial in qualitative research because it is only through talking to people that we gain a clear understanding of the literacy practices of the people and their meanings and interpretations.

The choice of the qualitative approach was also shaped by my philosophical worldview of research. My ontological view is that reality is socially constructed and my epistemological view is that knowledge is interpretive. Thus, I have a subjective view of reality that is informed by the interpretive research paradigm and argue that social reality cannot be separated from the research participants who are the creators of their own realities (Kirch, 2015; Kleickmann et al., 2013; Kolb, 2014). Therefore, I anticipated that a qualitative approach would allow me to immerse myself in the context of the participants and would permit me to gain insight into their perspectives that are based on their real-life experiences.

1.9.3 Study design

The study design for this study was a qualitative exploratory multiple case study. The 'case' was pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning programmes. This stance was informed by the understanding that for a study to be called a case study, it should have a clearly defined case (Yin, 2014), because a case comprises both the theoretical and practical basis on which the interest of a study is grounded (Mayers, 2013; Yin, 2014). This study was based on a multiple case study because it consisted of two adult literacy-learning programmes within the Katete District, the Department of Community Development and an NGO called Tikondane. Yin (2014) explains that a multiple case study comes into effect when a study constitutes more than one case study. The assumption is that the more the cases, the greater the trustworthiness and credibility of a case study (Yin, 2012).

The rationale and motivation for adopting a case study for this study were based on the existing knowledge gaps on the subject of pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy-learning. Caruth (2014b), and Schweisfurth (2015) indicate that pedagogy remains a neglected area within the education discourse. In support of this decision, Nieuwenhuis (2015a) and Yin (2012) postulate that a case study is useful in exploring an area which has been understudied. Therefore, I realised that a case study would be appropriate for exploring in-depth data on pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District.

1.9.4 Selection of the participants and sites

The participants comprised of literacy-learning providers, literacy-learning facilitators and the adult literacy learners. The literacy-learning providers included the government as represented by the Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare (MCDSW) and Tikondane, a non-governmental organisation as indicated earlier. In this study, I used purposive sampling to select the participants and the research sites which I discussed in 1.2.1 concerning the location of the study. My sampling procedure was informed by the standard practice in qualitative research that the research site/s and participants are selected based on key and relevant attributes to answer the research questions (Creswell, 2014c; Kumar, 2014; Maree, 2015; Nieuwenhuis, 2015b). Crucially, purposive sampling highlights the purpose of a qualitative case study and informs decisions about relevant sources of data (Flick, 2014; Merriam, 2009). Therefore, purposive sampling was considered to be relevant to this study.

1.9.5 Data generation and collection

My use of data generation is based on the guidance by Mason (2002) who argues that qualitative researchers do not just collect data, rather they generate data. The argument is that as we engage in qualitative research we are practically involved in data generation. We do not collect the ready-gathered data, but we generate data through conversations with our research participants. This means that as qualitative researchers we are not independent of the data (Yin, 2014). Therefore, in this study qualitative data were both generated and collected (Mason, 2002). Evidence was generated through my interactive physical engagements in conversations with my participants during face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions. On the other hand, qualitative data were also collected through document analysis of the already existing data in the published adult literacy-learning materials. Guided by the purpose of the study and linked to the theoretical framework which was based on EL and LSP theories, and the research paradigm of this study (Kumar, 2014; Maree, 2012), four qualitative data generation and collection methods were used: semi-structured face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions (FGDs), observations and document analysis. This is what was involved in the generation and the collection of data.

1.9.6 Data analysis and methods

This study consisted of qualitative data only that were analysed qualitatively through inductive thematic and content analysis. I used thematic analysis to analyse interview, focus group and observation data because by nature themes are the fundamental parts of these sets of data (King and Horrocks, 2010), whereas content analysis was used to analyse document data (Merriam, 2009). Yin (2012) explains that thematic analysis is useful in analysing qualitative data because themes are coherent and cohesive units of meaning which form the important feature of understanding qualitative data. In terms of the process, I used a five-step process by integrating ideas based on guidelines provided by Creswell (2014c), and King and Horrocks (2010). The steps involved (a) transcription of interviews and focus group data from audio to text data, (b) reading through the data to develop a general sense, (c) coding the data, (d) clustering codes under emerging themes, (e) and finally, interpreting the data. These steps were relevant for generating the meaning and analysis of the data.

1.9.7 My position and role as a researcher

My position in this study is that I transitioned from being an outsider to an insider participant. As already mentioned, professionally, I am a lecturer from the University of Zambia where I participate in the training of adult educators. Secondly, I reside in the Lusaka district that is

500 kilometres from the Katete District where I conducted my study. Therefore, I was an outsider to the research participants because I was not indigenous to their geographical communities, and we did not share the same beliefs, values, customs, linguistic traditions, practices and the general way of life. This meant that I needed to transition myself and adapt to the context of my research participants, which I did. For example, I became an insider participant because I lived among the participants during my data generation and collection. I physically interacted with them and spoke their language although I am not fluent. I also ate their food.

This means that even if I endeavoured to remain ethical in all my research processes in this study, I cannot claim that I am neutral. It is evident that I am interested in adult literacy-learning and I have certain assumptions about the pedagogy of adult learning and the adult learner; my biases are based on my professional experiences in adult literacy-learning in Zambia. Ultimately, all the above personal characteristics have the potential to influence my interpretations of the findings and conclusions of the study. However, I remained ethical throughout the study by ensuring credibility and trustworthiness of the study.

My foregoing stance is supported by qualitative researchers (Berger, 2015; Kumar, 2014; Maree, 2012; Yin, 2014) who agree that the position of the researcher in qualitative research is crucial because it can influence the research process and the findings of the study. Additionally, Berger (2015) states that it can also affect the researchers' access to the sites because research participants tend to be more willing to share information with a researcher whom they perceive to be sympathetic to their problems. Nonetheless, my relationship with the research participants was not based on sympathy, but on our common interest in adult literacy-learning and the primary purpose of my study, which I explained to them was for academic purposes. This was achieved during my dissemination of information prior to the commencement of my data generation and collection. Furthermore, their participation in my study was voluntary.

In view of my position in this study, I was both a researcher and a data generating and collecting instrument. I was a researcher because I designed the research, generated and collected data, transcribed and analysed the data, and interpreted the findings. I was an instrument because I physically generated and collected data from the participants by means of individual face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis. Significantly, the process of generating data by personally conducting interviews transformed me into a data-generating and collecting instrument (Aasetre & Gundersen, 2012;

Creswell, 2014b; Mason, 2002). In support of my actions, Creswell (2014c) states that qualitative research is interactive because the researcher is actively involved with the participants in their everyday experiences. This interaction and involvement involve many ethical issues regarding the researcher's biases that are based on culture, prior knowledge, professional training, and previous research experiences. I remained committed in adhering to rigour in qualitative research because I understood the implications if any of the research procedures that I undertook had been compromised.

1.9.8 Organisation of the thesis

This study comprises seven chapters. Chapter one is an introduction which provides an overview of the study. In this chapter, I provided the background and context of the study in which I described the changing global context of literacy and pedagogy, and the possible implications for the provision of adult literacy-learning in developing countries and Zambia in particular. Additionally, I provided the historical overview of non-formal adult literacy-learning in Zambia, the rationale and motivation for exploring pedagogical practices, the purpose and focus of the study, conceptual clarifications, and the significance of the study, both in an academic and professional practice context. Furthermore, the chapter highlighted the overview of the research methodology used, my role in this study and the location of the study.

In chapter two, I provided the literature review on adult-learning pedagogy and non-formal adult learning and its related pedagogy. The review continued in chapter three, where I focused on framing the study theoretically. In this chapter, I reviewed three dominant theories that are currently used in adult learning which include: humanistic, transformational and experiential adult-learning theories. With regard to adult literacy, I reviewed two broad theories: cognitive and sociocultural theories of adult literacy. Finally, I ended the chapter with a focus on the theoretical framework for this study which was based on two theories: Literacy as Social Practices (LSP) and adult learning as Experiential Learning (EL) that were both embedded in the sociocultural contexts of the research participants.

The research methodology I used in answering the research questions was discussed in chapter four. This included the interpretive research paradigm, qualitative approach, and research methods and data analysis. In chapter five, I presented the findings of the study that were based on the themes which emerged from the data analysis. These included the participants' conceptualisation of adult literacy and the purpose of adult literacy-learning, pedagogical practices used in adult literacy classes, pedagogical resources, and the

participation in adult literacy classes. My personal observations and interpretations of the findings were presented in this chapter. I used the emerging themes as the headings for the presentation and interpretation of the findings. This chapter provided details of what was discovered during the research and how the findings related to the purpose, research questions, theoretical framework and literature that I reviewed.

The findings have been discussed in chapter six and they are based on each theme using the literature review and the theoretical framework of the study. I also discussed the similarities and contradictions between my findings and the existing literature on the subject of non-formal adult literacy-learning pedagogy. Furthermore, I highlighted the new insights which emerged from the findings of this study. Finally, in chapter seven, I provided the conclusion of the study by discussing the perspectives from the literature and my own findings and interpretations. This was followed by the conclusions based on the research questions of the study. I also positioned the theoretical framework within the study, highlighted the limitations of the study, and explained the implications of this study for adult literacy-learning providers, for professional development of literacy-learning facilitators and the implications for further research. The chapter ends with a final conclusion of the entire study.

1.10 Conclusion

In this chapter, I introduced the study on pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes, which was conducted in the Katete District in Zambia. I explained the background and context of the study in terms of the global and historical overview of non-formal adult literacy learning in Zambia. I also explained the rationale and motivation for exploring pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes, the purpose and focus of the study, the research questions, and my position and role in this study. Finally, I provided an overview of the research methodology that I used to answer the research questions and provided a summary of the organisation of the thesis. In the next chapter, I review the literature relevant to this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I provided the background and context of the study and discussed the purpose and focus. In this chapter, I review the literature on the research topic, which is pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes. The rationale and context for this focus in this literature review is that today, the world is characterised by rapid global changes associated with technological advancements. These changes have been witnessed at different levels of human life. For instance, in the context of adult-learning pedagogy, technological innovations provide access to different learning resources which seem to appeal to the majority of adult learners' learning styles. As a result, policies in education have continued to be changed, and curricula and content have been modified to adapt to these innovations. Subsequently, established pedagogies have been confronted with the challenge of remaining relevant in a modern-day pedagogical environment. Therefore, it is important for adult literacy-learning practitioners to rethink their pedagogical practices. This is the context of this literature review.

In order to provide a clear guide to the reader, I have discussed what a literature review entailed for this study. Consequently, I explained its rationale, its purpose, and the methodology that I used to review the literature. I also explained how and why it has been organised and presented based on themes. Thereafter, I critically reviewed the literature. Finally, I end the chapter with a conclusion on the existing knowledge gaps that exist on pedagogical practices in adult literacy-learning.

2.1.1 Literature review: meaning and purpose to this study

There are many views held by scholars on what a literature review is. For instance, Babbie (2007) states that a literature review is a focused reading and analysis of what has been published through which we learn what is already known and unknown. Booth, Papaioannou and Sutton (2012) assert that a literature review is a systematic process which involves a comprehensive identification, assessment and synthesis of research that has been produced by scholars and practitioners. Similarly, Jesson, Matheson and Lacey (2012) agree and elaborate that a literature review is a desk-based method of critically examining and analysing secondary – explicit and tacit – knowledge for purposes of informing our decisions on the research topic and processes. Thus, drawing on these views, I contextualised my

conceptualisation of a literature review as a high-level written and critical analysis and synthesis of what is known on pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning. Thus, this review contains research-based and conceptual ideas, theories and perspectives of different scholars on the research topic mentioned above.

The purpose of this literature review was to identify the meaning of key concepts of the research topic, the historical background, the existing contradictions, similarities, consistencies, inconsistencies and research gaps on pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning. This was important for the appropriate selection of the research topic, the development and refinement of the research problem, and the generation of appropriate research questions (Babbie, 2007; Jesson et.al, 2012; Ridley, 2012). More importantly, this review was crucial for enhancing my understanding of the research topic and to situate the study within the framework of what other researchers have found on pedagogy in adult learning. This is supported by Flick (2014), and Jesson et.al (2012), and who recommend that before beginning a research project the researcher should conduct a literature review to find out what has been written by other researchers to avoid duplication.

Additionally, the rationale for this literature review was to facilitate the identification and selection of the research design and methodology of the study (Ridley, 2012), and to select relevant theories for framing the study within the appropriate theoretical framework to guide me through the entire research process (Kumar, 2014). Furthermore, this literature was necessary to provide deeper insight into the reliability of the available evidence on pedagogical practices in adult literacy-learning and subsequently aided the interpretation of the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study as discussed in chapter seven. Ultimately, it enabled me to gain substantial knowledge on the contemporary pedagogy within the field of adult literacy, thereby, positioning this study on the academic platform of knowledge generation.

The methodology of reviewing and presenting the relevant literature was based on the traditional literature view (Ridley, 2012). Within this methodology, I adopted a critical approach, which is the standard practice in many social sciences doctoral-based researches (Jesson et al. 2012). The rationale was to develop a critical review of the existing knowledge gaps on theories, concepts, methodologies, and contexts of what other researchers have established on pedagogy in adult learning. This was important because all theories, concepts, methodologies and research findings are never neutral, they often have biases or strengths and weaknesses which need to be evaluated critically for appropriate use in a study and in

real-life situations. This justification was informed by Ridley (2012) and Jesson et al. (2012) who emphasise that a critical approach offers the scope for identifying knowledge gaps and for clarifying aspects for further research. Additionally, critical thinking is a standard practice in a literature review and academic writing in general (Bowell & Kemp, 2010). Therefore, a literature review is based on a critical evaluation of studies, which forms a critical analysis or argument that is supported by research evidence. In other words, a critical approach was appropriate for questioning and challenging the views, ideas, opinions and perspectives of other researchers and practitioners in adult literacy-learning. However, this was not an easy process, because it involved a lot of time to read and think through the literature.

In terms of the process of review, I began with identifying and selecting the key concepts that constituted my research topic which were pedagogy, adult literacy and non-formal adult learning. This was necessary for refining my search for literature and for maintaining the focus of the study. This method was informed by Babbie (2007) who recommends that for a thorough and focused review of literature, a researcher should organise the search for literature around the key concepts of the research topic.

Additionally, the process of literature review involved selecting the material that should be reviewed. This was based on my conviction that the selected literature material would enrich my understanding of the research topic (Jesson et al. 2012). Similarly, Neuman (2012) recommends that the method and process of review should begin with a clearly defined topic because it sets a logical plan to search for the relevant literature. This is also accompanied by determining the extensiveness of the review in terms how far back in time one should look or the publication dates of literature and the types of material to review.

In light of this, the ethno-standard practice in the Faculty of Education at the University of Pretoria, is that literature sources should not be more than five years old. However, based on the focus of my study it was not practical to limit my literature review to only five years because most of the available studies in the literature on pedagogy in adult learning were dated. They were studies conducted in the 1960s and mainly in the USA as indicated in chapter one. Notwithstanding, I incorporated more recent studies on adult literacy in general even if they did not specifically focus on pedagogy because they had both a conceptual and theoretical relevance to the study. In terms of the literature material, I reviewed articles, research reports, PhD theses and Masters dissertations, books, and government and organisational reports on the pedagogy of adult literacy-learning. The purpose was to develop an in-depth study of what is known and unknown on the research topic (Ridley, 2012).

This literature study is organised and presented under themes that were derived from the research topic as mentioned in the introduction of this chapter. These themes are adult learning pedagogy and non-formal adult literacy-learning pedagogy. Within these themes are sub-themes which were developed after an in-depth review of the literature on pedagogy in adult literacy learning. The rationale for presenting the literature based on themes is to maintain the focus of the study and to ensure a logical flow of ideas because themes provide a logical connection of ideas, opinions and perspectives (Creswell, 2014; Jesson et al, 2012). In other words, as a researcher who intended to tell a convincing story of my study, it was my responsibility to analyse and synthesise the data from the literature, and to develop a logical and scientific process of presenting and telling the story of my analysis (Neuman, 2012; Ridley, 202). In view of this justification, the following section presents the details of the literature review of this study.

2.2 Adult learning pedagogy

Traditionally, the term pedagogy has been associated with the teaching and learning processes associated with children (Peterson & Ray, 2013). Previously this view had dominated both research and practice because it was the basis upon which learning was organised (Mortimore, 1999; Tarrant & Thiele, 2016b). Later, scholars began to reflect on the concept and realised that looking at pedagogy as a construct that is merely concerned with teaching children was limited in content and scope. This resulted in the development of andragogy which is a term used to explain the teaching and learning of adults (Caruth, 2014; Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2012; Knowles, 1973).

The concept andragogy is associated with the work of Malcolm Knowles in the 1960s in Europe and North America. According to Merriam (2001), Knowles used the term andragogy to distinguish adult learning from the learning of children in schools and defined it as the science of art of helping adults learn. However, Knowles made it clear that he was not talking about a clear-cut differentiation between adults and children, rather he was differentiating between the assumptions about learners held by those who believed in pedagogy and those who believed in andragogy (Knowles, 1970, p.43). In view of this, he suggested the four assumptions of andragogy which are: (1) as a person grows and matures, his self-concept changes from that of dependency to that of increasing self-directedness; (2) as a person matures, he accumulates an expanding reservoir of experience which makes him a resource for learning; (3), as an individual matures, his readiness to learn is decreasingly the product of his biological development and academic pressure and is increasingly the product of the

developmental tasks required for the performance of his evolving social roles; and (4) that adults tend to have a problem-centered orientation to learning.

While it is clear that these assumptions have been at the centre of adult learning since the 1960s, the 21st-century research on informal learning (Rogers, 2004, Taylor, 2006), challenges the limited view of learning that was adopted by Knowles on andragogy. Knowles's view of learning focused on cognitive learning with more emphasis on the change in behaviour of the adult learners which occurred in structured and organised learning experiences. This view of learning ignored the informal learning which is an important aspect of all forms of learning. Therefore, although andragogy provides insight into the understanding of the historical development of adult learning globally, it has been criticised for its lack of clarity on what it is: whether it is a set of principles, a model or theory. Additionally, Knowles (1973), who is believed to be the pioneer of the concept andragogy, is not very clear on its definition and meaning.

Although Knowles attempted to respond to the criticisms levelled against andragogy, by making some modifications to it, he was not completely successful. This stance is acknowledged by Merriam (2001) who indicates that andragogy has done little to expand or clarify our understanding of the process of learning. It has not achieved the status of a theory of adult learning and it seems to have remained a prescription of how teachers and students should behave. However, Merriam argues that despite this, andragogy has continued to attract debate in the scholarship on adult learning. However, there is minimal evidence to substantiate this claim as much of the focus in the literature on adult learning is oriented towards pedagogy rather than andragogy. For this reason, andragogy has failed to fully permeate the scholarship, therefore, pedagogy has been redefined and subsequently adopted to refer to all categories of learners: children, youths and adults (Adjapong & Emdin, 2015; Westbrook et al., 2013). It is against this background that the concept pedagogy was preferred for this study to the concept andragogy. Research shows that pedagogy is associated with two types of knowledge, namely Content Knowledge (CK) and Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK).

2.2.1 Content Knowledge

Content knowledge is knowledge of the subject area which educators require to be effective in their pedagogical practice (Shulman, 1987). It provides a foundation upon which new knowledge and skills are constructed (Baser, Kopcha, & Ozden, 2015; McLeod, Steinert, Meagher, & McLeod, 2003). In the case of this study, adult literacy-learning facilitators are expected to have knowledge of adult literacy. They should understand that every discipline

has a way of organizing and structuring knowledge, and to clearly conceptualise this, Shulman (1986) suggests that content knowledge should be understood in terms of its substantive and syntactic structure. He indicates that substantive structure refers to different means through which the elementary principles of a given discipline are pre-arranged to integrate its facts. Whereas, the syntactic structure is a collection of rules used to guide and determine the legitimacy of practices of a disciplinary domain.

Issues of truth or falsehood, and validity or invalidity are established by a syntactic structure of a subject matter. The implication of this for adult educators is that they should know and understand the different ways of structuring knowledge in their discipline (Shulman, 1986; Spires, Kerkhoff, & Graham, 2016). They are expected to identify the available alternative pedagogical forms of organizing knowledge based on the syntactic structure of that discipline. This could mean that it may not be appropriate to perceive adult educators as subject area experts, but rather as individuals who should continuously construct knowledge and understanding of the subject matter. In other words, they should use their understanding to help adult learners generate new knowledge and understanding.

2.2.2 Pedagogical content knowledge

Pedagogical content knowledge refers to the adult educator's knowledge of pedagogical methods and strategies (Shulman, 1987). This knowledge and the related principles translate into enhanced competencies and success in adult learning pedagogy (McLeod et al., 2003). It is based on understanding various ways of presenting information through explanations, illustrations, examples and demonstrations so that the adult learners grasp the subject matter. Literature shows that all adult educators are expected to possess a considerable amount of knowledge on adult learning pedagogy (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999; Shulman, 1987; Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2002). According to Cochran (1991), the nature of pedagogical content knowledge is made up of the knowledge of general pedagogical methods, which are unique to each adult educator or teacher. It provides an understanding of what teachers know about pedagogy and the content they teach to specific adult learners. It also encompasses the teacher's knowledge of the adult learners in terms of their abilities, adult learning strategies, aspirations and prior knowledge.

It is also associated with the understanding of aspects that are related to the learning difficulties that are experienced by adult learners on certain topics of a particular subject matter. Cochran (1991) explains that teachers should be engaged in a transformational process with the learners. Teachers should organise knowledge of the subject matter, interpret

it, find ways of communicating with adult learners and help them to understand the lesson. The other important component associated with pedagogical content knowledge is understanding the political, social, economic, physical and cultural environment in which learning is organised (Shulman, 1986). These are contexts with specific domains in which knowledge is constructed, attitudes are formed and human behaviour is modelled and have the potential to influence the pedagogical process (Erguig, 2012).

Research evidence shows that content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge are critical elements in a successful educational programme (Gess-Newsome, 1999). According to Cochran (1991) it has been established that teachers who have no pedagogical experience, possess superficial and incomplete pedagogical content knowledge. They often rely on direct extraction of subject matter from the curriculum. Their knowledge of the subject matter and presentation of information to learners lack a coherent logical framework. Hashweh (2005) found that pedagogical content knowledge is also generated from the pedagogical practice teachers engage in. The repeated practices of teaching a particular topic bring about knowledge construction. Thus, it can be said that teachers generate their own pedagogical practices which reflect their values and orientations to the discipline.

The literature indicates that the development of pedagogy is influenced by a range of factors that include research, theories, political influence, development agendas, professional training, pedagogical experiences and life experiences. However, the prominent ways through which facilitators acquire content knowledge are from training, from pedagogical experiences and from school curricula (Liu, Zandvliet, and Hou, 2012). Fundamentally, training plays an important role in the mastering of theory and practice of a subject matter (Paris, 2012). It helps the facilitator to acquire different skills of how and when to use a particular strategy to achieve a particular goal. Jüttner, Boone, Park and Neuhaus (2013) found that knowledge of pedagogy involves organising learning outcomes, lesson planning and facilitating interactive learning. When the facilitator is devoid of this knowledge, pedagogy is likely to be impacted negatively.

Recent studies on effective practice are pointing to the continuous interaction between what is known in theory and from pedagogical experience (Allen, Webb, and Matthews, 2016; Arbaugh, Marra, Lannin, Cheng, Merle-Johnson, and Smith, 2016; Argüelles, 2016; Girvan, Conneely, and Tangney, 2016; Johnson, Stribling, Almburg, and Vitale, 2015). These researchers found that practice in the teaching profession, as may be the case with other professions, is shaped by the practitioners' theoretical understanding of what teaching is, what learning is, and how they view learning interactions within the classrooms or in an educational

setting (Kleickmann et al., 2013). Although this understanding is influenced by the teacher's pre-service training, a great deal of it is informed by their experiential knowledge acquired through personal life experiences (Girvan et al., 2016; Kolb, 2014). It has been noted that experiential knowledge can be unconscious and intuitive, and can have a significant influence on the decisions that are made by practitioners in their practice (Kukner, 2015).

In view of this understanding, it is important at this stage to review pedagogical practices associated with adult learning. I have classified them into two categories: practices based on understanding the adult learner and practices associated with pedagogical approaches and strategies.

2.2.3 Pedagogical practices based on knowledge of the adult learner

Understanding adult learners, especially in a situated context, is important in the pedagogy of adult literacy. The aspirations of adult learners and their reasons for joining a literacy class are often shaped by their contexts. Fasokun, Katahoire and Oduaran (2005), and Merriam et al. (2012) established that adult learners are typified by their rotating social and economic roles of learning. They play the social roles of parents, guardians or spouses and they are engaged in various productive economic activities to earn a living.

These activities result in the accumulation of knowledge that is based on different experiences which they bring with them to class. This is a unique feature which distinguishes them from children (Brookfield, 1986; Kolb, 2014). Studies by Biryukova, Yakovleva, Kolesova, Lezhnina and Kuragina (2015), Gebre, Rogers, Street and Openjuru (2009), and Nabi, Rogers, and Street (2009) found that adult learning programmes have higher chances of success if they recognise and incorporate the knowledge and life experiences of their adult learners. The significance of this is that life experiences of adult learners are a reflection of attitudes, behaviours and patterns of thoughts which have a potential to either enhance or hinder adult learning. According to Boghossian (2012) adult learners create knowledge and meaning from their experiences which become crucial for facilitating adult learning. However, the literature reflects minimal research on the integration of adult learners' knowledge and life experiences in most adult learning programmes. The common trend has been that of transferring ready-made programmes by educationalists to different communities for implementation.

Pedagogical practices associated with understanding adult learners' accumulated knowledge and life experiences would include informal engagement with adult learners outside the formalised power relations of the facilitator and the adult learner, the use of objective probing

techniques, and engaging in dialogue and using narratives where adult learners can share their personal life experiences and understanding of the subject at hand (Spector, 2015; Rossiter, 2002). In addition, the pedagogical methods have to be participatory and learner-focused in which adult learners feel confident to express themselves. Adult learners can also be asked to write and reflect on their own story about the subject matter (Bullock, 2014).

Another attribute is the diversity in adult learning styles and abilities among adult learners. This is critical to adult learning especially because many adult learning programmes are organised in different settings under different conditions. Brookfield (1995, 1986), and Merriam et al. (2012) indicate that just as adult learners differ in several other attributes, they also differ in their individual learning styles and abilities. For example, some adult learners may learn best through observing other people, listening to others, seeing a demonstration, role play, discussions or through stories. Some adult learners may learn best when they are directly guided throughout the learning process. Boon and Kurvers (2015) found that some adults prefer to be taught like children, yet others feel uncomfortable when this is done. This and many other studies (Biryukova et al., 2015; Boon & Kurvers, 2015; Boon, 2011; Brookfield, 1986; Bullock, 2014; Carpenter, 1967; Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Kerka, 2002; & Rogers, 2005) have resulted in a persistent argument on whether or not there is a difference in learning styles between adults and children.

Research findings show some overlaps in the way adults and children are taught as well as significant distinguishable variations (Hughes and Schwab, 2010; Vaughn et al., 2015; Widin, Yasukawa & Chodkiewicz, 2012;). For example, it is becoming increasingly clear that adults are more independent and self-directed learners than children. Their multiple socio-economic roles and responsibilities compel them to learn how to apply knowledge for immediate use as opposed to children (Biryukova et al., 2015; Polson, 1993; Rogers & Horrocks, 2010). This is a reason why adult learners are often described as focused and goal oriented in their learning. As such, they are known to join learning programmes consciously and voluntarily for a particular and specific purpose.

Therefore, in view of the existing arguments, it can be said that understanding differences in adult learners may play an important role in reframing and modifying the pedagogies that are necessary for achieving desired learning. This would involve using eclectic pedagogical practices that comprise, for example, of story-telling, panel or forum discussions, dialogue, field trips, apprenticeship, role plays and possibly drama. These strategies will allow the educator to address his or her adult learners' diversities in learning styles and abilities.

According to Brookfield (1995), the significance of this is that it helps learners realise their self-esteem and confidence: subsequently, it avoids under-estimating their potential and deals with anxieties such as the fear of failure. The latter has the potential to hinder adult learners from getting actively involved in learning activities. Therefore, a good facilitator is expected to take all these issues into consideration and to employ different pedagogical strategies to help learners in their efforts to attain learning goals.

Another essential attribute of adult learners is their expectations of the educator or facilitator and the learning programme. Naturally, every person would develop different expectations of an event or activity that they are to attend. Similarly, adult learners have different expectations of the learning situation and processes involved. For example, considering the important role played by the educator in adult learning, learners may have several expectations of the educator on issues that include how knowledgeable the educator is in the subject matter, the educator's interest and passion for his or her work, her/his competence, and what the adult learners are likely to learn. Ball, Thames and Phelps (2008), Brookfield (1986), Burgess (2016), and Kleickmann et al. (2013) confirm that some learners are interested in interacting with the an educator who has a detailed understanding of the subject matter: they enjoy learning when the educator displays a firm understanding of the subject and when the lesson is characterised by clear explanations, illustrations and the use of appropriate examples. In addition, in a study which focused on two educators, Erguig (2012) found that passion is also another important factor to be considered in stimulating and enhancing the learners' interest in the process of learning. He found that the educator who is passionate about what they do is likely to inspire and encourage learners to achieve their goals as opposed to someone who is not passionate.

The educator should be someone who is eager and committed to helping adult learners to learn. By so doing the educator will be representing a model of good practice that will motivate the learners to learn (Biryukova et al., 2015; Brookfield, 1995; Grigsby, 1988).

Notwithstanding which pedagogical approach the educator follows, it is essential that he or she employs some form of assessment to understand the adult learners' expectations right from the beginning of the learning cycle. This assessment can either be written or oral and is used to form an idea of what the learners expect from the class and also to understand their motivations for joining the class (Ginsburg & Gal, 1996; Girvan et al., 2016; RoCHAT & Rossier, 2016; Van Vliet, Winnips, & Brouwer, 2015). Nonetheless, even if adult learners' expectations are known, it is not always easy to meet them as aspirations and abilities tend to differ among

learners. Therefore, Drago-Severson (2011), and Grigsby (1988) advise that this can be harmonised by the educator through carefully explaining the aim of the learning activity to the learners as honestly and clearly as possible.

The importance of having knowledge of adult learners as discussed in the foregoing is that it should help educators make decisions on a number of pedagogical considerations. It should guide them to decide on what to teach when to teach and fundamentally how to teach. Therefore, this leads to the need to review the existing pedagogical approaches, methods and strategies used for teaching in adult learning specifically in the teaching of literacy practices.

2.2.4 Practices associated with pedagogical approaches and strategies

The pedagogy of adult literacy has been dominated by two approaches that are influenced by the traditional-cognitive and sociocultural theories of literacy. The traditional-cognitive approach consists of *synthetic* and *analytic* pedagogy which are embedded within *expository*, *discovery*, *participatory* and *evaluatory* pedagogical methods (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007; Rogers, 2009). These are now reviewed.

2.2.4.1 Synthetic pedagogy

The literature shows that synthetic pedagogy is sometimes referred to as word-sentence combined teaching. It is based on building words and sentences from individual letters. This is a bottom-up syllabic, phonic and phonetic teaching (Sticht, 2005). Using this pedagogy, vowels and syllables are taught first, and then their sounds, and finally they are combined to create words and sentences. The emphasis in this teaching is for learners to master the sound of letters and syllables before they learn to make words and construct sentences (Larson & Marsh, 2014). Sticht (2005: 2) summarises it this way: “the teaching of reading is essentially a means of decoding the written text to recover a spoken message which is then comprehended as usual”. This strategy is helpful for teaching reading because learners are enabled to deal with the sounds of unfamiliar text by themselves. However, the emphasis on teaching the sounds may cause adult learners to pay minimal attention to the meaning of the word or words: adult learners would concentrate on sounds rather than the importance of reading with understanding. Conversely, analytic pedagogy attempts to give a more pedagogically balanced view.

2.2.4.2 Analytic pedagogy

Analytic pedagogy is top-down teaching. It is concerned with the meaning of the text as the most important aspect in teaching reading and writing. According to Sticht (2005), and Johnston, McGeown and Watson (2012) the essence of teaching reading analytically is to generate meaning, and text is used to guide the learner in constructing the meaning of the text. This is considered crucial in the analysis process of sentences or words. It begins with the whole text or sentence which is then broken down into words, then syllables and finally letters or vowels. The advantage of this method is that it exposes learners to the meaning of a text from the start of the lesson.

This method has been criticised for being restricted to printed text and that it may not be helpful for learners who have limited or no access to printed text. At the same time, it does not seem to prepare learners to work with unfamiliar text. Considering the weaknesses of each of these methods, research shows that it is helpful to combine these methods in the classroom: this is commonly referred to as eclectic teaching. This helps in mitigating the weaknesses of each of these pedagogies. In practice, eclectic pedagogy draws on expository, discovery, participatory and evaluatory pedagogical methods.

2.2.5 Expository pedagogy

Expository pedagogy belongs to traditional pedagogical methods known as a teacher-centred pedagogy that is authoritarian in nature. However, it can be used more creatively by combining other interactive strategies. In practice, its characteristics are that adult learners are usually passive recipients of information and knowledge is transmitted by the teacher (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007). Through the lecture-teaching strategy and demonstrations, the teacher presents the content which should be mastered by the adult learners. Those who have explored the expository pedagogical strategy (Gargallo Lopez, Garfella Esteban, Sahuquillo Mateo, Verde Peleato, & Jimenez Rodriguez, 2015; Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007; Heywood, 1992; Kane, 2004; Rogers, 2009; Vreman-de Olde, de Jong, & Gijlers, 2013) have established that it is the most used pedagogical strategy by teachers. However, in recent times expository pedagogy has been challenged by the information from studies focusing on learner-centred pedagogy which has found that teacher-centred pedagogy has many flaws which hamper effective learning (Kolb, 2014; Moate & Cox, 2015; Schweisfurth, 2015; Thompson, 2013).

Hamilton-Ekeke (2007: 1870) records that the rationale behind expository pedagogy is that “direct instructions given by the teacher is the most effective means of learning” and “this is

good pedagogy that makes learning more meaningful and enhances performance”. This is a misconception in view of what is known from research on informal learning. According to Rogers (2009: 3) expository pedagogy is commonly used for the following reasons:

- a) because we were taught that way, it seems most natural to us as teachers;
- b) because we are concerned about the subject matter of what we are teaching...and we want our learners to know this material;
- c) because we think more of teaching than learning, of what we shall do in class than of what they shall do;
- d) because we think the learners need us, that they cannot find out things by themselves; that we need to impart knowledge to them, because we possess knowledge and they do not; because it paints us as the ‘expert’ (and we like that) and the learners as ‘ignorant’ (and we like that too); and
- e) because we believe that if the learners know something, they will of course act on it although experience tells us this is not always true.

The problem with the expository pedagogical method is that it regards the adult learner as an empty vessel, though studies done on learner-centred pedagogies show that this is not true about learners. The teacher using the expository pedagogical method is in absolute control of every aspect of the teaching-learning process and adult learners rarely take an active role. Though this method has been criticized on some of these issues and found to be less useful for many adult learners (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007), it is important to note that it can be beneficial to some learners especially those who do well by listening to instructions. However, in the context of adult learning, which is anchored in experiential learning, expository pedagogy is not beneficial if used alone. It may require the integration of participatory pedagogical methods.

2.2.6 Participatory pedagogy

Research shows that participatory pedagogy is associated with active learning (Kane, 2004) and it is the hallmark of adult learning. The adult learning literature indicates that adult learners learn better by actively taking part in learning tasks (Knowles, 1974; Rogers and Street, 2012). Participatory pedagogy is embedded in the adult learner’s everyday life activities. For this reason, their active involvement in learning becomes critical. Campbell and Burnaby (2001: 55) found that “participatory pedagogical practices encourage educators and adult learners to engage in free discussions in which they exchange ideas and collective exploration of experiences”. This implies that participatory pedagogy emphasises the collective interaction

between the adult learners and the educator. Although in the general practice of adult literacy-learning we see that the facilitator or educator is viewed as all knowing, and adult learners are reduced to spectators by merely responding to facilitator-driven questions (Rogers & Horrocks, 2010; Rogers, 2009). What seems to be referred to as participatory pedagogy in practice is divorced from the context of adult learning.

Rogers (2009) recommends that participatory pedagogical methods should be based on group teaching and learning strategies: groups of adult learners should work together to help each other with their learning. The essence is that adult learners should share their knowledge, experience and views. Adult learning is a joint enterprise; adult learners should become a learning co-operative. However, this is usually not the case in organised adult-learning contexts, either formal or non-formal (Nabi et al., 2009). Participatory pedagogy is crucial for non-formal adult learning because co-operative learning is ingrained in the everyday social practices of adult learners, especially in Africa. In support of this Fasokun et al. (2005:135) record that “African adults take pride in working together, because of their belief in proverbial sayings that ‘a bird will always use another bird’s feathers to feather its own nest’ and ‘when spider webs unite, they can tie up a lion’. This emphasises the value and importance of co-operative learning and more importantly participatory pedagogy in an African milieu.

However, the literature (Abramo & Austin, 2014; Argüelles, 2016; Avsec & Jamšek, 2015; Archer & Cottingham, 1997; Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007) reveals that the pedagogical practices used in adult literacy-learning are often slanted towards the transmission of knowledge in which adult learners are mere recipients. This can be addressed by using an eclectic approach as suggested by Rogers (2010), and Campbell and Burnaby (2001) in which the educators give adult learners a task (discovery pedagogy) and also become learners by sharing ideas, knowledge, and experiences as a group (participatory pedagogy). At the end of the lesson, the facilitator can use other strategies such as expository pedagogy to provide a summary of what has been shared. The rationale behind this should be that adult learning pedagogy is generally anchored in the understanding that learning and teaching are social practices that are situated in a context. This implies that different pedagogical methods and strategies are relevant to different circumstances which are based on the learning contexts.

2.2.7 Discovery pedagogy

Discovery pedagogy is a learner-centred method that is part of the investigative approaches to teaching. As the name suggests, it involves the facilitator of an adult learning class posing a problem to adult learners and allowing them to find solutions by either guiding or without

guiding them (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007; Heywood, 1992). Similarly, Rogers (2009) observes that discovery pedagogy is associated with adult learners finding out by themselves what new knowledge they need. It allows them to discover new ways of solving problems and in the process, they develop relevant skills of their own. For Kane (2004), discovery pedagogy is part of the active learning approaches in which teaching is the facilitation as opposed to the transmission of knowledge.

It is clear from these views that discovery pedagogy is centred on the adult learner who is encouraged to discover new skills and ways of knowing. It reduces dependence on the facilitator or teacher as the adult learner becomes independent. In practice, discovery pedagogy is rarely used by teachers or educators. Perhaps this could be attributed to an observation made by Heywood (1992: 3) that the “majority of teachers, muddle along with relatively traditional pedagogical methods, which are not based on the results of research, but on what was successful for them in school and, or with which they feel comfortable and adapted to suit the prevailing system...”. Unfortunately, this is what transpires in adult learning practice. Ideally, this should not be the case because adult learning facilitators are expected to use different pedagogical strategies that are mediated by the relevant context and the aspirations of the adult learners. There is no doubt that discovery pedagogy is very important and relevant to adult learning: particularly when it comes to finding solutions to problems as adult learners are naturally problem centred. They are involved in solving problems in their daily lives, therefore, this method can help them to develop new skills and alternative strategies for solutions to their problems.

2.2.8 Evaluatory pedagogy

Evaluatory pedagogy is associated with determining whether or not adult learners have acquired the necessary skills and have understood the learning content (Rogers, 2009: 4). It seeks to find out how well they have acquired skills and what they can do with them. This assessment can in itself become a method of new learning. It can be used to help adult learners find new ways of understanding concepts more fully as they try to use new knowledge or skills. Therefore, the purpose of evaluatory pedagogy is not to make adult learners feel that they are wrong, but to encourage them to improve their learning (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007; Kleickmann et al., 2013; Rogers & Horrocks, 2010). From my experience of working with adults, I have found that adult learners do not appreciate to be told directly that they are wrong. Rather, they should be made aware of the areas where they could improve upon in a more diplomatic way. In other words, adult learners should be enabled to judge for themselves that they are wrong and make efforts to improve themselves.

In view of the above pedagogies, literacy is generally taught today as a universal set of skills that should be mastered by everyone and that could be used in every context (Rogers & Street, 2012; Street, 2014). Against this unilateral and authoritarian approach, alternative pedagogical approaches to adult literacy-learning have been developed by scholars who believe that learning and teaching are eclectic social processes. The inspiration for these approaches was drawn from the work of Paulo Freire on adult literacy-learning. Because this study regards adult literacy as social practices, which draw heavily on discovery and participatory pedagogical methods, it is necessary to review the Freirean Literacy Approach (FLA), which led to the birth of other approaches that include the Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowerment Community Techniques (REFLECT) and Fact Association Meaning Action (FAMA).

2.2.9 Sociocultural pedagogies: the Freirean literacy approach

The Freirean literacy approach is based on teaching literacy skills to adults in their sociocultural contexts that include the political, economic, and social spheres. The aim of this approach is to empower the marginalised and oppressed people in society through participatory literacy learning. Freire (1993) believes that this approach should stimulate progressive feelings among adult learners on social, political and cultural issues in their contexts as a starting point for learning. There are two important elements of this approach: dialogue and problem-posing. Dialogue represents the idea that pedagogy is two-way communication among equal parties. The dimension of equality is premised on the understanding that both learners and educators possess knowledge that is exchanged during the learning process. However, this is rare in the adult-literacy classes that I have attended during my teaching practice and field research. The idea behind the dialogue strategy is that the educator has the knowledge of reading and writing, and the adult learners possess knowledge of their everyday reality, which should be acknowledged by both parties and shared in the classroom.

Problem-posing relates to stimulating problem-solving through discussions. It involves using pictures, short stories, plays and many other learning materials that depict a real-life problem. These materials generate possible solutions and actions for solving a prevailing problem in the lives of the people. Elias (1975: 208-209) details that this approach has three main stages. The first stage consists of a collaborative exploration of the sociocultural context of the participants. This stage is important for identifying and locating the literacy-learning content, which Freire (1993) calls generative words. The second stage involves the selection of generative words from a long list that was generated in stage one. The words selected are

based on their ability to generate emotional issues or feelings among the people. These words are used to confront the oppressive sociocultural forces that exist in the realities of the participants. Finally, the third stage involves the actual teaching and learning of literacy skills. The learning content is centred on the generative words that are presented in the form of pictures, stories, plays and so forth.

This approach is based on the analytic and synthetic pedagogical strategies. The difference with the traditional approach is that Freire used both analytic and synthetic pedagogy creatively by involving learners through participatory strategies such as dialogue and problem-posing. Rather than starting with teaching adults the vowels and syllables of words as if the adult learners were empty vessels, he uses the learners' personal experiences of the issues that confront them. The progressive asking of questions on what the adult learners can identify in pictures, how they interpret what they see, what they think could be the causes and what should be done to resolve the issues, helps them to engage in a deep analysis of the problem and to discover solutions to the problem that is presented in the picture code. Ideally, when a generative word is analysed it is broken into syllables and then used as a starting point for creating new words. This approach is fundamental for teaching adult learners to analyse issues critically and to link them with their actions in real life.

2.2.9.1 Reflect pedagogy

The reflect approach to literacy (REFLECT) has been described as an effective pedagogical practice for teaching literacy skills to adults (Omolewa, 2008). It was developed by ActionAid in the 1990s from field experiences that were gathered in Uganda, Bangladesh and El Salvador (Cottingham, Metcalf & Phnuyal, 1998). It draws on both Paulo Freire's pedagogy of literacy and Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) or Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). REFLECT emphasises the linking of literacy to the wider sociocultural context. Teaching literacy in REFLECT enhances the adult learners' abilities to analyse local concerns and to take individual or collective action (Cottingham et al., 1998). It relates to Rogers's (1999) Real Literacy Approach (RLA) in which locally generated text is emphasised as opposed to the use of a decontextualised primer. In REFLECT, there is no primer or printed text apart from the facilitator's guide. The learning content is generated from the participants' constructions of maps, diagrams and matrices that represent their local realities. Archer and Cottingham (1997) explain that this approach is useful for systemising the learner's local knowledge and for promoting an in-depth analysis of local concerns. The advantage of this approach is that it helps learners to engage in dialogue and to assume ownership of the learning by using the locally sourced material.

The effect of the REFLECT approach differs from the individual to the group level. It appears that at the individual level the approach is likely to have more immediate effects compared to the group level as long as the individual remains consciously resolute to learn (Archer & Cottingham, 1997). Whereas, at group or community level, the REFLECT approach is only effective under certain conditions. A study by Dyer and Choksi (1998) found that communal will, trust, and cooperation are critical elements for the success of the REFLECT approach at the group level. This relates to Freire (1993) who said that dialogical learning occurs when there is love, trust, hope and humility among the participants. Notwithstanding, the REFLECT approach has been used in many countries in Africa. For example, in Zambia, the REFLECT approach was prominent from 1990 to 2000 for generating themes and content for adult literacy classes particularly by NGOs (Ministry of Education, 2010); its current application remains unclear because of a lack of research on pedagogy in adult literacy learning.

2.2.9.2 Fact association meaning and action pedagogy

Fact association meaning and action (FAMA) is more directly related to the Freirean literacy approach. It was developed by ProLiteracy Worldwide, a North American based NGO for teaching literacy skills to adults among poor communities. It is a learner-centred approach used to stimulate discussions towards solving problems. Straubhaar (2014) explains that this approach is premised on the idea that every person is bound by different cultural experiences that shape her/his thinking and actions. It integrates teaching literacy practices from lived experiences by using picture codes, music, skits, drama and other materials that depict a particular real-life situation/s.

Lee (2004) posits that there are four stages in this approach, Fact, Association, Meaning and Action. The Fact stage is based on getting participants to describe what they see in the picture code or what they hear in a song. The Association stage consists of relating the identified issue to reality. The Meaning stage is based on the interpretation of the code based on the existing reality. The final stage is Action that includes implementing what has been learned. At all these stages, there are a series of questions posed to generate solutions to the problem. The expected outcome is to encourage participants to solve their own individual and collective problems through learning to read and write.

2.2.10 Conducive pedagogical environments

It should be noted that the successful utilisation of the foregoing pedagogical approaches, methods, and related strategies in influencing learning is not possible without the educators

possessing and using essential teaching skills: referred to as pedagogical skills in this study. This is particularly critical in today's ever-changing global environment. Central to these are skills for creating an environment in which learners feel comfortable and confident of their success in learning. A learning environment is a representation of everything that goes on in a learning session.

Radovan and Makovec (2015) explain that the adult-learning environment constitutes all necessary components associated with learning. They include the educators' pedagogical and administrative skills, and the learners' personal values and beliefs. That is, the adult-learning environment is a symbolic representation of all physical, psychological and socio-cultural aspects that should influence an educational activity. Liu et al. (2012) observe that the learning environment constitutes the surroundings in which learning is organised and all the necessary elements associated with the intended learning. It is not only a milieu for input or receiving output, but also a space of thought in which what is learned does not only linger in the minds of learners but represents the entire arrangement of the surroundings and involves change. Thus, the learning environment consists of both psychological and physical environments.

A psychological adult learning environment should be co-operative. Liu et al. (2012) explain that it should be a secure and safe space that gives learners the opportunities to engage with one another and share meanings through discussions in different forms of collaborations. The participatory or interactive nature of the learning environment makes it possible to transform inappropriate attitudes among learners. It creates avenues for learner support and enhanced learning. That is, the learning environment should be challenging to stimulate learners' growth (Biryukova et al., 2015; Brookfield, 1986; Gravett, 2005). The significance of the psychological learning environment is that learners perform better if they perceive their learning environment as theirs. This is supported by Radovan and Makovec (2015) who found that adult learners' perception of the learning environment has a direct influence on their motivation to learn.

A physical learning environment should be characterised by physical features, for instance an adequate venue for learning activities and other necessary physical facilities. This environment should make the adult learners feel comfortable and should support their interaction. Choi, Van Merriënboer and Paas (2014) explain that a physical learning environment is an entity of physical properties in a place where teaching and learning may occur. It represents physical elements, including learning materials and physical infrastructure like buildings. It is not easy to separate the learning task from the physical environment. Brookfield (1986), Darkenwald and Merriam (1982), and Fasokun et al. (2005) share the

understanding that adult learners engage in learning in any context at any time convenient to them. However, organised adult learning, which includes formal or non-formal learning, requires a favourable physical learning environment because it involves the use of specialised skills and knowledge of adult learning in one place to achieve learning gains (Boon & Kurvers, 2015; Pitikoe & Preece, 2016). Pedagogical tools and learning activities should be seen as an integrated whole in the physical learning environment.

For example, the venue could be carefully arranged in such a way that audio-visual aids, lighting, furniture and the general arrangement of chairs are adequate for learning to take place. Knowles (1970) recommends that the furniture, whether in a building or open space environment, should be informally arranged to allow learners to feel at ease. Similarly, Temli Durmuş (2016) found that U-shaped and O-shaped seating arrangements improve learner interaction and enhance learning gains. This is important because just like most people, adult learners hold different perceptions of reality. For example, Merriam et al. (2012) and Knowles (1970) state that adult learners tend to associate the arrangement of chairs in a row and the use of a chalkboard with the learning activities of children. The effect of this is that it militates against co-operation and learning. Thus, modifying the arrangement of chairs to the preference of the adult learners may create a positive learning environment in which learners achieve their goals.

Although the 21st-century has been characterised by the recognition of the learning environment as being both psychological and physical, there has been minimal research on the physical learning environment. Cleveland and Fisher (2013) observe that when the phrase 'learning environment' is used, reference is made to the social and psychological environment rather than the physical learning environment. Even in the research, the physical learning environment and its pedagogical design have been ignored, as many studies have only focused on the social and psychological learning milieu (Aldridge, Fraser, Bell, & Dorman, 2012).

Furthermore, Cleveland and Fisher (2013), and Radovan and Makovec (2015) hold the view that scholars who have attempted to explore the physical learning environment have focused on isolated aspects. Many of them seem to focus on "spaces" and not "places", which indicates a negation of the physical learning environment. In addition, these studies have failed to produce a strong theoretical background explanation for studying interactions among learners. For this reason, it appears that the way forward is to re-examine the assumptions which have been underlying the educational activities and how best to integrate the physical space into

the 21st-century pedagogy (Cleveland & Fisher, 2013). This means that the focus should be to integrate both “space” and “place” in exploring the physical learning environment and at the same time to consider the pedagogical practices.

The foregoing discussion has generated an in-depth understanding of adult learning pedagogy. At this point, it is important to review how this knowledge is reflected in the practice of non-formal adult learning pedagogy.

2.3 Non-formal adult learning

The notion of non-formal adult learning is derived from the concepts Non-Formal Learning (NFL) and Adult Learning (AL). It seems the dynamic nature of NFL makes it possible to be provided in different forms as Non-Formal Adult Learning (NFAL), Non-Formal Adult Basic Education (NFABE), Non-Formal Adult Literacy Learning (NFALL) and several others. According to Coombs and Ahmed (1974: 8) NFL is “any organized, systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal schooling system. Its objective is to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups of people in the population, adults as well as children”. This is to say that it varies in terms of learners, their learning goals and contexts. However, the challenge with this definition is that, though it has been influential in education practice, it has not received international acceptance.

For example, Rogers (2005:3) says that the understanding of the term NFL has become more muddled than it was in the 1970s. Today when the term is used, it appears to be used for alternative forms of schooling for children, rather than less formal learning programmes for adults. Yasunaga (2014: 6) states that the meaning of NFL has evolved based on scholars’ reflections on the changes in the education landscape of concepts like ‘learning’ and ‘education’. There has been a shift from seeing non-formal and formal learning as opposites, to viewing them as complementary, because the boundaries between them are blurred. In addition, the difficulty of having a clear meaning of NFL is further complicated by its lack of specificity in terms of goals and clientele. In support of this, Linden and Manuel (2011: 470) observe that NFL is not specific, and that it refers to the general pedagogical and learning resources, and pedagogical approaches that formal learning does not have, but essentially should have.

In an effort to harmonise the different views on the meaning of NFL, Rogers (2005) suggests the need to consider certain aspects of non-formal learning which are different from formal learning: for instance, that it is a system comprised of a collection of programmes, a process

with pedagogical relationships, and a practice or professional activity carried out by professionals outside the formal learning system. Additionally, Rogers (2014a) indicates that NFL can be seen as a lifelong learning process which is not provided by an education institution and does not aim at certification. It is intentional from the perspective of the learner and structured in terms of learning objectives, learner support and a time-frame. Though this view may provide a unifying and progressive step towards the clearer conceptualisation of NFL, the concept NFL has not been fully integrated and accepted by educational planners and policy makers. In practice, education is largely discussed in terms of formal, non-formal and informal education and the concept learning is defined in varied ways and mostly as context based.

Hoppers (2006) says that the uncertainty in clearly defining NFL and distinguishing it from formal learning, has led to a stance by some educationalists that NFL has lost its relevance in modern times. However, Romi and Schmida (2009a) contend in defence of NFL that it is the main enlightening power for the postmodern time, which has emerged as a global education industry, because compared to formal learning (FL), NFL responds faster to the immediate needs of an ever-changing society. Mayombe and Lombard (2015) claim that NFL remains a means for meeting the educational and developmental needs of individuals, communities and society as a whole. Furthermore, Rogers (2014:16) records that “the balance between NFL and FL is changing. In recent times, NFL is becoming more important and closely linked to FL”. This is evidenced by the fact that non-formal learning takes place in formal settings and formal learning occurs in non-formal contexts.

Those who believe in the relevance of NFL have embraced it by naming their educational programmes – adult learning, literacy-learning, and agriculture extension – in response to the educational aspirations of their clientele. In view of this, Yasunaga (2014), and Romi and Schmida (2009a) have suggested that NFL should be conceived in terms of three broad areas namely: (1) supplementary non-formal learning which is concerned with remedial education to satisfy the unfulfilled provision of formal learning; (2) complementary non-formal learning associated with vocational and skills development; and (3) alternative non-formal learning which is innovative and responsive to the emerging learning needs as societies evolve.

NFL is currently defined in terms of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) to help facilitate comparisons of educational statistics among countries (Yasunaga, 2014:7) as “education that is institutionalised, intentional and planned by an education provider”. It is seen as an additional, alternative or complementary form of education to formal

learning within the lifelong learning context (UNESCO, 2013a; Yasunaga, 2014). Although this definition emphasises standardisation, it does not display a significant departure from Coombs and Ahmed's (1974) definition that includes both adults and children and which has influenced what is understood by NFL today.

What can be noted from the preceding definition is the problem of emphasising standardisation whose potential harm is a possible extension of the influence of formal learning on non-formal learning, thereby perpetuating the marginalisation of non-formal learning. As Vega and Bajaj (2016) observe “the emphasis on standardisation is effectively responsible for hindering the opportunity to achieve equity in education which should be based on the needs of learners and contexts, rather than the supply of the education providers”. For this reason, I see non-formal learning generally to be serving the needs of formal learning rather than being responsive to the aspirations of its clientele and their specific contexts. This programme-based approach to NFL stands in opposition to the good practice trend in the 21st century that views learning as situated within a particular context (Wang, 2007; Yardley, Teunissen, & Dornan, 2012) and not as something universal.

Therefore, seeing NFL as planned and organised learning activities carried out outside the formal learning framework to meet the diverse learning goals of both adult and young learners, remains influential both in theory and practice (Coombs & Ahmed, 1974). Conversely, I adopted the following view of NFL which has been cited in many studies, reports and education documents both at national and international levels (Rogers, 2014a, 2005; Romi & Schmida, 2009a; Silberman-Keller, 2003; Tight, 2004; UNESCO, 2013a, 2006b; Van der Linden, 2015; Yasunaga, 2014). The main characteristics of NFL are that it should be flexible and receptive to changes and improvements in adult learning pedagogy. It should accommodate diverse learners and their aspirations in different settings and environments. It should not discriminate but should accommodate everyone in a given community: children, youths, adults, and persons with disabilities. Principally, it should be a type of education which is driven by the aspirations of its clientele.

Rogers (2005) observes that the above-mentioned ideal approach is different from reality, as NFL tends to be shaped more by formal learning practices. Notwithstanding, Yasunaga (2014) says that some non-formal learning programmes make an effort to cater for the diverse learning aspirations of learners and to involve a wide range of participants, including both learners and programme providers. For example, Ngaka et al. (2012), and Vega and Bajaj (2016) observe that some providers of non-formal learning programmes involve the private

sector, national governments, non-governmental organisations and faith-based organisations. Much of its focus especially in Africa has been on youth and adult literacy-learning within the broader context of lifelong learning (Alidou & Glanz, 2015; UNESCO, 2013c; Van der Linden, 2015).

2.3.1 Rationale for the provision of non-formal learning

The rationale for NFL originated during the global education discourse of the 1960s that was compelled by a realisation that formal learning was failing to accommodate the learning needs of all learners (Rogers, 2014a; Romi & Schmida, 2009b). In the 21st century, this focus has been renewed and supported by research findings and international discussions on education in the context of Educational for All (UNESCO, 2006a) and Education for Sustainable Development Goals 2030 (UNESCO, 2015). Rogers (2005) and Yasunaga (2014) observe that non-formal learning has returned to the global education agenda as it was realised that formal learning alone has failed to respond to the education needs of modern society. Therefore, NFL has been redefined as an alternative either to supplement formal learning that is insufficient or to provide literacy-learning opportunities for youths and adults that are independent of dysfunctional or inadequate formal learning contexts (Hoppers, 2006; Kalenda, 2014; Romi & Schmida, 2009b; Van der Linden, 2015).

In addition, non-formal learning is seen as providing education for the achievement of people's rights to education. According to Vega and Bajaj (2016) the realisation of the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR), which includes education, implies the use of more flexible modes of educational provision and pedagogical practices than that which non-formal learning offers. Ideally, NFL should provide educational opportunities for diverse populations in enhancing their freedom, empowerment and growth. However, in the current context of NFL, this reality is far-fetched because in practice it appears to be more aligned towards formal learning practices. Despite this, the belief that non-formal learning provides alternative learning pathways for many people, remains engrained among development agencies and some scholars (Alidou & Glanz, 2015; Aitchinson & Alidou, 2009; Banda, 2008; UNESCO, 2013a, 2006b). For this reason, UNESCO (2013a) recommended the use of non-formal learning as an avenue for attaining literacy for all. However, due to a lack of research, it is not clear what efforts have been made by national governments to adhere to this recommendation. Furthermore, the support for non-formal learning has remained minimal in Africa and there seems to be a lack of textbooks and source books for teaching literacy in adult learning programmes on this continent (Alidou & Glanz, 2015; Benavot, 2015; UNESCO, 2013c).

The literature indicates many gaps in the availability and accessibility of these textbooks among literacy learning providers and facilitators. In situations where these textbooks are available, the level of training of literacy-learning facilitators on how to use them remains unclear. A dated source but still relevant to what occurs in many countries in Africa today is Rogers's (2006) qualitative study which established that the training of adult literacy facilitators in developing countries is characterised by much reluctance and neglect. Most governments acknowledge the lack of training for adult literacy facilitators but never take action to improve this situation. The neglect is also evident in many programme reviews on adult literacy-learning and policies. Providers of literacy learning programmes have continued to engage volunteers who have minimal or no training in teaching literacy to adults. Despite all these challenges, studies by Bullock (2014), Ngaka et al. (2012), Mayombe and Lombard (2015), Rogers (2014a), and Straubhaar (2014) have established that NFL remains critical to the education discourse in the 21st century. This review on the rationale for NFL would be incomplete without exploring the nature of NFL pedagogy.

2.3.2 Non-formal adult learning's expectations of pedagogy

There is a dearth of information on non-formal learning pedagogy. The ongoing debate in literature is whether non-formal learning should have its own pedagogy or rely on formal learning pedagogies. However, NFL encompasses different forms of educational programmes and establishing a universal pedagogy is almost impossible. In this study, I limited my focus on NFL pedagogy to the context of adult learning. In support of this, Rogers (2014a: 61) indicates that “non-formal learning is more adaptable to learners... that learners can engage more directly and influence what is taught and how it is taught”. The expectations of non-formal adult learning pedagogy should be learner-centred. This implies that its pedagogical strategies should be shaped by the context, clientele and diverse learning aspirations of the learners. The role of the facilitator should be to guide and manage the learning sessions to the benefit of every learner. However, this may only be possible when the facilitator is able to perceive him or herself as a situated learner (Lave & Wenger, 1998). In other words, when the facilitators engage in any form of adult learning, they are not immune from learning from the learners.

This is based on the fact that adult learners have life experiences from which the educator can learn something. Thus, life experience is another dimension which can be associated with non-formal pedagogy. Since NFL is less structured, its pedagogy should be closely linked to the life experiences of learners. There is a common belief that “we teach who we are” meaning that life experiences shape our values and views on pedagogy, and these may become the

pinnacle of pedagogical practice in non-formal adult learning. Bullock (2014), whose research is based on self-study, describes life experiences as instrumental in enabling educators to reflect on their practices in class for the benefit of learners because these experiences offer a rich context for pedagogical analysis. The assumption behind this seems to rest on the idea that pedagogical practices are grounded in human relationships (Westbrook et al., 2013), and that they should be constructed from life experiences and every interaction that occurs between the facilitator and learners (Zawilinski, Richard & Henry, 2016; Ziv, 2015).

The premise that educators should reflect on their pedagogical practices is linked to the dimension of the social construction of pedagogy: educators' values and set of principles about teaching should be constantly challenged and reframed in the context of the aspirations of their learners. However, it is unclear to what extent and how often educators engage in personal reflections on their values or on their pedagogical strategies. Practically, this reflection may involve modifying or developing new pedagogies in response to the prevailing learning conditions (Canuto, 2015). The modified pedagogies may require the educator to take a keener interest in knowing individual learners (but this is rarely done) because the social construction of pedagogy entails that teaching is also a social construct that is typified by high-level interaction (Hoppers, 2006; Kalenda, 2014). Teaching should represent a reciprocal relationship between the educator and the learners. It should practically be defined by a dialogical practice that is characterised by the exchange of roles in which a learner should also become a teacher, and a teacher a learner. But in practice, the literature shows that this is not the case because teaching is often teacher-centred (Rabekoka, Hvorecky, Manazmentu, & Slovakia, 2015; Van Vliet et al., 2015).

In addition, the social construction of NFL pedagogy reflects creativity and innovation in ensuring that NFL remains responsive to the needs of learners. In this regard, pedagogical practices could involve the use of everyday creative practices embedded in the sociocultural environment of the learners (Schweisfurth, 2015). According to Nilan (2015), this is critical because what is perceived as natural in an environment is always culturally and socially embedded. Thus, non-formal adult learning pedagogy should embrace learning which is rooted in the cultural and social experiences of the learners which are essential for stimulating and engaging them.

Modern studies on pedagogy in NFL have remained scarce. Only outdated and a few contemporary studies are available on this subject, yet NFL programmes have continued to grow exponentially (Yasunaga, 2014). They have become a fundamental aspect of the

renewed vision of lifelong learning in view of Education for Sustainable Development (ESD), which was launched by UNESCO (UNESCO, 2015). However, pedagogy continues to be neglected or even omitted in the action plans and national policies of governments (Schweisfurth, 2015). For example, in Zambia the Ministry of Education (2010:69; 2015:24) acknowledges that the pedagogic approaches, methods and learning materials that are used in non-formal adult literacy classes in the country are outdated and require revision because times and contexts have significantly changed. However, nothing significant has been done to address this situation. Furthermore, this acknowledgement by the ministry does not include details of the pedagogical practices that are used in non-formal adult literacy classes.

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the literature on pedagogical practices that are associated with non-formal adult literacy-learning and the expectations of non-formal learning pedagogy. The pedagogical practices that were discussed included pedagogical approaches, methods and strategies and the knowledge of the adult learner. Pedagogical approaches include expository, discovery, participatory and evaluatory teaching that are applied either from the cognitive or sociocultural perspectives. Ingrained in the cognitive pedagogy are synthetic and analytic pedagogy. The chapter indicated that the pedagogical practices that are associated with knowledge of the adult learner are crucial in the effective practice of adult learning. The review also indicated that in practice there are many gaps in terms of both the content and pedagogical knowledge which are held by the educators on adult learning. This has limited their practice to teacher-centred pedagogical methods as opposed to eclectic or learner-centred approaches. In terms of non-formal learning pedagogy, the literature showed that NFL pedagogy should be linked to the adult learners' life experiences, it should be learner-centred and it should be influenced by the sociocultural context of the learners. However, there is little information in the literature on the practical application of these pedagogical expectations in reality. In the next chapter, I discuss the theoretical framework that was used to understand pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.

CHAPTER THREE

FRAMING THE STUDY THEORETICALLY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented a discussion of the literature review, which was based on research-related literature. Similarly, this chapter is a continuation of the literature review. However, the focus is on the theory-based literature. This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section deals with the use of theory and how and why it was applied to this study. The second part focuses on adult learning pedagogical theories, which are the humanistic, experiential and transformational theories. The third section is a review of the two broad theories of adult literacy-learning pedagogy, which are cognitive and sociocultural theories. In the fourth and final section, I focus on consolidating the theoretical framework which underpinned this study.

3.2 Views on theory

There are different views on the meaning of theory among scholars. For example, Grix (2010) says that theory is a rational explanation of reality through which we develop a better understanding of a phenomenon. Bordens and Abbott (2011) postulate that theory is also referred to as a paradigm that is a partially verified statement of a relationship that cannot be directly observed. Neuman (2014) confirms that theory in social science research comprises abstract ideas which can be both firmly and loosely interconnected. This means that theory is not absolute truth, thus, it should be challenged and applied carefully (Grix, 2010). Neuman (2014) adds that theory is not a constant or static abstraction, rather it is an ever-changing phenomenon. The reason is that humans are ever-changing and they are modifying old theories and constructing new ones for different purposes. Remler and Van Razin (2011) believe that theory is both a logical description and explanation of how a particular concept, principle, practice or phenomenon works. This means that theory provides an understanding of how and why a concept functions the way it does. Thus, we can rely on theory for our understanding of phenomena. Finally, Schwandt (2007) says that theory is a systematic explanation of different social phenomena and it functions as an analytical tool. This implies that as researchers we can use and rely on theory for our analysis of research and related work.

There are common aspects in the above definitions. For instance, they all agree that theory involves the explanation of a phenomenon/phenomena and it provides guidance to research

activities. However, it should be indicated that mere explanations alone do not constitute theory, rather explanations which are embedded in the interconnectedness of ideas are what constitute theory (Neuman, 2014). This implies that theory consists of interrelated propositions that attempt to specify the connections among phenomena. This is an indication that theory organises knowledge and forms a system of thought, and with time, this system of thought becomes acceptable among a group of people, scholars, practitioners and society as a whole (Bryman, 2012; Kumar, 2014; Neuman, 2014). Given this background, theory in this study refers to a system of unified ideas which consolidates and organises different parts of the study into a logical order for a clear understanding of the research. Furthermore, the perspectives or propositions of theory are crucial for informing my research decisions which include defining and determining the focus and aim, as well as framing and organising the study (Grix, 2010; Neuman, 2014).

3.2.1 Purpose of using theory in this study

The lack of consensus among scholars on the meaning of theory creates potential challenges to the application of theory to research. Bryman (2012) confirms that situating a study or applying theory to research is not a straight-forward process because there are many issues a researcher needs to consider. The reason is that theory takes different forms such as deductive or inductive, micro or macro, structural or interpretive that depend on the purpose of the study (Neuman, 2014). For example, I had to clarify and specify the theories and the purpose for using them in this study, as I explained under the theoretical framework in the last section of this chapter. In addition, I had to be clear on the purpose of using theory in this study: that it was for framing, analysing and interpreting the findings as will be explained later. Theory can be used to collect data, to test theory or to formulate theory, and to interpret and explain the findings of the study (Bryman, 2012).

However, despite the divergent views on the uses of theory, there is some common understanding among researchers and scholars on the use of theory in research. For example, Grix (2010:104) says that “theory is applied to research to know what should be done in terms of data to be collected and possible conclusions to be drawn”. It means that whatever the purpose of the study, theory remains crucial for guiding the entire research process, which was the case in this study.

In light of this, the purpose of theory in this study was to develop and present the rationale and motivation for the study. This study endeavours to answer the stated theoretical research questions which include: How are pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy

classes? Why are these pedagogical practices used? Additionally, the purpose of theory was to develop a framework within which to explore, analyse and interpret the findings, and to provide an in-depth understanding of pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, this leads me to a discussion of the different theories I used to frame this study. Eventually, this will lead to the development and presentation of the theoretical framework.

3.3 Theories of adult learning pedagogy

In view of the previous discussion, theories of adult learning pedagogy are researched-based explanations of the pedagogy of adult learning. There are different theories that can be used to understand and explain pedagogical practices in adult learning. In this review, I selected three dominant, relevant and frequently used theories in contemporary adult learning, which are humanistic, experiential and transformational adult-learning theories (Bélanger, 2011). The review is centred on the pedagogy of each theory to align with the focus of the study.

3.3.1 Humanistic theory of adult learning pedagogy

The humanistic theory of adult-learning pedagogy is derived from humanistic psychology. It provides a philosophical framework that is used for examining the values and assumptions underlying the practice of adult learning. Bélanger (2011:35) observes that this theory was developed by Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers in the 1960s and 1970s, and its main assumption is that “perceptions are centred on experience, as well as the freedom and responsibility to become what one is capable of becoming”. To further explain this stance, Elias and Merriam (2005) indicate that the humanistic view of adult learning emphasises the cultivation of human potential for growth or personal development. Based on these views, the main premise of this theory is that human beings are fundamentally social beings, and pedagogy should reflect human experience.

In support of the foregoing views, Kazanjian and Choi (2016: 256) state that “learning from the humanistic perspective is essentially an ecological process through which growth is cultivated so that learners can realise their potentials and pursue inner directions”. Aloni (2013) views humanistic philosophy in terms of a general and multifaceted approach of developing humans in a social milieu that manifests dignity and intellectual freedom in the pursuit of the best and highest level of human existence. He indicates that it should enhance people’s capabilities in three domains of life which include realising their individual potentials, being involved as responsible citizens, and being able to enrich and perfect themselves.

The pedagogical practices associated with the humanistic learning theory should be learner-centred because it presupposes that learners are intrinsically motivated and that they can identify their own interests and goals. Although the theory suggests that adult learners can make decisions about the learning content and the instructional strategies as well as evaluate their own learning (Elias & Merriam, 2005), this does not always happen in reality because doing this requires confidence and courage which are lacking among many adult learners (Rogers, 2009). According to this theory, the role of a teacher should be that of a facilitator of adult learning, and not an authoritative depositor of information (Nafukho, Amutabi, & Otunga, 2005). Merriam et al. (2012), and Elias and Merriam (2005) emphasise that the following ideas translate into pedagogical practices of humanistic learning: free will of adult learners, neutral learning environment, participatory learning, encouragement of adult learners to evaluate their learning, identification of the adult learners' potential, and stimulation of self-esteem.

Free will in the context of increased choices for adult learners is crucial to enhance their striving towards self-fulfilment and the sustenance and enhancement of their learning (Steinberg & Vinjamuri, 2014). This demands that adult learners should be allowed to make choices based on what they wish to learn and that they should play an active role in designing their learning programmes. According to Moate and Cox (2015), the use of a democratic pedagogical approach should involve a shift from a learning activity which is dominated by a facilitator to that which is learner-centred. This means that pedagogical practices associated with the free will of adult learners involve creating opportunities for enhancing active learning by allowing adult learners to have a say in the learning content and engaging them in participatory learning.

A neutral learning environment is characterised by the absence of threats, tension and uneasiness: this is crucial for facilitating the achievement of learning objectives (Drago-Severson, 2011). This is important for adult learning because adult learners thrive in an environment where they feel comfortable with who they are (Biryukova et al., 2015; Brookfield, 1986). Fasokun et al. (2005:54) indicate that this idea comes from the concept of self-theory which denotes the importance of people wanting to be themselves or real at all times without any pretence. Pedagogically this would mean that the pedagogical strategy should be accommodating rather than intimidating to the adult learners. If any new pedagogical strategy or device is used in class, it may require a gradual introduction to avoid that adult learners feel threatened.

Making adult learners feel loved, cared for and allowing them to express themselves openly and freely, are pedagogical skills necessary for enhancing growth because they provide emotional support to adult learners (Caruth, 2014; Drago-Severson, 2011). However, this approach may not apply to all types of adult learners and diverse experiences. Some learners may have had bad experiences at school where they might have been taught not to speak in public so as to avoid embarrassing themselves. As such, they may require assistance to regain the self-confidence to speak in public.

Participatory pedagogical practices are another crucial element that is emphasised by humanistic adult learning pedagogy. They are believed to enhance adult learning as adults participate actively in learning (Esposito, Kebede, & Maddox, 2014; Merriam, 2001). Participatory pedagogical practices have continued to gain recognition in modern educational pedagogy. In recent times, learners are given more chances to participate actively in the learning process than before because of the realisation that they are not empty 'knowledge tins' (Dmitrenko, Lavryk, & Yaresko, 2015; Kolb, 2014). Thus, it implies that pedagogical practices which recognise the adult learner's life experiences are instrumental for enhancing individual adult learner growth.

Additionally, self-evaluation is important for enhancing adult learning. Whenever adult learners are encouraged to evaluate themselves, they feel a sense of self-worth and achievement because it helps them to identify experiences which are relevant and to use them for individual growth (Göçer, 2016; Gravett, 2005). In the same manner, pedagogical practices may involve the use of self-evaluation tasks where individual adult learners should be encouraged and supported to assess their own learning achievements (Nafukho et al., 2005; Peterson & Ray, 2013). Therefore, pedagogical practices which encourage individual adult learner self-evaluation involve listening to adult learners' demands and take into account their emotions and feelings, and engage them in a dialogical learning process.

In this regard, self-concept becomes an important aspect for enhancing growth in adult learners. It is believed that the way individuals perceive themselves, determines their progress in life (McGrath, 2009). People who have low self-esteem have been associated with under achievements in life and those who have a positive image of themselves are believed to strive to do well (Munsaka, 2011). Fasokun et al. (2005) suggest that self-concept and self-esteem should be considered whenever pedagogical decisions are made because the way adult learners perceive themselves has the potential either to enhance (sustains learning gains) or hinder their learning.

The main weakness of the humanistic theory is its emphasis on individual growth as opposed to co-operative learning: using it in isolation is potentially detrimental to adult learning. Particularly in Africa, the ideal adult learning environment is communal because it is part of the everyday practices of the people. This means that any pedagogical approach which does not acknowledge this is likely to fail. For this reason, I hold the opinion that the humanistic theory may promote and widen inequalities among adult learners as it emphasises individual growth more than collective adult learner growth. Based on its emphasis on learner-centeredness and the educator as facilitator, it focuses on what learners know and share from their own experiences, rather than acquiring new knowledge content and forms which the learners might need while they attend more structured and formal learning experiences. However, the theory is still relevant to adult learning as it provides insight into the potential ingrained in adult learners individually. The weakness of this theory within an African context can be mitigated by incorporating strategies from other learning theories that include experiential and transformational learning in the understanding of adult-learning pedagogy.

3.3.2 Experiential learning pedagogy

I adopted this wide-ranging theory that is based on David Kolb's (1984) explanation that learning is shaped by the life experiences of the adult learners. There are different interpretations of experiential learning among scholars. Kolb and Kolb (2005:193), acknowledge that "experiential learning has been misunderstood as a set of tools and techniques to provide learners with experiences from which they can learn. Others have described it as learning that is a mindless recording of experience". For Yardley et al. (2012: 161), experiential learning is "constructing knowledge and meaning from real-life experiences". Fenwick (2001:9) postulates that experiential learning is a process of human cognition, in which cognition is reflexive learning that embraces a broad dimension of experiences. It embraces all contexts and arbitrary denominations of formal and informal learning. The intention of experiential learning according to Kolb (2014) is to describe a theoretical perspective on the individual learning process that is situated in real-life situations. Therefore, a universal theory to explain learning in all contexts is not feasible according to this theory.

Experiential learning represents learning that is both conscious and unconscious and it is embedded in our everyday lives. Kolb (2014) says that experiential learning is commonly used to refer to learning that is based on life experiences. It is often distinguished from theoretical-based formal learning such as lecture and classroom learning. It is based on a learner being in direct contact with reality: in an organised learning context the application of experiential

learning would apply to the creation of knowledge through the transformation of one's experience in reference to the learning activity or content. The relevance of this theory to adult learning is that much of adult learning is located in everyday human interactions, workplaces, home and family community involvement, and other sites of non-formal learning (Fenwick, 2001). This implies that adult learners should be encouraged to draw on and relate their learning to their real-life experiences. These experiences may include those encountered in class as they learn and interact with fellow adult learners and those encountered in the real world before joining the adult literacy class.

In terms of pedagogy, experiential learning is predominantly learner-centred. It emphasises the integration of the adult learners' experiences in the learning activity. According to Bélanger (2011:40) pedagogical practices for experiential learning tend to be experientially based because past experiences provide a meaningful reference for further adult learning. In addition, Caminotti and Gray (2012) observe that experiential learning pedagogy employs experiential learning techniques such as simulation, case method, discussion and problem-based learning to draw from the real-life experiences of adult learners. Simulation is particularly critical because it encourages experience-based activities and reflective learning. Rutherford-Hemming (2012) adds that it creates an environment where internal and external processes of learning can occur. In this environment, adult learners are able to create knowledge by using their prior knowledge and by facilitating individual and, crucial for this study, group reflection on their choices in terms of what has been learned and to consider what could have been done differently.

I wish to contend that it is not accurate to assume that the application of the foregoing pedagogical practices is as straightforward as they appear in the literature. Usually, the implementation of any practice is likely to be influenced by contextual challenges such as the ability of the facilitators to apply the approach appropriately and achieve the desired learning goals. In addition, sometimes the expectations and aspirations of adult learners might be at variance with experiential pedagogies. For example, some adult learners might have had negative life experiences which may not be helpful to support their new learning. Therefore, it would require the integration of other pedagogical strategies such as counselling to help them transform their bad experiences and to acquire new and helpful learning experiences. This view is further supported and articulated by the transformational learning pedagogy that is discussed in the following section.

3.3.3 Transformational learning pedagogy

Transformational learning pedagogy (TLP) is attributed to the work of Jack Mezirow. It was developed in the 1980s to describe a process of transforming learners by re-evaluating their past beliefs, assumptions and experiences. This approach was integrated with adult learning after Mezirow had introduced the idea of transformative change in the analysis and interpretation of the adult learning process (Bélanger, 2011:44). Similar to Paulo Freire, Mezirow argued that adult learning should not only be an adaptive process of simply adding new knowledge and acquiring new skills, but also a transformative process during which adult learners look at reality differently. Merriam and Ntseane (2008) add that transformational adult learning defies simple descriptions or theorising because it can include something as straightforward as memorising a set of facts or developing a new skill or it can be as complex as transforming one's personality or worldview. Thus, Mezirow (1997: 5) explains that adult learners have frames of reference that are constructed from their life experiences which may consist of values, beliefs, and feelings. These frames of reference are structures of assumptions that define perspectives of reality and through which experiences are understood. Therefore, transformational learning is the process of effecting change in a particular frame of reference.

The implication of this theory and its pedagogy for adult learning is that adult learners should become independent thinkers by learning to negotiate their own individual values, beliefs, meanings and purposes as opposed to acting uncritically on those of other people. To achieve this stage, adult learners may require a lot of support and encouragement. Thus, Mezirow (1997: 6,10) recommends that educators should help adult learners become aware and critical of their own and other people's assumptions. Adult learners need assistance to practise recognising frames of reference and use their imagination to redefine problems from a different perspective. There is also a need to assist adult learners to participate effectively in a dialogue that is devoted to assessing competing interpretations, by critically examining evidence, arguments and alternative points of view.

Pedagogical strategies associated with transformative adult learning are learner-centred and include dialogue, and critical reflection strategies including imaginative problem-posing, participatory pedagogy, and group deliberation. Other strategies include the use of discovery pedagogy, role plays, case studies and simulations. Mezirow (1997: 10) indicates that the pedagogic strategies that are useful include critical incidents, metaphor analysis, concept mapping, consciousness raising, life histories, repertory grids and participation in social action. The use of all these pedagogic strategies may require the training of facilitators to handle

different situations because transformational learning is believed to provoke strong emotions which can negatively affect relations among adult learners to the extent that some adult learners may withdraw from the learning programme.

It is also important to note that for transformational learning to occur effectively, the facilitator or educator and adult learners should take mutual responsibility to change their assumptions. In addition, the learning environment should be characterised by a balance of power relations in which adult learners should feel trusted. Research by Yardley et al. (2012) shows that in an environment where adult learners see their instructor as authoritative, they tend to be reluctant to engage in meaningful participatory adult learning.

Although much was written on the above theories, research and publications focused on developed countries whose findings were implemented in different contexts of adult learning in Africa. In my view, this perpetuates the dominance of western academic thinking in the practice of adult learning on the African continent. Furthermore, African countries experience unique challenges: African scholars are often confronted with issues related to inadequate funding for research; even when funds are available research outputs are not always achieved and regularly funds are not accounted for. However, I wish to acknowledge that although much of the recent studies on the foregoing theories were conducted outside Africa, they have provided insight into the understanding of adult learning pedagogy in general. Having reviewed the theories on adult learning pedagogy, it is important at this stage to review and to conceptualise the theories on adult literacy pedagogy.

3.4 Cognitive and sociocultural adult literacy pedagogy

Two different theoretical perspectives have continued to influence the thinking and practice of adult literacy pedagogy. Some scholars believe that literacy is a universal set of skills and others believe that literacies are social practices that are situated in a context. The first view belongs to the cognitive theory, also known as the traditional or autonomous theory of literacy, and the second view belongs to the sociological or ideological theories for literacy.

3.4.1 Cognitive adult literacy pedagogy

This theory regards adult literacy as a psychological or cognitive set of skills and it is characterised by the mastering of numbers, reading and writing (Tett, Hamilton, & Hillier, 2006). It also involves the mastering of fluency, comprehension and the phonemic aspects of adult literacy (Davidson, 2010). It views adult literacy as a universal set of skills which can be

measured in the same way across different time frames, languages, cultures and contexts. Based on this theory, adult literacy is neutral and decontextualised from the sociocultural environment of the people. That is, adult literacy is a set of skills which is technical, discrete and can be acquired by anyone through a process of cognition (Prinsloo & Street, 2014). This view has been shaped by the conventional behaviourist theories of adult learning which rest on the assumption that adult learners are the same everywhere (Westbrook et al., 2013; Rogers, 1999).

This thinking is ingrained in the autonomous assumption that adult literacy in itself affects an individual regardless of the real-life conditions and the issues that are faced by that individual (Street, 2014). Therefore, it is often recommended as a remedy for the illiterate poor to improve their livelihood (Nabi et al., 2009). This view has been accepted by many scholars and educationalists as evidenced by early studies in adult literacy-learning (Bhola, 1995; Ginsburg & Gal, 1996; Grigsby, 1988; Hayes, 1967; Presco, 1967; Seaman, 1977) which were situated within the cognitive perspective. Even today, most adult literacy-learning programmes are designed on this perspective as it claims to improve the cognitive and social skills of the adult learners (Bhola, 1995; Brookfield, 1986; Street, 2014; Tett et al., 2006). This perspective is based on the notion that adult literacy is empowering in itself and every person should possess literacy. However, this view has been challenged by research in the 21st century (Street, 2014; UNESCO, 2015, 2006a).

The other embedded notion in this theory is that some people have literacy and others do not. That is to say, those who are not literate have a deficiency or disability and are regarded as illiterates (Nabi et al., 2009). Thus, most adult literacy-learning programmes that are influenced by this thinking are designed to respond to the problem of adult illiteracy which is seen as a deficiency and hindrance to development. Subsequently, terms such as “eradication” or “alleviation” of illiteracy are used by these programmes (Gebre et al., 2009; UNESCO, 2015; Unesco Institute for Statistics, 2013).

On the pedagogical level, the cognitive theory of adult literacy has influenced the pedagogical practices that are used in adult literacy-learning programmes even today (Hughes & Schwab, 2010; Westbrook et al., 2013). It emphasises reading and writing proficiencies which are expected to be acquired by all adult literacy learners through a hierarchically ordered sequence (Demetron, 2005). It holds that reading and writing are skills that are acquired through specific developmental stages that every person goes through. Adult literacy is taught because learning to read and write are processes that take place in the mind and these

processes are critical in guiding teaching as they produce competencies which are believed to be essential (Langer, 1986). Therefore, the cognitive theory of adult literacy tends to be more inclined towards teacher-centred pedagogical practices.

There are a number of criticisms levelled against this theory. Black and Yasukawa (2014), Peterson (2007), and Barton, Hamilton and Ivanic (2000b) observe that the theory is limited in its conceptualisation of adult literacy because it views adult literacy as being independent of the social, cultural, political and economic environment in which people live. Similarly, Rogers and Street (2012), Nabi et al. (2009), and UNESCO (1999) acknowledge that although this theory has been driving funding and policy for adult literacy-learning programmes, its narrow perspective of adult literacy has been a contributing factor to the lack of success of adult literacy learning programmes in many developing countries.

Ghose (2007) reports that this theory is limited in assuming that adult illiterates are not logical thinkers and that they are irrational, ignorant and unscientific. On the contrary, Langer (1986), Perry and Homan (2015), Prinsloo and Street (2014), and Rogers (1999) attest to the reality that these 'illiterates' possess funds of knowledge and that they are able to use literacy in different ways in their respective contexts. Other scholars (Rogers & Street, 2012; Street, 2014, 2006; Tett et al., 2006) have revealed through ethnographic research that people who are perceived to be illiterate, engage in different literacy practices on a daily basis. However, this is not to suggest that the cognitive theory has no value at all. It has provided both a theoretical and practical foundation from which new knowledge in the field of adult literacy-learning has been generated. The alternative to the cognitive theory of adult literacy is the sociocultural theories of adult literacy that are derived from the work of Lev Vygotsky.

3.4.2 Sociocultural theories of adult literacy pedagogy

The sociocultural theories of adult literacy are based on the understanding that adult literacy includes practices that are situated in various contexts. These practices vary among contexts and comprise a wide range of social practices, events and meanings (Pahl & Rowsell, 2005; Rogers & Street, 2012; Tett, 2014). This view represents a shift from seeing adult literacy as a single universal set of skills to that of multiple literacies (Street, 2006; Tett, 2014). This perspective favours local literacies that are found in the everyday lives of the adult learners. Studies within this framework have explored the everyday uses of literacy and they have established that these uses are crucial in enhancing adult literacy-learning (Nabi et al., 2009; Pahl & Rowsell, 2005; Tett et al., 2006; UNESCO, 2005). One of the sociocultural perspectives posits that adult literacy should be seen as social practices (LSP) which can be inferred from

literacy events and daily practices because there is not one universal adult literacy but multiple adult literacies.

According to Barton and Hamilton (2000), literacy events refer to observable episodes in which people engage with various texts in everyday life. They are interactions that people have with literacy-related activities and may involve reading newspapers, religious books and writing letters. However, for literacy events to be meaningful, they should be identified and connected in some pattern to generate meaning. Hughes and Schwab (2010), and Street (2006) indicate that literacy practices is a term coined to identify the patterns that are generated from observing literacy events. According to Pahl and Rowsell (2005), literacy practices are regular collective activities that include reading and writing. They are broader patterns that classify literacy events, uses and meanings in a context.

The sociocultural view of adult literacy has influenced the conception of adult literacy, the adult learner and the pedagogy of adult literacy in the 21st century. A recent definition adopted by UNESCO (2015) defines adult literacy as communicative practices that are associated with oral, visual and digital practices which are embedded in everyday life. Adult literacy is seen as the practices of reading, writing and numeracy which occur both in and outside formal educational programmes (Robinson-Pant, 2016). This means that adult learners are involved in adult literacy practices in many different domains of life as learning is part of everyday life. However, Crowther et al. (2010) and Tett et al. (2006) observe that although there have been numerous studies on the sociocultural view of adult literacy, minimal progress has been made in utilising findings to improve adult learning in practice.

The sociocultural view of adult literacy has been criticised on its view of assessment. It is claimed that it does not provide a clear guide on how adult literacy should be assessed in the sociocultural context and what strategies should be used (Pahl & Rowsell, 2005; Tett et al., 2006). For example, the claim that there are multiple adult literacies in any given context makes it unclear which adult literacy to assess, how to assess it and what assessment tools to use. According to Perry (2012), the sociocultural theory offers an ambiguous connection between practices and events because how to interpret practices from observing events as suggested by this theory has remained vague. In addition, the theory is unclear on how people learn to read and write. For example, although it offers the suggestion that adult literacy should be taught to enhance the already existing adult literacies, it remains unclear how the already existing adult literacies among the adult learners could have been acquired. The closest it goes in addressing this issue is by acknowledging the existing adult literacies and funds of

knowledge that are accumulated through life experiences. It does not provide specific details of how adult literacy could have been acquired through these life experiences.

In the literature, the term adult literacy accounts for many different definitions and meanings. UNESCO (2013a) provides a brief account of how the conception of adult literacy has evolved over time. From the 1950s to the 1960s there was a tendency to define adult literacy as the ability to read, write and understand a short and simple statement in one's everyday life. This view was influenced by the cognitive theory of adult literacy. In the 1970s, there was a slight shift to define adult literacy in functional terms. Any person who was able to engage in activities that were believed to be literacy related and who functioned effectively in the community was regarded as functionally literate.

Fransman (2005) attempted to outline four major conceptions of adult literacy that have been held since the 1950s. She observes that adult literacy has been seen as a set of skills, as socially situated, as a process and as text. The first approach posits that adult literacy is an isolated mental ability and can be quantified and measured as a technical and decontextualized set of skills (Kukner, 2015). The second approach views adult literacy in terms of the application or uses of numeracy, writing and reading in socially situated contexts; this view was developed by ethnographic studies whose focus was to understand adult literacy in a context (Gebre et al., 2009; Ghose, 2007; Nabi et al., 2009; Prinsloo, 2013; Rogers, 2014b; Rogers & Street, 2012). The third view of adult literacy is that it is a process. Fransman (2005) indicates that adult literacy is not a product, but a process of learning during which adult learners enhance their knowledge through practice. The fourth view is that of regarding adult literacy as text. It is concerned with the nature of the text: how it is produced and used. Text includes not just written text, but also all communication, language, interaction and meaning making. This view is related to critical adult literacy that involves thinking critically about a text (Freire & Macedo, 2005).

Today, the common practice is that of viewing adult literacy in social terms as situated practices. It is understood that perceiving literacy in social terms provides a contextual and valid framework for exploring adult literacy practices in different cultures, languages and contexts (Kell, 2011). This view compelled UNESCO to adopt a social view of literacy during the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFITEA V) in Hamburg in 1997, under the theme *literacy education and social development* (UNESCO, 1999). Additionally, during the UNESCO expert meeting in Paris in 2005, it was resolved that literacy should be seen as practices that are instrumental for learning and communication which are rooted in

personal circumstances, political processes, social and economic structures and global processes. However, a study by Crowther and Tett (2011) reveals that there are only a few countries in the world which consider literacy as social practices, for instance Scotland has recognised literacy as social practices.

This section indicated that both the adult learning and literacy theories are crucial to gain insight into the appropriate pedagogical approaches and methods for adult learning. This review illustrated that the pedagogical approaches that are relevant for humanistic, transformation, and experiential learning pedagogies are learner-centred. Similarly, the sociocultural theories of literacy recommend a learner-centred pedagogy. Conversely, the cognitive theory of adult literacy pedagogy is biased towards the teacher-centred pedagogy as it proposes that adult learning should be controlled by the facilitator in order to produce the desired adult learning behaviour. The review of these theories has provided the context for consolidating the theoretical framework which underpinned this study. I now discuss the theoretical framework in the next section.

3.5 Consolidating the theoretical framework for this study

The section above has theoretically framed this study. In this section, I focus on the theoretical framework that was developed in view of the theories reviewed in the previous section. Firstly, it is important that I explain what I mean by a theoretical framework, its purpose to this study, and how I developed it.

3.5.1 What is a theoretical framework?

A theoretical framework is a structure which indicates the overall conceptualisation of the study. For instance, Eisenhart (1991: 205) defines a theoretical framework as “a structure that guides research by relying on a formal theory that is constructed by using an established coherent explanation of certain phenomena and relationships”. This means that a theoretical framework comprises of theories which are deliberately selected to inform the researcher’s thinking and decisions regarding the study (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Similarly, Kumar (2014) defines a theoretical framework based on its constitutive elements that are theories or issues within which the study is grounded. In other words, a theoretical framework is a consolidated perspective of how a researcher chooses to think about reality or the world.

Bryman (2012) says theoretical frameworks are also perspectives or paradigms that constitute many substantive and formal theories which share common assumptions and concepts. This

means that the incorporation of different theories that are based on key common elements makes a theoretical framework relevant to a study. Crucially, these views demonstrate a common understanding that a theoretical framework is based on theory or theories that are related to the topic and the research problem that is studied. It is also clear that a theoretical framework is deliberately developed by the researcher for application to a study. In view of this understanding, the purpose for which I developed a theoretical framework for this study is now discussed in the next section.

3.5.2 Why was a theoretical framework needed for this study?

The starting point for justifying the need for a theoretical framework in this study is based on my understanding that all research is theoretical, that includes my study. Thus, as a researcher I could not work in a vacuum (Lysaght, 2011). I needed a theoretical framework to guide me through the search for new knowledge, which was the essence of this research, regardless of how minimal my knowledge contribution could have been (Kumar, 2014). In support of this stance, Grant and Osanloo (2014) indicate that “without a theoretical framework, the vision of the study is unclear, and the usefulness of the findings are limited because a theoretical framework offers a clear guidance for the reader to understand the study and the possible ways of utilising the findings”.

This implies that a theoretical framework was crucial to this study for the purpose of providing the structure or laying a foundation for organising and presenting the argument of the study. It was important that as I embarked on the generation of knowledge on pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning, a structure was necessary to support my rationale which was based on the research gap. Additionally, it supported the purpose and focus of the study and the development of the research questions. According to Grant and Osanloo (2014:13), a theoretical framework serves as a structure that guides the development, organisation and presentation of the entire study.

This means that a theoretical framework is a crucible that merges the researcher’s philosophical, epistemological, methodological and analytical position. In other words, it tells the story of the researcher’s orientation towards reality, the meaning of knowledge, how it is generated and constructed, the methods for generating knowledge, and how it should be analysed. Informed by Eisenhart (1991) and Lysaght (2011), my theoretical framework is a reflection of my thinking about the research topic, which is pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes. It grounded my worldview on how to address the research problem, on

the questions I needed to ask, and on the methodology which was appropriate for collecting and analysing the data.

Furthermore, it was crucial for conducting the literature review of the study. It helped me to discover the meaning of key concepts on the topic, and the theories in which they are rooted. It was also helpful for generating an in-depth understanding of the adult learning theories and their associated pedagogical practices. Kumar (2011) confirms that a theoretical framework provides a guide for literature review. It offers a researcher an opportunity to discover the interconnections and roots in which the phenomena that are investigated are grounded, thereby, gaining more insight into the research topic. Therefore, a theoretical framework is necessary for providing a lens through which a researcher views the world and knowledge from the start to the end of the study.

3.5.3 How I developed a theoretical framework for this study?

Grant and Osanloo (2014) explain that the development of a theoretical framework is not a smooth process. Rather, it involves a maze of concepts and a researcher has to make critical decisions which are based on a deep understanding of the research problem, the purpose and the focus, as well as the research questions. Grant and Osanloo (2014) emphasise that these parameters should be tightly and intricately intertwined. Once this is achieved, the theoretical framework is likely to guide the selection and application of the appropriate research design and methodology of the study, as well as data analysis. While I adopted this guide by Grant and Osanloo (2014), I do not claim that I exercised absolute objectivity in the development of my theoretical framework: it is embedded in my personal and professional assumptions regarding the nature of adult literacy pedagogy and how best it can be understood. My ontological position on the nature of adult learning pedagogy is that it is experience-based, and my epistemological stance is framed by the relevance of the sociocultural contexts and the specific experiences of the adult learners.

This stance was critical in the development of this theoretical framework. The purpose was to select appropriate theories to the study and to attain a logical interpretation of the theories for a clear understanding of the study by the reader. I also required theories which are well understood in the literature and by myself, and that have also been explored by other researchers. This was necessary for the generation of the research questions. This position was informed by Lovitts (2005) who indicates that a well-developed theoretical framework should be appropriate, logically interpreted to suit the study, well understood and align with the research questions.

This is also supported by Lysaght (2011) who explains that the researchers' choice of theoretical framework is not arbitrary. It reflects important personal beliefs, orientations and an understanding of the nature of knowledge, how it exists and the research tools that should be used by the researcher. Therefore, the starting point for developing this framework was reviewing the literature on adult learning pedagogy. I focused on the theories and concepts that described and explained adult learning pedagogy. I also considered the common practice in the literature in terms of the frequently used theories by other researchers to explain adult learning pedagogy (Bryman, 2012). This approach has been recommended by Kumar (2011) who says that the researcher should review literature in order to formulate a useful theoretical framework of a study as it allows the researcher the opportunity to discover existing theories on the subject and how others have used them.

I made decisions that were based on the common and key elements that I identified in theories. I adopted these key elements for my theoretical framework. For example, both the EL and LSP theories hold the position that the ideal adult learning pedagogy is learner-centred and socially situated, as will be discussed in the next section. Kumar (2014) and Neuman (2014) indicate that a researcher can adopt theoretical frameworks that are used by other researchers or simply modify them to suit his/her study. Importantly, this saves time and energy in developing a theoretical framework which is suitable for a study. However, in my study I had to develop my own theoretical framework because I did not come across a theory in the literature that specifically suited my study. Therefore, my theoretical framework was purposively developed by carefully selecting appropriate theories that incorporated all aspects of the study. In the next section, I discuss the details of the theoretical framework of this study.

3.6 The theoretical framework that underpinned this study

The theoretical framework that underpinned this study was based on two views that were drawn from the sociocultural learning theories. These theories explain adult literacy learning in terms of both what it is in theory and what it should be in practice. The first view is that adult literacy is better understood when it is explored in situated contexts of social and cultural practices. The second view is that adult learning pedagogy is better conceptualised when it is viewed from the experiential learning perspective with a specific focus on informal adult learning. Therefore, the first part of this theoretical framework is based on viewing adult literacy as social practices (LSP) and the second part deals with adult learning as experiential learning (EL). My claim in this theoretical framework is that both adult literacy practices and adult learning pedagogy are shaped by the everyday experiences of the adult learners in their

respective social and cultural contexts in which learning activities are organised. This involves an interplay of complex and dynamic human activities within the environment at a given point and time.

3.7 Adult literacy as social practices theory

The main argument of the sociocultural learning theories is that adult learning is socially and culturally embedded (Perry, 2012; Vygotsky, 1980). It occurs everywhere and at any time as people engage in their everyday activities and social events. That is to say, adult learning is embedded in the social processes of everyday life. This perspective has been influential in contemporary studies on adult literacy learning (Barton et al., 2000b; Gebre et al., 2009; Ghose, 2007; Nabi et al., 2009; Papen, 2005; Rogers & Street, 2012; Street, 2006,1997). Prinsloo (2013: 1) confirms that research in literacy studies in recent times has shifted the focus from the monolithic view of literacy to multiple situated practices. This has been necessitated by findings from situated literacy-based studies that found that reading and writing occur in different ways among individuals and groups of people in different social contexts. Perry (2012) states that many of the sociocultural learning theories of literacy development and practices were developed based on research in adult learning, and family and community literacy. It is against this background that I selected the sociocultural learning view of literacy, in particular Literacy as Social Practices (LSP) theory, and adult learning as Experiential Learning theory (EL) as lenses for understanding pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District of Zambia.

The social practice view of adult literacy postulates that adult literacies are social practices that are embedded in social activities: “these practices are best studied not as universal basic skills; but situated practices. The LSP follow different meaning conventions and require different skills for their successful use. They function in different social contexts for different purposes” (Prinsloo, 2013: 2). This is because literacy practices are shaped by the context and comprise of different forms of communicative practices which include reading, writing and oral communication. Therefore, to understand adult literacy requires the understanding of the context in which the practices of reading and writing occur (Wang, 2007).

The LSP theory maintains that as people engage in adult literacy they engage in communicative practices in which they construct the meaning of their adult literacy practices. At the same time, they engage in the social construction of knowledge. Sociolinguistics including Barton and Hamilton (2000) explain that literacy practices are ways in which people use reading and writing and are ingrained in their feelings, attitudes, values and relationships.

Similarly, Taylor (2006: 501) observes that literacy practices “involve constructions of literacy, discourses of literacy, and how people talk and make sense of literacy”. Situated learning represents socially oriented processes which are mediated by everyday life experiences in which people are fully engaged in generating meaning (Lave & Wenger, 1998). It also implies that learning is constantly taking place as people become more involved in the cultural practices and interactions within a situated context. Tennant (2006:77) argues that:

It makes no sense to talk of knowledge that is decontextualized, abstract and general; new knowledge and learning are properly conceived as being located in communities of practice.

Thus, the situated perspective reflects the view that adult literacy cannot be standardised to all contexts and situations. Rather, it is initiated and practiced within a specific domain. Wang (2007) says that it involves an engagement in a community of practice in which every one of us is naturally involved, regardless of the type of social context: home, work or leisure. According to Wang (2007), community of practice represents self-organised groups of people who share a common sense, purpose and desire to learn and know what others know. Similarly, the socio-cognitive perspective advances the argument that adult literacy is a way of thinking which is shaped by context and human social interactions.

Marquardt and Waddill (2004) and Langer (1986) explain that the socio-cognitive theory regards all learning as socially based. This relates to the understanding that people learn by interacting, observing and imitating others. This suggests that adult literacy learning is a socially interactive process by which the culture of reading and writing as well as people’s cognitive behaviours is influenced by context. Subsequently, the context in which adult literacy practices occur is constantly shaping the meanings and interpretations that participants produce. This perspective of adult literacy makes it clear that we cannot think of literacy in singular terms but in multiple terms of different domains: banking literacy, health literacy, home literacy, school literacy, religious literacy, play literacy and so forth. Therefore, the view of literacy as social practices should be incorporated in adult literacy-learning as explained in the second part of this framework.

3.8 Adult learning as experiential learning theory

The second part of this theoretical framework is anchored in the view that adult learning is best understood as Experiential Learning (EL), which comprises informal and incidental learning. The use of experience has deep roots in adult learning and it is one of the most important principles of the field. As explained earlier, experiential learning is commonly

understood as learning which is based on experience (Kolb, 2014). It involves the construction of knowledge and meaning from actual life experiences (Yardley, Teunissen & Dornan, 2012). Our understanding of experiential learning has been shaped by the contributions of scholars that include David Kolb (1984), Malcom Knowles (1970), and John Dewey (1938). They explain that people learn as individuals in individual ways as they react to their perceptions of contextual experiences. This view of experiential learning is similar to that held by the sociocultural learning theories.

Yardley et al. (2012) explain that individual learning is anchored in the philosophical principle of meaning making (constructionism) in which social interactions are deemed fundamental to experiential learning. Although Experiential Learning theory was initially criticised for ignoring the social and interactive dimensions (Bélanger, 2011), contemporary experiential learning has shifted from the individual to locating learning within whole communities. This embraces a symbiotic relationship of learning environments that actively influence learners and learners who actively influence learning environments (Yardley et al., 2012).

Thus, social interactions, combined with contexts in which learning experiences occur, place experiential learning within the framework of sociocultural learning theories. This is the reason for combining this view of experiential learning with Literacy as Social Practice theory in this study. The contemporary view of experiential learning shares the common understanding with LSP that learning is a social process that takes place throughout life. For this reason, I wish to emphasise that experiential learning coupled with informal learning influences all forms of adult learning, for it lays the foundation for all learning.

In view of this, Rogers (2014a) defines informal learning as unplanned learning that is influenced by our everyday social engagements within the family, group and wider society. What is fundamental about this learning is that it takes place everywhere and at any time. This entails that even in organised learning settings, including formal education, informal learning always takes place. Adult learners are constantly engaged in the process of unlearning old literacies and learning new ones through informal learning (Barton et al., 2000b). These literacies acquired without the help of an education institution become influential in shaping learning when adults choose to join a non-formal or formal literacy learning class. Rogers (2014a) and Taylor (2006) identify three different forms of informal learning, which include self-directed, incidental and unintentional/tacit learning.

Self-directed learning is based on the understanding that adults are able to plan and evaluate their own learning (Taylor & Hamdy, 2013). This learning is intentional and conscious because the learner has a self-directed purpose of learning new skills. Conversely, this may not be applicable to all learning contexts, especially in Africa where not all adult learners may be able to consciously plan and evaluate their learning. Therefore, I find this thinking to be more applicable to the western context of adult learning than in Africa. In some of the village adult literacy classes I attended in the past, I found that some adult learners participate in adult literacy classes for the purposes of socialising with their friends. Therefore, it may not be assumed that all adult learners make conscious decisions to learn and evaluate their learning. Rogers (2014a) explains that self-directed learning comprises an intentional package of learning activities that is designed for the individual. Pedagogically, there is a tendency to plan and control the adult learning activities, which have been purposefully set and to measure the learning gains. The reality of this form of adult learning may involve formal and non-formal adult learning but also integrate some informal learning.

Incidental learning refers to learning that occurs as people engage in activities for a purpose. According to Taylor (2006), incidental learning is unintentional but conscious learning which occurs when the learner had no intentions of learning something but does so. For Rogers (2014a), incidental learning occurs when people engage in activities purposively but are vaguely aware that learning is taking place because the focus is on the task.

The third form of informal learning is called unintentional/tacit or unconscious learning. This type of learning is unintentional and unplanned. Taylor (2006) says that during this learning, we internalise values, attitudes, behaviours and skills in our everyday lives. Similarly, Rogers (2014a) states that this is a type of learning in which a great deal of learning occurs unconsciously within our everyday life experiences.

From all these types of informal learning, it is clear that experience is the main element of all learning but not all experience may lead to learning. Some people have had negative life experiences so that they may not wish to make reference to them. Informal learning is all-embracing and more inclusive than any organised learning. This is a type of learning in which a great deal of learning occurs. However, this learning has been ignored both in educational research and practice for the reason that education has for a long time concentrated on measurements. This approach is guided by the belief that if something can be measured then it can be done. In support of this, Rogers (2014a) confirms that informal learning is discarded as most scholars have chosen to concentrate on formal (schooling) and non-formal learning

which is also referred to as non-school based educational activities. He observes that although informal learning's influence is neglected, it is unavoidable because it takes place continuously in our everyday lives.

Bélanger (2011) states that the life experiences of adult learners should be the focus of adult learning. In experiential learning, the experiences of the adult learners become a point of reference. They become a starting point for the generation of new knowledge. As adult learners are guided to think and rethink through their experiences they experience a transformation in terms of their beliefs, values and assumptions that have been accumulated based on individual life experiences. This becomes a new learning experience for the adult learners. Therefore, in the context of adult literacy learning, it means that adult learners should be assisted to improve their literacy practices by linking the teaching of literacy with their real-life experiences.

3.9 Pedagogical implications of the theoretical framework

In terms of pedagogy, both the LSP and EL theories suggest learner-centred pedagogical practices. They emphasise the use of real-life experiences that have been accumulated by the adult learners as a starting point for adult literacy-learning because knowing how adult learners use literacy in their everyday lives is essential for adult literacy-learning (Bélanger, 2011; Gebre et al., 2009; Kolb, 2014). Ideally, from the social practice view of adult literacy, teaching literacy means learning new skills by improving the already existing literacies among the adult learners.

The social practice pedagogy should involve adult learners in many aspects of the learning activity to create an environment in which they can learn successfully. Sometimes the environment can be informal and adult learners may not even realise that they are learning. This means that adult literacy-learning facilitators should not ignore the informal learning experiences of the adult learners. It is from these experiences that they can draw from the adult learners' funds of knowledge and life experiences to populate the adult learning content. Different strategies can be used to support adult learners to improve their use of literacy by focusing on adult literacy-learning from the perspective of the adult learners.

To clearly explain the pedagogical approach to literacy-learning under the LSP theory, Rogers (1999) has developed the Real Literacy Approach (RLA). Just like other adult literacy-learning approaches, the RLA believes in helping adult learners to develop literacy skills to enhance their skills in performing daily tasks. In this approach, the teaching of literacy is based on the

real literacy practices and events that adult learners engage in as opposed to generalised practices that are often stipulated in the teaching-learning material that is used in the traditional approach. The RLA starts from the conviction that every person, regardless of her/his literacy levels, is already engaged in literacy activities in their lives. Therefore, these literacy activities should be the starting point for teaching literacy. The approach suggests that the teaching of literacy should not start with the teacher, but with what the adult learners or participants do in their lives. It emphasises that the deficit approach should be avoided, in which the focus is on the skills that adult learners are lacking as opposed to what they already do in real-life. In view of this, the diagram below illustrates how the LSP and EL theories were applied to this study.

Figure 3.1 Literacy as Social Practices (LSP) and Adult learning as EL theory

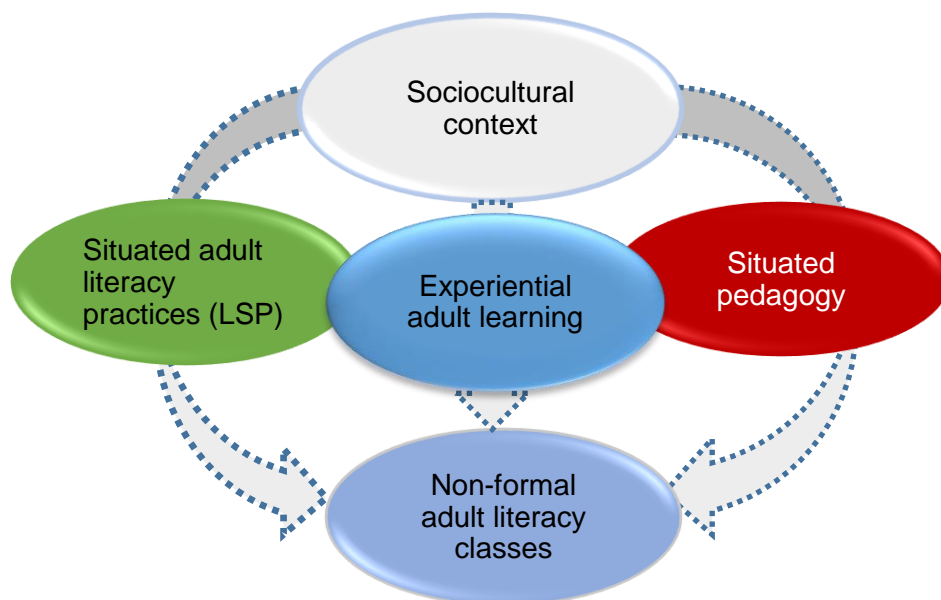


Figure 3.1 above illustrates the context of non-formal adult literacy-learning that is based on the LSP and EL theories. The assumption behind this framework is that the sociocultural context shapes the situated adult literacy practices, it informs experiential adult learning, and the pedagogy used in non-formal adult literacy classes. This is supported by Street (2014) and Chang (2013), who postulate that the sociocultural context is critical in shaping the content and the learning programme.

Additionally, the findings by Spires et al. (2016) show that the social practice perspective is crucial for creating deeper content learning in literacy-learning. It is vital for constructing disciplinary literacies because it is intertwined with the literacy practices of a particular discipline i.e. adult learning. From a community perspective, Alidou and Glanz (2015), and Prinsloo (2013) observe that literacy is practised in every community and play an important

role in the communication processes among its people. Therefore, adult literacy-learning is only relevant to adult learners when it is context sensitive.

In view of the foregoing, I considered the nature of studies conducted by the promoters of LSP theory who include Barton, Hamilton, and Ivanic (2000a); Gebre et al. (2009); Ghose (2007); Hughes and Schwab (2010); Pahl and Rowsell (2005); Prinsloo (2013); and Rogers and Street (2012); and found that a qualitative research approach is key in understanding literacy practices in a context. This is also supported by the contemporary view of experiential learning which emphasises the social dimension of learning (Yardley et al., 2012). Furthermore, I could not avoid the sociocultural context of adult literacy-learning in understanding pedagogical practices in NFAL. Therefore, this theoretical framework provided guidance in conceptualising the entire research process from identification of the research gap to data analysis and interpretation of research findings. In support of this, Kumar (2014) says that theory in research provides an understanding of a phenomenon being investigated and helps to identify the research design, development of data generation and collection instruments, a framework for data analysis and the interpretation of the findings.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter highlighted that the LSP and EL theories are crucial in gaining an in-depth understanding of adult literacy-learning particularly in the 21st century context of pedagogy. A significant number of 21st century studies on literacy have relied on the LSP theory for scientific interpretations and explanations, which made this theoretical framework suitable for interpreting the findings of this study. Additionally, it also guided the research approach that was suitable for answering the research questions. In view of this, the next chapter discusses the research methodology that was used to answer the research questions of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

In chapter three, I reviewed the literature and demonstrated the knowledge gaps that exist on pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning. I also discussed the theoretical framework that informed my understanding of pedagogy in adult literacy-learning in general. In this is chapter, I discuss the route that I followed in generating answers to my research questions. The map for this route involved the research design and methodology which relate to how I planned and conducted the study. In this study, the research design comprised of the research paradigm and the research approach, which are the interpretive paradigm and qualitative approach. The research methodology refers to how I practically conducted the study. The justification for this research design and methodology is based on both my ontological and epistemological assumptions which are influenced by the research paradigm and theoretical framework of this study. Therefore, I begin this chapter with a discussion of the research paradigm which is my philosophical worldview that informed the planning, designing and conducting of the study. This is followed by a discussion of the qualitative research approach which I used to conduct this study. Thereafter, I discuss the research methodology, quality assurance and conclude the chapter.

4.2 Research paradigm: Interpretive

The term paradigm refers to the philosophical frame of reference that is held by the researcher on the nature of reality and knowledge, and how the researcher can know and understand that reality (Babbie et al., 2006; Cohen, Manion & Marrison, 2007; Mayers, 2013). I adopted the interpretive research paradigm to frame my ontological and epistemology stance and to guide my understanding of pedagogical practices because I subscribe to the worldview of this paradigm (Creswell, 2014a; Hemphill, Richards, Templin & Blankenship, 2012). This paradigm is attributed to Wilhelm Dilthey and Friedrich Schleiermacher's philosophy of hermeneutics which is a practice of interpretation (Kumar, 2011). In addition, Nieuwenhuis (2015a) explains that hermeneutics is also a philosophy of meaning, interpretation and understanding, whose main focus is the reading and the interpretation of the human text. It is underpinned by the belief that all humans live in a complex social reality, which makes human text complex, and understanding this reality is made possible through interpretation. That is, interpretivism generates knowledge from interpretations that are bound by context, space and time of a given practice (Kumar, 2014; Mayers, 2013; Merriam, 2009).

My choice of the interpretive research paradigm was motivated by the following reasons: the need for a social science research-based paradigm, the purpose and focus of my study and the EL and LSP theories that framed my theoretical framework. The reason for a social science research-based paradigm is based on the understanding that the physical or natural science research-based paradigm is not suitable for understanding human beings and their social reality (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Bryman, 2012; Flick, 2014; Gary, 2011), because the realities of the social science field (contextual) and that of the natural science field (universal) are fundamentally different (Bryman, 2012). Each contextual reality requires its own respective research paradigm. For this reason, I chose the interpretive research paradigm on the basis that it is rooted in social science research (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2014c) and is critical for facilitating an understanding of pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning in the Katete District of Zambia.

Another reason for choosing the interpretive research paradigm was that the research questions which I posed in chapter one were aligned with the interpretive research paradigm (Nieuwenhuis, 2015a). My research questions do not focus on prescribing, but on exploring what pedagogical practices the facilitators had constructed, and how and why they used them in adult literacy classes. Therefore, the interpretive research paradigm was suitable for this focus because I embraced the ontological stance that pedagogical practices are socially constructed (Babbie, 2007; Mayers, 2013).

The other justification for choosing the interpretive research paradigm was drawn from the purpose and focus of this study, which was to understand and generate knowledge on pedagogical practices within the literacy contexts of the participants. For this reason, I found that the interpretive research paradigm was aligned with the purpose and focus of this study because this paradigm is concerned with understanding a phenomenon in a specific context. In substantiating this decision, Kumar (2011) suggests that the research paradigm of the enquiry is determined by the purpose of the research undertaking. Furthermore, this paradigm allows for a meaningful and comprehensive interaction with the participants and facilitates the collection of rich and in-depth information (Nieuwenhuis, 2015a; Yin, 2011).

The third reason is that the LSP and EL theoretical framework informs my choice of the interpretive research paradigm on the basis that LSP and EL regard literacy and adult learning as situated in the context of the people which is bounded by history and culture, and that knowledge is socially constructed within the specific context (Black & Yasukawa, 2014; Hanemann, 2015; Rogers & Street, 2012). As indicated earlier, the LSP theory argues that

there is not one literacy, but multiple literacies that are found in different domains of life (Tett, 2014). Similarly, the interpretive research paradigm holds the position that there is not one social reality, but multiple realities that are bound by various contexts and these realities can only be understood in a relevant context. Based on this convergence, the interpretive research paradigm was envisioned to provide an ideal framework for understanding pedagogical practices within the sociocultural context of the adult learners.

4.2.1 Application of interpretivism to this study

The interpretive research paradigm was applied to this study through its ontological and epistemological assumptions.

4.2.1.1 Ontological assumptions

Like any other philosophy, ontology is concerned with the nature of reality. It seeks to answer the broad philosophical question of what it means to exist. The interpretive research paradigm is based on the ontological assumption that reality is socially constructed and that humans are at the centre of constructing their reality (Bryman, 2012). Elaborating on this view, Creswell (2014c) postulates that reality is not only constructed as a single social reality, but rather from multiple intangible social realities which are dependent on the mind, context, space, time, individuals and social group, and these realities cannot be generalised to other settings.

In light of this, I adopted the ontological assumption that reality is socially constructed and this decision was informed by two broad premises: literacy is a social practice that is bound by context, space and time (Barton et al., 2000b; Rogers & Street, 2012); and adult learning is experiential learning which is context specific and ingrained in the sociocultural environment of the adult learners (Biryukova et al., 2015; Black & Yasukawa, 2014; Boon, 2011). The overarching implication of this view is that the research participants constructed their social reality both consciously and unconsciously. For this reason, I perceived that the reality of the research participants has a specific meaning, importance and relevance to themselves as well as to my own understanding of the meaning that they attach to literacy learning and pedagogical practices which are used to teach them.

This is in agreement with the understanding that the sociocultural context represents a strong sense of belonging to any group of people among whom social practices and learning situations are ingrained (Crowther et al., 2010; Boon & Kurvers, 2015; Radovan & Makovec, 2015). Considering the ontological position that reality is socially constructed, it would mean

adopting a constructivist approach to interpret how this reality is constructed. My point of departure was to understand pedagogical practices and how they were used in adult literacy-learning. Therefore, it was important for me to focus on understanding how my research participants interpreted their pedagogical practices and participation in adult literacy classes. At this point, it is also important to indicate that ontology goes hand in hand with epistemology, and for this reason, the discussion will be incomplete without looking at my epistemological assumptions.

4.2.1.2 Epistemological assumptions

Epistemology in this study is concerned with knowledge of the phenomenon of non-formal adult literacy-learning and its associated pedagogy. This implies knowledge of how non-formal adult literacy-learning and its associated pedagogical practices could be understood by using the research participants' own interpretation of the meaning that they attach to their literacy learning. At this level, some of the researchers who have undertaken interpretive research (Creswell, 2014b; Flick, 2014; Gary, 2011; Ghose, 2007; Mayers, 2013) believe that knowledge is understood by examining how participants interpret their social reality. This means that non-formal adult literacy-learning and its pedagogical practices are a product of people's actions that are embedded in their everyday life experiences. What people consider as true or false is bound by context and defined by culture and history. If this argument holds, then it can be concluded that daily literacy practices that are based on shared stories and beliefs could be placed within the frame of legitimate knowledge.

In view of this, my epistemological stance in this study is that knowledge is based on the participants' subjective experiences of the external world. The social reality of the participants is important to them as it represents their life worlds and what they do in their reality carries ontological meaning. Bryman (2012) observes that people act according to the meaning that is attributed to their actions or of other people's actions. This brings to light the assumption that all participants in this study had the capacity to generate or construct knowledge or meaning, which they did regardless of their social, political, religious and economic standing in their communities. To clearly understand this phenomenon, I had to ask questions that were relevant to the setting of the participants and that were based on their meaning making and interpretations of literacy-learning activities.

Just as important as the social reality in understanding non-formal adult literacy-learning and its associated pedagogical practices, is the research participant's consciousness. Babbie et al. (2006) espouse that the consciousness of human beings is central to the interpretive

paradigm because it forms the foundation of people's construction of knowledge through which a better understanding is obtained. On this basis, I considered all research participants as self-directed persons who are conscious of their actions (Kolb, 2014), because they engage in different literacy practices, meaning making and interpretations on a daily basis (Nabi et al., 2009).

In addition, my use of interpretation does not mean that I had to report only on how the research participants understood their literacy-learning and how they used pedagogical practices in class. Crucially, I situated the participants' knowledge in a scientific frame as guided by research (Creswell, 2014c; Kumar, 2014; Yin, 2014, 2011). This implies that I had to understand and interpret the research participants' socially constructed knowledge through the LSP and EL theories and the literature that was reviewed on non-formal adult literacy-learning.

Furthermore, another benchmark for this understanding was based on "logical consistency" and "logical adequacy". I aimed to achieve logical consistency by ensuring that the subject of pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy which I explored was internally consistent and conformed to a broad system of social science research (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2014). Through this, my ontological and epistemological positions were coherent with a scientific system of thought. Logical adequacy was achieved by the research participants' attesting to understanding the explanations and interpretations of the research findings. That is, they could see themselves realistically reflected in my explanations and interpretations of the findings. Although interpretivism has been widely used in qualitative research (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2014), there are some criticisms levelled against it.

4.2.2 Criticisms of interpretive research paradigm

The first criticism levelled against the interpretive research paradigm is that its findings cannot be generalised because it is only interested in understanding a phenomenon in a specific setting (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2014). This criticism was levelled despite attempts by scholars like Clifford Geertz, Reinhard Bendix and Benedict Anderson, to provide approaches for generalising interpretive research findings. However, there has been minimal success in their attempts, and interpretive research findings remain open to further interpretations (Bryman, 2012; Flick, 2014; Kumar, 2014). This criticism does not affect the focus of this study because the purpose was not to generalise the findings but to understand pedagogical practices through the meanings that participants attached to them within their situated contexts (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2014). Moreover, studies based on human beings may prove very

difficult to generalise to other settings because the behaviour of people is never constant. It changes based on time, place and context (Girvan et al., 2016).

The other criticism is based on rigour and objectivity. It is contested that the interpretive research paradigm is neither rigorous nor objective. It is prone to biases in terms of data collection and interpretation of the findings due to the active involvement of the researcher in the research process (King & Horrocks, 2010). However, biases are not exclusive to an interpretive research paradigm; bias can occur in any research. To overcome this criticism, I maintained the trustworthiness of this study through different measures which I discussed under quality assurance towards the end of this chapter. In addition, I maintained rigour by following the scientific procedures of qualitative research during sampling, data generation and collection, data analysis, and the interpretation and presentation of the findings. Maree (2012) confirms that studies framed under the interpretive research paradigm maintain rigour in answering questions by following the scientific qualitative research procedures. Therefore, it is possible that this criticism is based on the misunderstanding and the lack of the adequate interrogation of the meaning of rigour and objectivity in the context of qualitative research (Yanow and Schwartz-Shea, 2014).

Additionally, I took the stance that knowledge is subjective and there is no such thing as objective knowledge (Flick, 2014; Nieuwenhuis, 2015a): knowledge is constructed socially, and cannot be separated from the people who are the producers of that knowledge (Mitton Kukner & Murray Orr, 2015). This means that absolute objectivity is never attainable because human action is constantly influenced by the social reality in which people are found.

The other criticism is that the interpretive research paradigm lacks an absolute ground for its propositions. For example, the paradigm postulate that there is no single correct path or ideal method to knowledge and yet it does not provide an absolute theoretical grounding for this argument (Kumar, 2014; Morton, McGuire, & Baynham, 2006). Based on my ontological and epistemological stance that reality and knowledge are socially constructed, I contend that the claim for absolute truth is not part of the human condition because meaning lies in multiple truths that are framed by various contexts of existence. Therefore, I found the interpretivist paradigm useful to this study because it holds a fundamental position on the role of the researcher in a particular phenomenon. My interest in pedagogical practices was crucial for choosing the research design, and my choice of research methods was guided by the need to generate rich explanations from an in-depth exploration of pedagogical practices within the

setting of my research participants (Chilisa & Preece, 2005; Babbie et al., 2006; Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2014).

In view of all these criticisms, what remains clear is that any research conducted within the framework of the interpretive research paradigm should introduce a benchmark for measuring quality or validity that is based on the scientific approach of social science research (Nieuwenhuis, 2015a; Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2014; Yin, 2011). In my view, the interpretive research paradigm cannot be evaluated and criticised based on standards derived from the positivist research paradigm: the two research paradigms hold different philosophical orientations and foci; therefore, the interpretive research paradigm should not be judged under the same criteria that are established for the positivist philosophical view of research.

4.3 Research approach: Qualitative

In this study, I used a qualitative approach to understand pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning. Although there is a considerable body of literature on studies done in different disciplines, there seems to be no agreement on whether qualitative research is an approach, methodology, type of research, paradigm or research design. For instance, Nieuwenhuis (2015a:51) describes qualitative research as both a paradigm and methodology. In his view, it is a paradigm because it has emerged with its own worldview of reality. Secondly, it is a methodology because it is concerned with the search for “understanding a phenomenon” and not “explaining a phenomenon”. For Bryman (2012) qualitative research is a strategy which is broadly inductivist, constructivist and interpretivist. For Creswell (2014b) qualitative research is both a type of research design and an approach. As a design, it is a plan for research that ranges from decisions on the topic to interpretations of the findings. I refer to ‘qualitative research’ as an approach because it is a means of exploring and understanding the meaning that individuals or groups attach to a social or human problem.

Framing this study within the qualitative research approach was critical for gaining insight into both literacy-learning and the sociocultural context in which it takes place (Mayers, 2013; Nabi et al., 2009). A qualitative approach is vital for a detailed understanding of the subject of non-formal adult literacy-learning, and the pedagogical practices that are used in classes (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Black & Yasukawa, 2014). It is important to mention that this approach allowed me to generate an in-depth understanding through physical interaction and talking to the research participants regarding their understanding of the meaning that they attach to their participation in adult literacy-learning and how pedagogical practices were used (Mayers, 2013; Merriam, 2009). Mayers (2013) regards “talking” as critical in qualitative research by

arguing that the attribute of “talking” distinguishes humans from all other living beings. It is through “talking” to people or by reading what they have written that an understanding of their meanings and interpretations are inferred. That is, when we engage in talking with other people we gather rich information and a better understanding of a phenomenon.

Therefore, the motivation for using this approach was guided by the purpose and focus of the study, the meaning of literacy and the interpretive research paradigm that were adopted for this study. With regard to the purpose and focus, the study sought to “understand” how and why pedagogical practices are used in non-formal adult literacy classes. This relates to both the EL and LSP theories of adult learning which framed this study and the purpose of qualitative research. Nieuwenhuis (2015a) indicates that the concern of qualitative research is to “understand” a phenomenon in its natural setting – the sociocultural setting – which underlies various behavioural patterns. In this study, my interaction with the participants was critical, because I anticipated that it would provide an opportunity for me to interact with the direct experiences of the participants while observing them in their natural environment. This facilitates the collection of first-hand information on meanings and interpretations.

The other factor that influenced this decision is the nature of literacy: it is social practices bound by the sociocultural context and can be better understood through a qualitative approach (Black & Yasukawa, 2014). This decision is supported by studies on literacy-learning that used the qualitative approach to understand the literacy practices in communities (Ghose, 2007; Nabi et al., 2009; Street, 2014; Tett, 2014) as mediated by the culture of the participants. Additionally, I am of the view that whatever intervention is implemented in an adult literacy-learning programme is bound by the sociocultural context of the people. For this reason, I found it expedient to be physically among the research participants to generate a rich understanding of the meaning that they attach to their adult literacy-learning and to determine how they interpret the meaning in relation to their everyday practices.

Another motivation for this choice was based on my philosophical worldview of research that ontologically, reality is a social construct and that epistemologically it is interpretive. I chose a subjective view of reality that was informed by the interpretive research paradigm and argued that social reality cannot be separated from the research participants who were the creators of their own realities (Kirch, 2015; Kleickmann et al., 2013; Kolb, 2014). Therefore, I anticipated that a qualitative approach would allow me to immerse myself in the context of the participants and gain insight into their perspectives that were based on their experiences. In substantiating this position, Bryman (2012), and Creswell (2014c) suggest that when the

researcher takes on a subjective view of reality, the focus of research is on understanding something in terms of the ways in which participants create, revise and interpret their reality. In concretising this decision, Mayers (2013), and Yanow and Schwartz-Shea (2014) espouse that the interpretive research paradigm is associated with a qualitative approach because it aims at understanding a phenomenon in a specific setting. However, by taking a subjective view of reality meant that I needed to consider the strengths and weaknesses of my choice of qualitative research.

4.3.1 Strengths of qualitative research

Qualitative research allows researchers to observe and understand phenomena in a context in which decisions take place. The context plays an important role in qualitative research because it explains why individuals or groups act as they do (Mayers, 2013). Another strength is that qualitative research is reliable in ensuring logical consistency because it is concerned with textual data that are embedded in a specific context (Kumar, 2014). Conversely, quantitative research largely loses its contextual meaning because textual data are often quantified in a decontextualised and emotively sterile environment. The strength of using a qualitative approach in this study was premised on my understanding that it would facilitate a detailed understanding as it allows for physical interaction with the research participants. That is, it allows for clarification and understanding beyond the expressed words, as it includes interpreting the emotive content that participants attach to their views which is reflected in body language and facial expressions.

4.3.2 The weaknesses of qualitative research

Conversely, the qualitative approach is viewed as an unscientific academic stance as it is subjective and lacks generalisation: it is biased due to the active involvement of the researcher in the study (Kumar, 2014). However, this criticism is based on an unequal comparison with quantitative research. As indicated earlier, research, including quantitative research is not immune to subjectivity. I included quality assurance measures to minimise all forms of biases which would have compromised the validity or trustworthiness of the study. For example, I applied a dense description of the methods that were used and the findings, and I audited the findings to ensure that the research was trustworthy. The other weakness levelled against a qualitative approach is that it does not allow for generalisation of the findings (Maree, 2012). This perceived weakness may also be based on the lack of adequate interrogation of the purpose of qualitative research. My focus of the study was to understand pedagogical practices in a context, therefore, a generalisation of the findings was not required (Creswell, 2014b).

4.4 Research methodology

The research methodology refers to practically conducting a research study. It is the “how” of a research study that focuses on the implementation of the research design (Kumar, 2014). The research methodology for this study comprises the study design, research methods, sampling, data analysis, and quality assurances measures. I now discuss the details in the next section.

4.4.1 Study design: explorative multiple case study

The study design that I used for this study was a qualitative explorative multiple case study. The case in this study design was the non-formal adult literacy-learning programme. The multiple case study design refers to the two non-formal adult literacy-learning programmes in the research site as will be explained in detail in this section. The pedagogical practices are the focus within each case. These decisions were based on the principle that for a study to be called a case study, it must have a clearly defined case (Yin, 2014). The case represents both the theoretical and practical basis on which the interest of a study is grounded (Mayers, 2013; Yin, 2014), in this case the nature and practice of pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy classes. In view of this, Yin (2014: 16) defines a case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon a “case” in-depth within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between a phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident”.

The principle motivation for adopting a case study in understanding pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District of Zambia was based on the existing knowledge gaps on the subject of pedagogy. Evidence from the literature shows that very little is known on the subject of pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy-learning. Caruth (2014b), Choi et al. (2014), Dghe (2006) Ministry of Education (2015), and Schweisfurth (2015) attest to the fact that pedagogy remains a neglected area in the entire education discourse. They indicate that changes in education policy and curricula have been emphasised, but very minimal attention has been given to pedagogy. For this reason, I chose a case study because it is useful for exploring an area which has been understudied (Nieuwenhuis, 2015a; Yin, 2012). I realised that a case study would be appropriate for exploring in-depth information on pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.

Furthermore, my choice of a multiple case-study design was also aligned with the focus of the study. It was important because the more the cases, the greater the credibility of the study (Yin, 2012). This decision was informed by the presence of two main adult literacy-learning

providers in the research site. The other reason is that this study sought to answer the “How” and “Why” research questions, and a case study design is suitable for answering these questions (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014c; Yin, 2014). Nevertheless, it is important to mention that a case study is not the only study design that can answer the “How” question; an experiment can also perform this role. However, my choice of a multiple case study was informed by the more compelling advantage that a case study has over an experiment. That is, unlike an experiment, a case study was able to accommodate the contextual significance of the study because context was important to my understanding of the pedagogical practices and how the facilitators used them in class. Yin (2012) confirms that the need to include the context of the subject of inquiry is one of the key reasons for using a case study. The basis of this argument is that every case is embedded in a context and can only be understood in its context.

In addition, the theoretical framework was another compelling factor for my choice of a multiple case study, because the LSP theory emphasises the social context of literacy practices. This theory argues that literacy practices never take place in a vacuum, but are bound by context, just like adult literacy-learning (Perry, 2012; Rogers & Street, 2012). Therefore, I found it necessary and appropriate to link my understanding of pedagogical practices to the context of the participants. The value of doing this is that it leads to generating rich and detailed information on the phenomenon (Yin, 2014). Having provided the motivation for the choice of a multiple case study, it is now important to address some of the strengths and weaknesses of a multiple case study.

4.4.1.1 Strengths of a case study

The strength of using a multiple case study is based on its ability to provide a detailed and multiple analysis and deep understanding of pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes. This view is supported by Rule and John (2011), and Yin (2014) who recommend that a case study is useful for understanding a phenomenon (in this case pedagogical practices) in greater depth by focusing on its complex relations in a wider context. Similarly, Gary (2011) postulates that a case study produces a rich perspective of an issue from several epistemological view points and through different sets of data. It produces a multiple understanding of a phenomenon by viewing it in its totality while looking at it from different angles. In relation to this study, the idea of using a multiple case study was premised on the perceived strength that it would provide a detailed exploration and understanding of pedagogical practices in relation to the broader context of adult learning pedagogy, as supported by Kumar (2014) and Yin (2014). In addition, the choice of a case study was based

on the conviction that by nature it allows for the flexibility to use multiple research methods, thereby helping to enhance the trustworthiness of the study.

Furthermore, the strength of using a multiple case study is based on its versatility and manageability (Rule & John, 2011). Compared to other types of research, a case study is flexible as the researcher chooses the unit of analysis, the data collection methods and the research participants (Creswell, 2014c). It was vital in this study to be able to select participants who could provide rich information through a variety of data sources. The versatility of a case study was also crucial for generating an in-depth understanding of pedagogical practices by combining different research methods to collect information on this phenomenon. More importantly, a case study is manageable compared to large-scale research (Kumar, 2014). For example, it offered me a clear delimitation of the study that ranged from the unit of analysis, research site, participants and important sources of data. However, a case study has certain weaknesses.

4.4.1.2 Weaknesses of a case study

The commonly cited weakness of all case studies has been their inability to use the findings for generalisation because they concentrate on an issue or phenomenon in a specific setting or context (Yin, 2012). In defence of this, Kumar (2014), Maree (2012), and Nieuwenhuis (2015a) say that this criticism is based on an inadequate comprehension of the nature of a case study, and specifically its purpose. They state that the main focus of a case study, especially in qualitative research, is to understand a phenomenon in its natural setting or context and it does not aim at generalising to other settings. This position was applied to this study as I indicated earlier. The other perceived weakness of a case study is that it is prone to changes in orientation as the study progresses (Creswell, 2014c). It is believed that a case study tends to generate different orientations from the initial focus or research questions of the study as the researcher may develop new interests from the emerging findings. In order to avoid this, I constantly referred to the purpose and focus of the study as I progressed in conducting the study, as suggested by Yin (2014).

Although a multiple case study can be used as a safeguard, it is said to have its own major flaws. In the first place, the objective of the multiple case study is to facilitate a detailed analysis of cases by using a unit of analysis as indicated earlier. This means that the analysis has to relate to the entire unit of analysis (Creswell, 2014c), which in this study is the 'pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning' within multiple cases. In view of this, Yin (2012) explains that the major weakness of a multiple case study is the risk that the researcher tends

to focus on the cases and may fail to return to the main unit of analysis. To strengthen this study, the data that I generated and collected from the cases were crosschecked and related to the broader and main unit of analysis: pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes (Creswell, 2014c).

Although some quantitative-based scholars look at this as a weakness, it refers more to the due-diligence of the researcher. In this study, it was my responsibility to ensure that all measures regarding rigour were followed as they were proposed. In the event that I exercised negligence by forgetting to relate the findings of the embedded unit of analysis (pedagogical practices) to the cases (non-formal adult literacy-learning programmes within the two contexts), the study would have been compromised: however, in this study, it is not the case. This section has discussed the study design adopted for this study and factors that motivated this choice. It is important at this stage to explain the sampling of the research site and participants, and the data-gathering methods in terms of what, how and why I used them.

4.5 Sampling of the research site and the participants

It is generally agreed among scholars (Creswell, 2014c; Kumar, 2014; Maree, 2015; Nieuwenhuis, 2015b) that in qualitative research, the research site and participants are identified and selected through purposive sampling to assist in understanding the phenomenon that is investigated in a specific setting. In addition, Cohen et al. (2007) indicate that the research sites and participants are selected through purposive sampling because it allows the researcher to choose participants who are judged to possess particular characteristics and knowledge, which may produce new knowledge on the subject under investigation. For Flick (2014), and Merriam (2009) purposive sampling underscores the purpose of the qualitative study and provides a concept map for making decisions about key and relevant information sources.

Similarly, I used purposive sampling in this study because I believed that it would allow me to identify and select the research site and participants based on key and relevant attributes to answer the research question. In addition, purposive sampling has a compelling advantage over probability sampling because it allowed me to choose the relevant sample needed to collect data that were relevant to the purpose of the study. For example, the non-formal adult literacy-learning programme as a 'case' directly relates to adult education, which is my field of specialisation and adult literacy-learning is my main area of interest. The details of the sampling procedure and justification are discussed in the following section.

4.5.1 Sampling of the research site

The Katete District was purposively selected as the research site on the basis that it had the highest level of adult illiteracy in the country, which was estimated at 63% (CSO, 2012a). Coupled with the overall poor performance of non-formal adult literacy-learning programmes in Zambia, and the lack of research on pedagogy in these programmes, this context seemed to offer a suitable context for understanding pedagogical practices in NFALL.

The adult literacy-learning centres owned by each literacy-learning provider were the embedded research sites within this main research site. The government had five active adult literacy centres, and Tikondane had one active adult literacy-learning centre. Therefore, this study was conducted in six embedded research sites in the Katete District. I foresaw the use of multiple research sites to help in data crystallisation for purposes of enhancing the trustworthiness of the study as propagated by Maree (2015).

4.5.2 Research participants

The participants for this study were adult literacy-learning providers, adult literacy-learning facilitators and adult literacy learners. The adult literacy-learning providers represented the government through the Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare (MCDSW) and Tikondane, a non-governmental organization. The criteria for selecting these providers included that they were the main providers of adult literacy-learning programmes within the Katete District. From the selected adult literacy-learning providers, the staff responsible for managing adult literacy-learning programmes were identified to help with understanding the pedagogical practices used by each provider. I purposively selected them on the basis that they were presumed to possess key attributes such as knowledge of the programmes that were provided and how pedagogical practices were used, as suggested by Maree and Westhuizen (2015). I approached each provider individually to request for their voluntary participation in the study.

The management of adult literacy-learning programmes that were provided by the government was based on the premise that each adult literacy-learning centre was expected to have two types of staff. These were the Community Development Assistants (CDAs), who were the personnel responsible for a specific community development sub-centre, and the literacy-learning facilitators whose main responsibility was to facilitate or teach literacy in adult literacy classes. For Tikondane, I found that there were three adult literacy-learning facilitators and one staff member who managed the adult literacy-learning programme at their adult literacy-learning centre. One facilitator was in charge of Cicewa (local language) based literacy and

the other two were in charge of English language-based literacy. However, for the government adult literacy-learning programme, the adult literacy classes were based on the Cicewa or Cinyanja language that is spoken by the people in the District.

The tables below summarise the characteristics of the research participants in both literacy-learning programmes. The literacy-learning programme provided by the government is represented by the pseudonym LLP-A and that of Tikondane by LLP-B. The participants in the LLP-A included the five managers of the adult literacy-learning programme who are presented in table 4.1 below by the acronym DCDO, which refers to the District Community Development Officer, and CDA, the Community Development Assistant. There were eight adult literacy-learning facilitators that are presented in table 4.2 below by the pseudonyms FA1 to FA8, and the adult literacy learners from the five research sites. Below is the summary of their attributes.

4.5.3 Literacy-Learning Programme (LLP-A)

Table 4.1 Key attributes of the managers

Participants	Gender	Professional attributes	Participation
DCDO	Female	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full-time government worker • Manage ALLP in the entire district • Degree in adult education 	4 years
CDA 1A	Female	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full-time government worker • Manage ALLP at sub-centre & Facilitator • Certificate in community development 	4 years
CDA 2A	Female	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full-time government worker • Manage ALLP at sub-centre & Facilitator • Certificate in community development 	4 years
CDA 3A	Male	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full-time government worker • Manage ALLP at sub-centre • Certificate in community development 	3 years
CDA 4A	Female	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full-time government worker • Manage ALLP at sub-centre & Facilitator • Certificate in community development 	6 years

4.5.4 Adult Literacy-Learning Facilitators (ALLF)

In the LLP-A programme, the adult literacy-learning facilitators were referred to as literacy instructors. However, I chose to use the term literacy-learning facilitators for purposes of conforming to the requirements of adult learning pedagogy. In adult learning, an adult educator is referred to as a facilitator or enabler of social change, and not as an instructor who

commands adult learners to obey instructions (Ginsburg & Gal, 1996; Hanna, Salzman, Reynolds, & Fergus, 2010; Knox, 1986; Radovan & Makovec, 2015). Instead, they facilitate or scaffold adult learners to improve on the skills which they have found too difficult to do on their own. Table 4.2 below shows the key attributes of the facilitators in the LLP-A.

Table 4.2: Key attributes of the literacy learning facilitators

Participants	Gender	Professional attributes	Participation
FA1	Female	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Volunteer facilitator 1-week training in adult learning pedagogy 	4 years
FA2	Male	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Volunteer facilitator 1-week training in adult learning pedagogy 	3 years
FA3	Male	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Volunteer facilitator Never trained in adult learning pedagogy, but trained to train farmers in animal care. 	8 years
FA4	Male	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Volunteer facilitator 1-week training in adult learning pedagogy 	14 years
FA5	Male	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Volunteer facilitator Functional and school literacies 1-week training in adult learning pedagogy 	5 years
FA6	Male	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Volunteer facilitator Never trained in adult learning pedagogy 	17 years
FA7	Male	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Volunteer facilitator 1-week training in adult learning pedagogy 	13 years
FA8	Female	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Volunteer facilitator Never trained to teach adults, but children (Early Childhood Education) 	2 years

4.5.5 Literacy-Learning Programme B (LLP-B)

Similarly, the participants in this programme included the managers, the literacy-learning facilitators and the adult learners. Table 4.3 below illustrates the key attributes of the managers who are represented by the pseudonyms B1A and B2A, whereas literacy-learning facilitators are represented by the pseudonyms FB1, FB2 and FB3.

Table 4.3: Key attributes of the managers and literacy-learning facilitators

Participants	Gender	Professional attributes	Participation
B1A	Female	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Nursing and community educationManaging the organisation	26 Years
B2A	Male	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Programmes managerCertificate in community developmentCertificate in adult learning	16 years
FB1	Female	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Volunteer facilitatorPrimary school teacher	10 years
FB2	Female	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Volunteer facilitatorCertificate in Early Childhood Education	13 years
FB3	Male	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Volunteer facilitatorGrade 12 school certificate	9 years

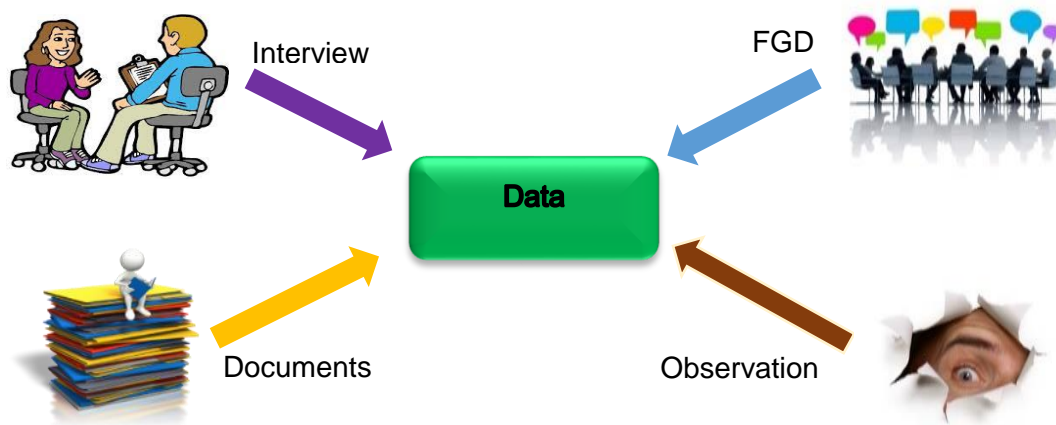
4.5.6 The adult literacy learners

The adult learners for both the LLP-A and LLP-B comprised of both men and women, though in terms of participation in adult literacy classes there were more women compared to men. Generally, the socio-economic life of most of the adult learners was centred on small-scale subsistence farming: specifically farming for home consumption and sometimes for business purposes. A few of the adult learners' economic life was based on either working for someone or managing their own small businesses. All the adult learners had different reasons for participating in adult literacy classes as will be explained later. In terms of social life, the adult learners were characterised by the following social roles: husbands, wives, parents, guardians, widows and widowers.

4.6 Research methods: Data generation and collection

I used both data generation and collection because as a qualitative researcher, I was immersed in both processes of the study (Mason, 2002). Data generation refers to the idea that qualitative researchers do not merely collect data because information is not readily-available in a given social world. Rather qualitative researchers construct and generate knowledge as they interact with research participants and documents (Flick, 2014, Mason, 2002). In addition, literacy as a Social Practices (LSP) and Experiential Learning theories focus on literacy practices and learning that take place in a context and by implication follow qualitative research methods. Guided by the purpose and focus of the study and linked to the theoretical framework and the research paradigm of this study, four data generation and collection methods were used: semi-structured face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions (FGDs), observations and document analysis as shown in figure 4.1 below.

Figure 4.1: Data generation and collection methods used



Source: (ClipArt Best, 2013; Duke University, 2015).

4.6.1 Semi-structured Interviews

I conducted a total of sixteen (16) semi-structured interviews with the adult literacy-learning providers of both programmes. This was done to generate data from the staff that managed adult literacy-learning programmes and from the adult literacy-learning facilitators. All interviews were audio recorded to collect the exact responses from the participants. The breakdown was as follows: I had one face-to-face interview with the District Community Development Officer (DCDO), who represented the government as the adult literacy-learning provider; five face-to-face interviews were held with the staff managing adult literacy-learning programmes and five face-to-face interviews were scheduled with the adult literacy-learning facilitators. I conducted a total of five face-to-face interviews at Tikondane. One interview was scheduled with the director of the organisation as a provider of adult literacy-learning; one face-to-face interview was held with the manager of adult literacy-learning programmes and three face-to-face interviews were conducted with adult literacy-learning facilitators. I used different interview schedules (Appendices K & L), for each category of my participants. Some of the questions appear in both schedules because I wanted to collect specific information that was based on their respective roles in non-formal adult literacy classes.

Since the purpose and focus of this study was to understand pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning, it was necessary for me to interview the research participants to understand their lived experiences in adult literacy-learning, as suggested by Rachamim and Orland-Barak (2016). In addition, I premised the choice of semi-structured interviews to create the opportunity to collect detailed and rich information through probing and clarifications, unlike

using more closed-ended structured interviews. For example, Flick (2014), Merriam (2009), and Yin (2011) suggest that interviews are the dominant data collection method in qualitative research, for the reason that they facilitate a deeper and detailed understanding of a phenomenon that is studied.

I used semi-structured interviews because they are flexible and seek for specific and detailed data from the participants (King & Horrocks, 2010). They were crucial for understanding the participants' interpretations of the meanings that they attached to the provision of adult literacy-learning, pedagogical practices and the adult learners' participation in adult literacy-learning classes. This decision was informed by Creswell (2014c), Flick (2014) and Merriam (2009) who suggest that human beings tend to interpret experiences in unique ways. Thus, in order to gather relevant information on a phenomenon that is studied, interview questions should be less structured and more probing to accommodate various interpretations. In addition, I recognised that semi-structured interviews would create an opportunity to collect specific and relevant information from the participants and would allow for posing follow-up questions. Additionally, I surmised that an interview would provide opportunities for the participants to explain issues and themes which could possibly emerge from the interview (Flick, 2014; King & Horrocks, 2010).

In view of the foregoing, face-to-face interviews with the literacy-learning providers, the staff managing adult literacy-learning programmes and the adult literacy-learning facilitators took place in their respective offices and learning venues and at their convenience. Before the commencement of the interview, I approached the participants individually and privately to inform them that they were purposively selected to participate in the study. I also took the time to explain all ethical issues regarding their participation as explained in the ethical consideration section. After their consent, I conducted the interviews. I started with the literacy-learning providers and the staff managing adult literacy-learning programmes because I needed to conceptualise and understand the profile of the organisations involved in literacy-learning provision before I could interview the literacy-learning facilitators. Most of the interviews lasted for not more than 45 minutes. Thereafter, I conducted interviews with literacy-learning facilitators which also took place at their convenience in the venues of their choice, which were suitable for face-to-face interviews.

Interviews in qualitative research are a form of knowledge construction that is based on the interaction between the researcher and the research participants (Flick, 2014). The conversation is the main constitutive element of interviews and the best mode of human

interaction (Kumar, 2014). Interviews are an essential part of qualitative research because they help to collect information on issues we cannot directly observe (Merriam, 2009). For this reason, I used interviews for understanding the meanings that participants attached to pedagogical practices and their subsequent interpretations thereof. In order to optimise these interviews, I followed the interview guidelines as suggested by Creswell (2014a:243):

- a. Identify the interviewee/s through purposive sampling,
- b. Determine the type of interview you will use,
- c. During the interview, audio tape the questions and responses,
- d. Take brief notes during the interview,
- e. Identify a quiet, suitable place for conducting the interview,
- f. Obtain consent from the interviewee to participate in the study,
- g. Design a question-posing schedule, but be flexible enough to follow the conversation,
- h. Use probes to obtain additional information, and
- i. Be courteous and professional when the interview is over and thank the interviewee.

I used these guidelines to organise and proceed with the interviews. They helped me to establish a healthy rapport and to obtain appropriate responses from the interviewees. After conducting face-to-face interviews, I proceeded to conduct focus group discussions with adult literacy learners as discussed in the following section.

4.6.2 Focus group discussion

In some instances, a researcher may collect and generate data through a discussion or discussions with a group of participants that are focussed on the research topic. This mode of data generation and collection is known as focus group discussion (Creswell, 2014a). Yin (2011) explains that a focus group discussion (FGD) is a method of collecting qualitative data with a moderately sized group of people. It is called focus group because it is based on selecting individuals who have a common experience or share common views on the research topic (King & Horrocks, 2010).

In view of this, I used focus group discussions to collect data from adult literacy learners. Their purpose was to gather information on adult literacy learners' experiences in non-formal adult literacy-learning. I wanted to understand the meaning that they attached to their participation in adult literacy-learning and their interpretations thereof. I was interested in understanding their experiences of what they were taught and how they were taught. Focus group discussions were suitable for collecting data from these selected participants because they

had a common contextual exposure (Flick, 2014) by participating in adult literacy-learning programmes. Furthermore, FGDs were familiar to the participants because their own village meetings were usually conducted in a similar manner of social interaction. For this reason, I thought the use of FGDs would facilitate the collection of information from this group of participants as these discussions related to their cultural traditions.

I conducted a total of six (6) focus group discussions by using a focus group-discussion protocol (Appendix M), because the embedded research sites for this study had six (6) active adult literacy-learning centres and four were located in LLP-A and two in LLP-B. One focus group discussion was conducted per adult literacy-learning centre. My role in the discussions was that of moderator, and I used an interpreter to translate the questions from English to Cicewa, a local language that is spoken by the participants. I have knowledge of the language but I am not fluent, hence the use of an interpreter who was selected from among the participants. There was a maximum of eight (8) participants per focus group discussion and they were selected on the condition that they regularly attended classes. After gathering information from face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions, I proceeded to observe the actual teaching in literacy-learning classes.

4.6.3 Observation

Similarly, I conducted a total of six (6) class observations to gather information of how adult literacy-learning facilitators use pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes. This decision was based on the six active adult literacy-learning centres that were available and accessible in the district of both LLP-A and LLP-B. That is, I conducted one observation at each adult literacy-learning centre. It was important to observe the facilitators while they were using pedagogical practices so that I could collect first-hand information and compare it with the information that was gathered by the face-to-face interviews. This was crucial to determine if what the facilitators said about their pedagogical practices during interviews was mirrored in their classroom practice. I physically observed facilitators and took some photos of events and objects which I considered relevant as the facilitators were facilitating in each adult literacy-learning session. The photographs were crucial for purposes of illustrations in the presentations of the findings and were taken with the consent from the participants. The observations were guided by an observation schedule (Appendix N), which contained key aspects on pedagogical practices that are relevant to adult learning. These include the description of the adult literacy-learning participants (gender, socio-economic roles/status), the lesson taught, the duration of the session, the venue used and its suitability for adult

learning, the language of instruction, the use of the adult learners' life experiences, and the pedagogical strategies used and their relevance to adult learning.

My role in this observation was a non-participant observer because I focused on observing and recording pedagogical practices and I was not part of the adult literacy-learning activities of the participants. This decision was informed by Chilisa and Preece (2005), and Flick (2014). During the observations, I sat at the back of the classrooms and observed the facilitators as they facilitated. In support of how I conducted the observations, Nieuwenhuis (2015b) explains that an observation is a data collection technique that involves recording the actions of the research participants, by not necessarily engaging in verbal communication with them.

An observation has both strengths and weaknesses. For instance, its main strength is that it provides an opportunity to record events as they occur in a real-life setting at a particular site and to examine the actual practice (Creswell, 2014c). On the other hand, it is limited to observing a phenomenon at a specific site where the researcher gains access. Sometimes it is difficult for the participants to cooperate naturally especially when they are aware that they are being observed by an outsider. It requires good observation and listening skills, paying careful attention, and effective management skills to deal with potential threats and conflicts that may arise. Another limitation is that this process is also associated with an awkward feeling that is experienced by the researcher for being an outsider (Creswell, 2014b; Flick, 2014).

Despite the foregoing challenges associated with an observation, it remains an important data collection method in qualitative research. Merriam (2009) says that it remains critical because it is a unique data collection method because an observation is conducted in a context, setting or place where a phenomenon under examination practically occurs or takes place in real life, as opposed to a selected location for a staged and even contrived interview or focus group discussion. In addition, an observation represents primary information of the observed phenomenon. While observation played a crucial role in crystallising the data collected, I included another step to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings by analysing the relevant official documents that deal with pedagogical practices used in adult literacy classes. The details of how this information was collected from documents are now discussed.

4.6.4 Documents

The documents targeted for this study were the adult literacy-learning reports, the adult literacy-learning textbooks and the adult literacy-learning curriculum. Documents are

described as a valuable source of information in qualitative research because they provide a rich source of information (Creswell, 2014a). I used documents as one of the sources of data in this study because I realised that they could provide information on the recommended or prescribed pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes. In addition, I argued that the information contained in these documents would help me to analyse how pedagogical practices are practically used in non-formal adult literacy classes. Although these documents were a rich source of data, I was aware of the difficulties which could be posed with regard to accessing them as they are often not made public (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2014a; Maree, 2015).

After identifying the documents, I developed the criteria that I could use for analysis. These consisted of the author/s of the document and the year the document was published, the audience it was written for, what the document says about adult literacy-learning and pedagogical practices and the criteria used to determine the choice of pedagogical strategies (Appendix O). Finally, I asked for permission to have access to these documents from each adult literacy-learning provider that was selected in this study. However, I only managed to access the documents that were used in the adult literacy-learning programme which was provided by the government. Tikondane could not avail their documents for the reason that they had misplaced the keys to the room where the documents were kept.

The actual process of conducting document analysis involved using the aforementioned criteria and was further enhanced by the guidelines suggested by Creswell (2014a: 245) because they were helpful and relevant to this study:

- a. Identify the types of documents that can provide useful information to answer your qualitative questions,
- b. Consider both public and private documents,
- c. Once the documents are located, seek permission to use them from the appropriate individuals in charge of the materials,
- d. Once you have permission to use documents, examine them for accuracy, completeness and usefulness in answering the research questions in your study, and
- e. Record information from the documents. This process can take many forms including, taking notes or scanning them to form a qualitative text database.

The above discussion has clearly outlined the processes involved in collecting data from the participants. However, raw data have no meaning until they are analysed. Therefore, the next section discusses the processes involved in the analysis of the findings.

4.7 Data analysis

Data analysis refers to a process of making sense of the research findings (Rule & John, 2011). This study consisted of qualitative data that were analysed qualitatively using inductive thematic and content analysis. The entire process of analysis was mirrored through the LSP and EL theories that were used as a theoretical framework for this study. In addition, my focus of the analysis was informed by the interpretive philosophical orientation that is grounded in understanding the participants' experiences in literacy-learning from their perspectives. I used thematic analysis to analyse interview, focus group and observation data because by nature themes are the fundamental parts of these sets of data, whereas content analysis was used to analyse document data. Yin (2012) postulates that thematic analysis is useful to analyse qualitative data because themes are coherent and cohesive units of meaning which is an important feature of understanding qualitative data. This is why I postulated that thematic analysis would be useful for identifying and describing both implicit and explicit views in these sets of data. In addition, themes are useful in capturing meaning within textual data. Their frequency of occurrence is a significant representation of the relevance and meaning from the perspective of the participants (Flick, 2014).

In light of the foregoing, different scholars have provided different guidelines for qualitative data analysis. For example, Creswell (2014a) provides a six-step process which involves (a) organizing and preparing data for analysis, (b) reading through the data to get the general sense, (c) coding the data, (d) using codes to generate descriptions of the setting, people or events, (e) deciding how the descriptions and themes should be represented, and (f) interpreting the findings. On the other hand, King and Horrocks (2010) provide a three-step process which involves (a) descriptive coding, (b) interpretive coding and (c) defining overarching themes. In this model, descriptive coding is based on determining what is of interest from the perspective of the participants, rather than the interpretation of the meaning. It involves reading through the transcript, highlighting relevant material, and defining codes. Interpretive coding involves the clustering of descriptive codes that share a common meaning. Defining overarching themes is based on identifying predominant themes that characterise key concepts for analysis.

Although these scholars tend to use different steps and terminologies in describing the process of analysing qualitative data, they all agree that there is no one standard approach. In this study, I used a five-step process to analyse interview, focus group discussion and observation data, by integrating ideas based on guidelines provided by Creswell (2014c), and King and Horrocks (2010). I found these guidelines easy to follow because they were elaborate, clear and conform to commonly used steps in qualitative data analysis. This decision is supported by Yin (2014) who postulates that it is important to identify and draw ideas from research procedures and methods which have been used successfully in previous studies and if required to make alterations to suit the study, rather than reinvent the wheel.

Therefore, in order to progress practically with the actual data analysis, I began with the general step of organising and preparing all the data based on the type. That is, I organized interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document data individually and independently. Thereafter, I analysed individual sets of data, beginning with interviews, then, moving on to focus group discussions, observations and document analysis, in this order. Finally, I explained how I interpreted all the sets of data.

4.7.1 Analysis of interview, focus group and observation data

The steps involved in analysing interview, focus group and observation data were (a) verbatim transcription of interviews and focus group audio data, (b) reading through the data to develop a general sense, (c) open coding the data, and (d) clustering codes under similar emerging themes. These steps are now discussed below.

a) Verbatim transcription of interviews and focus group data

The first step I took was to transcribe individually and separately both interviews and focus group data. Before I could transcribe the data, I had to decide between full or partial transcription. Although most studies use full transcription of interview data, I settled for partial transcription because I realised that some of the views shared by the participants during the interviews were not related to the purpose and focus of this study. Thus, I inductively focused on identifying the emerging broad patterns of relevant and common themes of the data and summarised the rest. This helped to save time as I did not transcribe everything that was said and that allowed me time to pay particular attention to the dominant themes that emerged from the data. In support of this decision, Creswell (2014c), and King and Horrocks (2010) state that the nature of qualitative data is that they are so dense and detailed. For this reason, it is not possible to use all the data in the study. Therefore, researchers are advised to winnow

the data by identifying more crucial data and by disregarding other aspects which may not be relevant. The second stage was reading through the transcriptions to get the general sense of the data.

b) Reading through to get the general sense of the data

The second step involved reading through the data to develop a general sense by reflecting on the overall meaning of the data. In order to have a clear meaning of the data, I had to read through the interview, focus group and observation transcripts independently several times. I was interested in getting the general idea emerging from what participants had said through this data. The more I read through the transcripts and reflected on the purpose and focus of the study, the more I developed a general sense of the data.

c) Open coding

The third step involved open coding of the data. Upon developing a general sense of the data, I decided to develop a coding frame (Appendix P) to guide me through the coding process. The frame involved three columns which I labelled *notes* referring to raw data from the transcripts, *descriptive code* referring to a description of a selected segment of the raw data, and *interpretive code* referring to the meaning of that descriptive code. In other words, my process of coding involved highlighting text data, images and pictures of collected data by segmenting paragraphs and sentences into similar categories and labelling them within a term, as propagated by Creswell (2014c). This stage involved organizing the research text data in segments and writing a concept in the enlarged page margins that represented the main idea that emanated from that text segment. That is, the codes I used in this study were based on the emerging information that was collected from the research participants. This activity was later followed up by clustering codes under similar emerging themes.

d) Clustering codes under similar emerging themes

The fourth step involved the use of codes to develop descriptions of context, participants and themes for analysis. According to Creswell (2014b), this process involves providing information about people, places or events in a setting. At this stage, codes were used to provide descriptions of participants and pedagogical practices in adult literacy classes. Later these codes were used for generating themes which represented the major findings of the study. I also had to decide on how best to

represent the themes. I used narratives to convey the findings of the analysis because I thought it would facilitate explanation and understanding. Creswell (2014c) says that it is important for a researcher to explain how the description and themes should be represented in a qualitative study. My criterion for presenting the themes was based on the logical flow, although the themes did not emerge in a logical order. During data analysis, I found that all themes were influenced by a specific theme, which I decided to present as the first theme for discussion. The details will be discussed in the next chapter. Having discussed how interview, focus group and observation data were analysed, it is important to explain how document data were analysed.

4.7.2 Analysis of document data

Of all the documents targeted for the study, I had access to the adult literacy syllabus, the learners' handbook, a primer and the instructors' guide. In this regard, document data were analysed through content analysis which involved examining the literacy-learning materials for information on pedagogical practices. I was interested in knowing and understanding the meaning that was attached to pedagogy in adult-literacy learning which was contained in these documents. In my analysis, I looked for all concepts which were used to describe and define pedagogical practices, and how they related to adult literacy-learning.

The decision to use content analysis was informed by Flick (2014), and Merriam (2009) who postulate that in qualitative research content analysis is used to communicate meaning because it focuses on producing insights about situations or events through key concepts. The actual process involves identifying categories that capture the relevant attributes of the relevant documents on the topic. Thus, all qualitative data analysis is content analysis because it is literally the content of documents, interviews and field notes that are analysed (Hemphill et al., 2012; Merriam, 2009).

In view of this, I used thematic content analysis to examine the content of the earlier mentioned documents on pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy-learning for the purpose of understanding and drawing conclusions from them. I began with generating document notes on what the documents said about pedagogy, then I organised the notes based on each document. Thereafter, I followed the earlier mentioned steps which are (a) reading through the document notes several times to develop a general sense of the document data that I had generated, and (b) coding the data by using the coding frame that I developed for the interview, focus group and observation data (Appendix P). Similarly, I used open coding for this data

because my interest was to see the findings emerge from the data. Finally, (c) I clustered the similar emerging themes and used them to generate the main findings from document data.

Hamilton and Corbett-Whittier (2013) espouse that although content analysis was previously used to analyse documents based on frequencies of key concepts, in the 21st century, it focuses on both conceptual and relational aspects. For this reason, my use of thematic content analysis was useful for understanding and communicating the meaning of different sets of data. It provided a fruitful ground to identify the reoccurrence of key concepts on pedagogical practices and was essential for determining in which ways the same concepts relate to each other. The last stage was the interpretation of data as discussed below.

4.7.3 Interpretation of interview, focus group, observation and document data

The final stage was based on interpreting the research findings. The key interpretation was based on what I understood from the findings of the study regarding pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes. My interpretation was informed by the theoretical framework and the purpose and focus of the study. I focused on the meaning that the participants had attached to pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes, the lessons learned and their implication for teaching in adult literacy-learning as I have discussed in chapters five and six. Creswell (2014b) confirms that qualitative researchers interpret their research findings through many dimensions; lessons learned is one of the dimensions which includes the personal interpretations of how a researcher understands the findings based on culture, history or personal experiences. It could also be based on comparing the findings with the theories that were identified from the literature that had been reviewed on the topic. All this implies that interpretations in qualitative research are informed by many aspects which can be adapted for different types of qualitative research and foci. This section discussed how data were analysed. At this stage, it is necessary to discuss the measures that were put in place to ensure the quality of the study.

4.8 Quality assurance measures

Quality assurance in research refers to a situation where the acceptable procedures in finding answers to the research questions are followed. It also entails that accuracy has been observed and attained. In this study, quality assurance involved measures on trustworthiness and ethical considerations.

4.8.1 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness in qualitative research is concerned with research, which is reliable and trustworthy. The researcher has to convince the audience that the findings of the study are valid and reliable (Nieuwenhuis, 2015b). In other words, the researcher should demonstrate clearly that the procedures that were used in data gathering and that the data that were collected, analysed and interpreted, as well as the conclusions that were drawn are reliable and valid. This is important because research participants may give false information, misrepresent the truth or even withhold information. Thus, it is always important to institute measures for ensuring reliability and validity (Chilisa & Preece, 2005; Cohen et al., 2007; Maree, 2012). In order to ensure and achieve trustworthiness in this study, I employed different strategies pertaining to credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Maree, 2012).

4.8.2 Credibility

Credibility in qualitative research is a measure used to ensure the internal validity of a study. It deals with the truth-value of a study by focusing on how the findings correspond with reality. Maree (2012) posits that it provides information on the significance of research findings and their truthfulness for participants, researchers and those who are interested in the study. This can be achieved through different strategies that include member checking, peer debriefing and assessing the theoretical orientation of the process that was followed by the researcher to find answers to the research question. For Chandler and Teckchndani (2015), Babbie et al. (2006), Flick (2014), and Gary (2011) qualitative researchers may not capture the objective reality of a phenomenon that is studied. What is important for the qualitative researcher is to understand the perspectives of their participants, and to uncover the participants' characteristics in a contextual framework. Crucially, qualitative researchers have to represent a holistic interpretation of what takes place. This can be enhanced by engaging strategies that include member checking, the use of multiple theories to confirm the emerging findings, multiple data collection methods, and multiple data sources, or multiple investigators.

In view of this, the credibility of this study was enhanced by an in-depth engagement with the participants during data collection. For example, the period of data collection was from October 2016 to April 2017. This period proved adequate to collect data which reflected the multiple realities of the participants. In addition, I engaged in three peer-debriefing sessions to help me analyse and discuss the procedures that I had followed in the study. This process also included the findings and conclusions. Peer-debriefing helped me to reflect on and evaluate

my own values about research and the associated processes as recommended by Maree (2012), and Mayers (2013).

In addition, I employed 22 member checks to verify that the data that I had collected from the participants reflected their actual views: 16 face-to-face interviews were followed by 16 member checks and 6 focus group discussions were followed by 6 member checks. I used summaries of the interviews and focus group discussions to ask the participants to verify whether or not the findings represented the views that they had expressed during the data collection.

Furthermore, I employed crystallisation to enhance the credibility of the study. It involved the use of multiple data collection methods, which included face-to-face interviews, observations, focus group discussions and document analysis. This measure is supported by Maree (2012), and Yin (2014) who indicate that crystallisation is preferred in qualitative research because it rests on the proposition that reality is a social construct, ever-changing and multi-dimensional. Therefore, the use of crystallisation to understand a phenomenon in its setting and the ability to provide a variety of ways for interpreting observations are more compelling as opposed to triangulation which functions from a fixed position of reality and which is more interested in generalising the findings.

4.8.3 Transferability

Transferability relates to external validity and is concerned with ascertaining the extent to which the findings and conclusions of the study can be applied to other situations. According to Maree (2015) it is concerned with determining the degree to which the findings of a study can be exported and generalised to other contexts. This requires an informed decision by assessing the full description of the theoretical perspectives, and the rigour that was applied during data collection, analysis and interpretation.

Although qualitative research is not based on the generalisation of research findings, I attempted to enhance the transferability of this study by providing full descriptions of research sites, participants, sampling methods, data collection, analysis and interpretations. This is important in facilitating decisions for other researchers to transfer the findings to other settings. Merriam (2009) explains that the burden of transferability lies with the person seeking to apply the findings elsewhere. Therefore, the researcher should provide adequate descriptions of all processes that are involved in a study to make this transfer possible. The other aspect of quality criteria is dependability.

4.8.4 Dependability

The main focus of this measure is the extent to which the study can be reliable. It specifically focuses on the stability and consistency of research rigour. It is also premised on the understanding that if a study was replicated using the same methods and procedures, participants and contexts, similar findings should be obtained (Yin, 2011). However, this is not easily achieved in qualitative studies because human behaviour is not static and it changes over time and between contexts because human beings are found in multiple realities (Yin, 2014). Qualitative studies aim at understanding the uniqueness of human behaviour in different settings. Thus, replication is not easily attainable or not feasible, or even necessary in a qualitative study.

Nonetheless, I enhanced the dependability of this study through the dense description of all the research processes, its design and implementation, and all the operational details of data collection. This is in line with Bryman's (2012) advice who asserts that dependability in qualitative research is ensured by providing details of all the phases of the research from problem formulation, selection of participants, data collection, transcription of field notes and interviews, and data analysis and interpretation. This process can further be evaluated to establish how procedures were followed. Lastly, confirmability is another important aspect of ensuring quality in research.

4.8.5 Confirmability

Confirmability is concerned with determining the authenticity of the research results. Although it is held by many qualitative researchers (Kumar, 2014; Nieuwenhuis, 2015a; Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2014) that it is not possible to attain absolute objectivity, the ethical requirement is for any study to ensure that the researcher remains honest. Yin (2012) explains that confirmability seeks to establish the connection of the findings to the actual information that is provided by the participants and that it should not be clouded by the researchers' biases. In order to enhance the trustworthiness of this study through confirmability, I audited the research processes and the findings. Furthermore, all the data that I collected were organised and saved in a retrievable format so that in the unlikely event that the findings of this study are disputed, this data would be available for verification.

This decision was informed by Bryman (2012) who espouses that confirmability in a qualitative study is attained by a researcher who realises that conducting a study among humans is a moral issue. It obliges the researcher to conduct herself/himself and all matters related to the

study in good faith. That is, the researcher should not allow personal values or theoretical biases to sway the conduct of the research and the findings. In order to help the researcher attain confirmability in full, auditing has been proposed as the recommended measure (Maree, 2012). It is used to ensure that the researcher remains within the ethical guidelines of a study by allowing other people to check for consistency and adherence to research rigour. Therefore, it can be said that because quality criterion is critical for a study, the quality of a study can be enhanced by adhering to social science research ethics. For this reason, it remains necessary to explain the ethical measures considered in this study.

4.9 Ethical measures

Although this study had no serious ethical issues for the reason that the participants were adults and young adults above the age of 18 years, it was necessary to implement ethical considerations. According to Cohen et al. (2007), Creswell (2014d), and Maree (2012) ethics are essential in research for ensuring the trustworthiness of research rigour and the safety of both the researcher and the participants. In this study, ethical measures involved obtaining institutional approval and access to research sites, ensuring voluntary participation and trust, negotiating informed consent, establishing safety in participation and privacy, as well as ensuring anonymity and confidentiality.

4.9.1 Institutional approval and access to research site

Before commencement of this study, I requested for ethical clearance from the University of Pretoria's Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education as provided for by the research policy of the University. In order to have access and gain entry to the research sites, written permission was requested from the two literacy-learning providers in the research site, which are the government of the Republic of Zambia through the Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare (MCDSW), and Tikondane, a non-governmental organization. After I had received ethical approval I commenced with the research by identifying participants and conducting information sessions with them regarding the study. I did this because I was cognisant of the fact that all participants in this study had the right to decide whether to give me access and welcome me to their respective premises (Appendices C & F).

4.9.2 Voluntary participation and trust

During an information session, I shared information with the participants verbally and through written explanations in the form of information letters (Appendices G, H & I). I explained that

participation in this study was voluntary and no participant should feel compelled to do so. For this reason, only those who were willing and indicated their readiness by signing the informed consent form participated in the study. The participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any stage if they wished to do so. I also constantly checked on their willingness to continue participating in the study by asking them whether they were still interested in continuing whenever I met them for data collection purposes. Trust was ensured based on the mutual understanding that the participants provided information which was factual and that they would not be held responsible for any misrepresentation which could have occurred in the process of reporting the research findings.

4.9.3 Informed consent

The information session conducted both verbally and in writing involved sharing information with the participants at their convenience, regarding their consent (Appendices G, H & I). After these sessions, I approached them individually and gave them letters to request formally for their voluntary participation in the study. They suggested that I give them two days to decide, which I did and waited for feedback. I requested those who had decided to sign voluntarily the consent form. I also indicated that even if they had signed the consent form they were at liberty to discontinue their participation if they wished to, at any given time and stage of the research.

4.9.4 Safety in participation

I endeavoured to ensure that participants were not exposed to any undue physical and psychological harm during the study. I accorded them the respect due to them and remained honest throughout the research process. I informed the participants of their non-direct benefits from this study at this stage. I added that through a possible publication of the findings, their participation would provide an opportunity for the sharing of information with a wider community of academics, students, literacy-learning providers and policy makers which could be used to improve the teaching of literacy.

4.9.5 Privacy, confidentiality and anonymity

It was important for the research participants and I to be clear on issues of privacy, confidentiality and anonymity. With regard to privacy, I informed all participants of their right to privacy. It included the right to refuse to be approached to participate voluntarily in this study, to be interviewed or answer any question, to be observed during literacy learning facilitation sessions and to provide documents for analysis. Privacy regarding data collection was ensured through the collection of data from participants who gave their consent.

However, it was not easy to attain full privacy and anonymity of participants in the focus group discussions because some of the participants knew each other. However, I indicated to the participants that whatever was discussed and whoever said anything that others did not approve of, none of this information was to be disclosed and discussed outside the focus group discussion. I indicated this in the consent form and emphasized verbally from the beginning of the focus group discussions that all participants had to respect the privacy and anonymity of each other: once outside the focus group discussion, they were not allowed to reveal the identities of participants who had made specific comments or contributions during the focus group discussion. In addition, the focus group discussions were conducted privately and comprised of consenting adult participants only and the information which I had collected was handled in confidence.

Anonymity was maintained by assigning pseudonyms to participants and code words to research sites during the data collection and reporting of the findings. This was to ensure that the information which was provided could not be traced to a particular participant and research site. Furthermore, audio recordings and the data that I collected were handed to my supervisors for safe-keeping as required by the University of Pretoria's postgraduate research policy.

4.10 Conclusion

In this chapter, I discussed the research methodology that was used in this study by explaining the research design, research methods, data analysis and interpretation, and measures taken for ensuring quality and ethical considerations. The research design provided a plan of how the entire study was conducted. It consisted of an interpretive research paradigm and qualitative approach. The research methodology involved case study research and purposive sampling, and the methods were semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis. The data analysis and interpretation were centred on inductive thematic and content analysis. The quality assurance involved credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Finally, the chapter ended with a discussion of the ethical measures that had been introduced. In the next chapter, I present the findings of the study which were collected by using the research design and methodology as frame of reference.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In chapter four, I discussed and justified the methodology that I used to find answers to my research questions. I also explained the quality assurance measures that I used to ensure the trustworthiness and the ethical adherence of the study. In this chapter, I present the findings of the study which were based on a qualitative multiple case study conducted in the Katete District of Zambia. The aim was to explore and understand how and why pedagogical practices were used in non-formal adult literacy classes. This was in relation to the expectations of both the LSP and EL theories, and non-formal adult learning pedagogy. Based on the existing literature, most of the studies on adult learning pedagogy are outdated. Therefore, my assumption was that this study would provide an up-to-date scientific understanding of the pedagogical practices that are used in adult literacy classes in the research site. In view of this, the study sought to answer two research questions which are the focus of this chapter.

5.2 Research questions

- a) How are pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District?
- b) Why are these pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District?

There were four major findings of this study, which are presented under the following overarching themes:

- a) Conceptualisation of adult literacy-learning by the participants
- b) Pedagogical practices in adult literacy classes
- c) Pedagogical resources used
- d) Participation in adult literacy classes

Table 5.1 below shows a summary of the themes and sub-themes that emerged from the findings of the study.

Table 5.1: Summary of themes and sub-themes

<p>Theme 1: Conceptualisation of adult literacy-learning</p> <p>Sub-theme 1.1: Participants understanding of adult literacy-learning</p> <p>Sub-theme 1.2: Literacies taught in adult literacy classes</p>
<p>Theme 2: Pedagogical practices in adult literacy classes</p> <p>Sub-theme 2.1: Pedagogical strategies in adult literacy classes</p> <p>Sub-theme 2.2: Participants interpretation of pedagogical strategies</p> <p>Sub-theme 2.3: Determinants of pedagogical strategies used to teach</p> <p>Sub-theme 2.4: Knowledge of adult learning principles</p>
<p>Theme 3: Pedagogical resources</p> <p>Sub-theme 3.1: Teaching aids used in adult literacy classes</p> <p>Sub-theme 3.2: Teaching-learning materials</p>
<p>Theme 4: Participation in adult literacy classes</p> <p>Sub-theme 4.1: Experiences and role of participating in adult literacy</p> <p>Sub-theme 4.2: Adult learner's reasons for joining classes</p>

As already indicated in chapter four, the two adult literacy-learning programmes from which data were collected were the government Department of Community Development and Tikondane, an NGO. I distinguished the two adult literacy-learning programmes by the acronyms LLP-A, referring to the adult literacy-learning programme provided by the Department of Community Development, and LLP-B referring to the adult literacy-learning programme provided by Tikondane. The findings from both programmes reveal more similarities than differences. For this reason, I presented the similar findings together and separated those which were different.

This chapter begins with the presentation of the findings under each theme and sub-themes which I linked to the research questions and the theoretical framework of the study. To elicit a deeper understanding, I also compare the findings in the two adult literacy-learning

programmes under each theme and sub-theme. This is followed by a summary of each theme and sub-theme at the end of the respective theme. The chapter ends with a conclusion.

5.3 Theme 1: Conceptualisation of adult-literacy learning

This theme corresponds to both research questions of this study. For a full understanding of this theme, the details are provided in the following sub-themes: sub-theme 1.1, participants' understanding of adult literacy-learning; and sub-theme 1.2, the literacies taught in adult literacy classes. The data sources under this theme were face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions.

5.3.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Participants' understanding of adult literacy-learning

The findings from the interviews with the managers and the facilitators in both the LLP-A and the LLP-B revealed that the understanding of adult literacy-learning was based on how the managers and facilitators perceived the adult learners. Two views emerged; one view was based on the idea that adult learners were illiterate and ignorant, and the other view was based on the idea that adult learners were resources filled with knowledge and life experiences. The managers and the facilitators who regarded the adult learners as illiterates and ignorant, interpreted adult literacy-learning as an educational process aimed at eliminating illiteracy and ignorance. The managers and facilitators who regarded the adult learners as possessors of knowledge that had been acquired through life experiences, interpreted adult literacy-learning as learning that improved the existing skills and knowledge of the adult learners. The details are presented in the following face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions.

5.3.1.1 Face-to-face interviews with the managers

During the face-to-face interviews with the DCDO in the LLP-A, it emerged that adult literacy-learning was characterised by a simplistic conceptualisation as purely an intervention based on providing functional skills to adults who had missed out on formal education.

She said the following:

Adult literacy-learning is simply an intervention that provides a chance to those adults who missed out on formal education in their lives. These people are provided with skills so that they are functional by being able to read, write and do simple arithmetic...we have two types of adult learners, the genuine and the lapsed. We are more interested in the genuine learners because it is among these learners that is where we find illiteracy. They cannot even write their names. These

are the ones we want to capture and teach them how to read and write. (DCDO, p.3)

The Department of Community Development formally categorised the adult learners as the *genuine* and *lapsed* learners. According to the DCDO, the “genuine adult learners” were complete illiterates who were considered to have no literacies, as evidenced by their inability to read and write. However, the “lapsed adult learners” were persons who might have attended formal learning, but for some reason withdrew. She also explained that the genuine adult learners lacked functional skills which were crucial to their livelihood (DCDO, p.12). This position could be understood as the Department of Community Development considering the lack of functional skills among the adult learners as the reason for the persistent problem of illiteracy and poverty among the rural communities in the Katete District. Therefore, this could mean that this department’s solution to eliminating illiteracy and poverty among the adult learners in the District was through educational interventions whose focus was the provision of adult literacy that was linked to functional skills.

It was indicated above that the Department of Community Development was more interested in the “genuine adult learners” whom they regarded as illiterates than in the “lapsed adult learners”. Therefore, they designed adult literacy-learning programmes for the genuine adult learners to make them literate and functional. However, there was no evidence in the findings that this programme had turned the illiterate adult learners into literate individuals.

The literature indicates that the term ‘elimination of illiteracy’ is a faulty premise because there is not one literacy but rather multiple literacies. So if we talk of elimination of illiteracy, the question should be which illiteracy? In addition, I hold the view that it is flawed to think of the genuine adult learners as non-functional individuals. The determination of the functionality of adult learners from the subjective perspective of the adult literacy-learning provider, the manager or the facilitator may not be appropriate in view of the principles of adult learning. It is important to perceive the adult learners from their own perspectives rather than that of the educators because this is the only way in which a clear understanding of the adult learners can be formed. Therefore, the weakness of the foregoing government approach is that it focuses on the universal and academic based view of functionality and ignored informal learning and situated practices in which the adult learners are constantly engaged.

Furthermore, the views shared by the CDAs indicated a continuation of the dominant perception of the adult learners as illiterates and ignorant. It is flawed to conceptualise adult literacy-learning as an educational programme that is concerned with eliminating illiteracy by

teaching the illiterate adults the skills that the facilitator thinks his or her adult learners should know: ranging from reading and writing. The CDAs shared the following views:

...adult literacy learning means exposing illiterate adults to understanding things in their everyday life. (CDA 1A, p.10)

Participant CDA 1A noted that pedagogy in adult literacy classes should not only be limited to teaching functional literacy skills to illiterate adult learners, but should also include skills which were relevant to their daily lives. However, in practice the facilitators decided on the content that they taught the adult learners as they perceived their adult learners to be ignorant.

For example, participant CDA 2A said:

...an adult learner is a person who is ignorant and joins an adult literacy class to eliminate ignorance. (CDA 2A, p.2)

Furthermore, CDA 3A believed that:

...an adult learner who joins the adult literacy class is illiterate. That is why in adult literacy classes we teach illiterate adults how to read and write. (CDA 3A, p.3)

However, CDA 4A held a different view from the above CDAs, she indicated that:

Adult learners have knowledge and experience, so our role as educators is to help them in areas where they feel they are lacking. (CDA 4A, p.2)

Participant CDA 4A was the only manager who considered the adult learners in a more progressive and dynamic manner in the LLP-A. She indicated that the adult learners gained knowledge from their respective life experiences that were useful for learning new skills. Subsequently, she interpreted adult learning as a platform for helping adult learners to improve their existing knowledge and practices. This manager highlighted that the adult learners should be viewed as independent and self-directed learners, who joined the adult literacy class for a specific purpose and that they brought with them the knowledge that they had acquired throughout life (CDA 4A, p.2). The participant suggested that in addition to the general skills of reading and writing that should be taught in adult literacy-learning classes, more practical real-life skills that the adult learners required, should also be introduced.

In interpreting the above views of DCDO, CDAs 1A, 2A and 3A, I realised that the managers in the LLP-A, except one (CDA 4A), had insufficient knowledge of what should be the important learning attributes of their adult learners and of the concept adult literacy. Based on their comments, they exhibited a negative perception of the adult learner. The weakness of this

attitude is that the managers and the facilitators considered themselves as sole holders of knowledge, which should be deposited into their illiterate adult learners to make them literate. By implication, pedagogy and learning becomes teacher dominated, as opposed to participatory and experiential learning where the adult learners are actively engaged in sharing their literacy practices.

Conversely, the two managers from the LLP-B held the view that adult literacy-learning occurred both within and outside the classroom. They shared the opinion that adult literacy consisted of communication practices which were found everywhere among the people. They said that it was for this reason that adult literacy-learning should not be limited to just reading and writing for school purposes, but it should be viewed in terms of how it could be used to improve the lives of the people.

According to B1A:

Literacy means reading, writing and talking which is done everywhere. Even these villagers, even if some of them have never gone to school, they have literacy. I don't think there is anything they do which does not require literacy, even if they may not realise it themselves. (B1A, p.3)

The view of this participant is located in the sociocultural view of adult literacy and learning, including the EL and LSP theories. He emphasised that adult literacy was everywhere among the local people, and everything that they did in their daily lives involved literacy practices. I noticed that this view was different to those of the managers from the LLP-A. As mentioned earlier, four of the five managers from the LLP-A held the restricted view of adult literacy that it is universal and that it is only possessed by those who are able to display adequate skills of reading, writing and numeracy. However, the opinion by manager B1A above was that when people engage in any social interaction by either writing, reading or talking, they were practically engaged in literacy practices. Therefore, this links with the notion that literacies are shaped by the contexts in which people are found.

Similarly, manager B2A believed that adult literacy-learning went beyond learning to read and write the letters of the alphabet. Rather it involved daily conversations, and the sharing of words, stories, sign language and several other literacy practices. This is what she said:

In this village, there is much of sign language communication than oral. For instance, if you are in a restaurant you simply point at what you want, say you want salt if someone is looking they will be there to help you, I guess that is local literacy communication. But people here often think that what you have to learn in literacy

is the alphabet and then be able to read and write, but literacy as such is much more than this. (B2A, p.5)

Her observations, similar to B1A, are rooted within the sociocultural view of adult literacy. Furthermore, B2A emphasised the communicative dimension of adult literacy and that it is naturally ingrained in the daily communicative practices of the people. She indicated that the local perception of adult literacy among the people was too limited because they believed that adult literacy-learning included only learning to read and write. She argued that in the village and rural setting like Katete District, adult literacy should consist of localised communication that was based on local narratives, art, drama and many other communicative modalities. Relating this stance to the pedagogy and learning of literacy would mean a transformation of the current limited conceptualisation of adult literacy in the Katete District. Having detailed the views of the managers on the conceptualisation of adult literacy learning, it is also important to consider the views of the adult literacy-learning facilitators. This is necessary for purposes of credibility.

5.3.1.2 Face-to-face interviews with the facilitators

The interviews with the adult literacy-learning facilitators in the LLP-A similarly revealed that their conceptualisation of adult literacy learning was influenced by their opinion of the adult learner, whom they perceived as an illiterate and ignorant person. For this reason, these facilitators believed that the purpose of adult learning was to eliminate illiteracy and ignorance among the adult learners.

According to FA1:

Adult literacy-learning is about illiterate adults, because they have never been to school, and they only want to know how to read, write, and count. (FA1, p.3)

For this facilitator, adult literacy was associated with schooling that implied that any person who had been schooled, had acquired literacy. This stance is not accurate because schooling is more concerned with school-based literacies which are not always applicable to everyday real-life situations. In this regard, every person requires additional literacies for use in various contexts. This implies that the skills-based literacy of reading and writing can be beneficial to the illiterate adult learners if the focus is on learning other literacies for everyday use.

In addition, FA2 pointed out that:

Adult literacy learning is teaching reading and writing to illiterate adults who missed out on formal education. (FA2, p.5)

Furthermore, FA3 said:

Adult literacy learning is education provided to those people who do not know anything at all, but we want them to know something even if they come from the village. (FA3, p.4)

Claiming that adult learners are persons who know nothing at all may not be appropriate in view of what is known from the research on adult learners. Even young children possess home literacies which are reflected through daily play. This is more evident with regard to adults because they have accumulated both good and bad life experiences.

Participant FA6 said:

What I know is that adult literacy-learning is to teach adults how to read, and calculate for purposes of getting rid of ignorance. (FA6, p.1)

The limitation of the above view shared by FA6 is that it regards ignorance as a universal challenge which should be addressed and eliminated by the teaching of only functional literacy skills. Ironically, ignorance just like illiteracy is a social construct which is also contextual. Similar to the views of the managers, the foregoing views of the facilitators confirm that the facilitators in the LLP-A had a limited view of both adult literacy and the adult learner.

The foregoing notion also permeated the thinking among the facilitators in the LLP-B. However, I noticed that in the LLP-B programme there was a difference between how the managers and the facilitators conceptualised adult literacy-learning. The managers supported the sociocultural view of adult literacy and learning, as indicated earlier, while the facilitators held a traditional cognitive view. Below were the views of the facilitators in the LLP-B:

According to FB1:

Adult literacy learning means an informal education where an adult who never had a chance to attend school is taught how to read, write and count. (FB1, p.2)

This view relates to the understanding that adult literacy should not be conducted in a formal school context which hinders adult learners from participating. They prefer a less structured place of learning and more informal learning activities (Gebre et al., 2009; Tylor, 2006).

In addition, FB2 said:

The way I understand adult literacy is that it is the education given to adults who never went to school when they were young. So these are classes for those who have the interest to go back to school. (FB2, p.4)

The learning interests of the adult learners are a fundamental resource in adult learning (Bélanger, 2011; Knowles, 1970). However, according to the view above the learning interests of the adult learners are not the core foundation of adult literacy-learning as the learning context is likened to that of a school.

Participant FB3 lacked a basic understanding of adult literacy, he said:

I would not say I know much about adult literacy-learning, personally, I never went far in formal education. I just know how to communicate in English and that is what I teach the adult learners. (FB3, p.3)

While it should be appreciated that this facilitator was honest to admit his limited knowledge on adult literacy-learning, it should raise pedagogical concerns particularly when it comes to the teaching of adult learners in class. Furthermore, he only views teaching and learning the English language as adult literacy.

The common feature of the above views by the facilitators is that adult literacy-learning is teaching illiterate adults how to read and write. It confirmed that the adult literacy-learning facilitators in both LLP-A and LLP-B held the traditional and limited view of adult literacy-learning. Additionally, to view adult literacy-learning as education for persons who never attended formal education is evidence of both inadequate content knowledge (CK) and pedagogical knowledge (PK) of adult learning and its practice. Similarly, the opinions of the facilitators in the LLP-B, on both the adult learner and the concept adult literacy, had a corresponding influence on pedagogical practices in class, as is discussed in chapter six.

5.3.1.3 Focus group discussions with the adult learners

The adult learners in the LLP-A described adult literacy-learning as a process through which they should eliminate adult illiteracy and ignorance as they learnt to read and write (FGDs, A1, A2, A3, A4 and A5). They indicated that this understanding originated in part from what they had been taught when they attended adult literacy classes and what they had experienced through every day informal social interactions. However, some of the adult learners, although a minority, had a personal understanding of adult literacy-learning which reflected specific individual goals to learn specific skills. For example, during FGD A4 (p.3), a female adult learner said: “personally when I look at adult learning it means that I have to learn to read the bible for religious purposes: and also to read and understand other texts so that I can go through my children’s school books and help them to do their homework without difficulties”. In another discussion (FGD A5, p.3), two female adult learners stated that adult learning meant

learning to perform accurate calculations when planting and applying fertilizer in their crop fields.

The foregoing views represent the evidence of the presence of a variety of learning goals among adult learners. Reflectively, when compared to how the managers and the facilitators perceived the adult learners, this is a clear contrast.

The findings from the FGDs in the LLP-B revealed that adult learning was also primarily conceived as teaching skills of reading and writing, for the reason of eliminating ignorance.

During FGD BF1, the adult learners shared that:

Adult literacy learning is about learning to read and write so as to get rid of ignorance and illiteracy. One male adult learner said, "we never used to know how to write letters like b or g, but now we know them through these classes. (BF1, p.9)

This comment is evidence of the acceptance by the adult learners themselves that they were illiterate and ignorant and that this ignorance could be eliminated by the acquisition of literacy skills. The adult learners in LLP-B, unlike those in LLP-A, did not indicate what shaped their self-perception of being illiterate and ignorant. They also claimed that they had learned to write a few letters, which is not a significant skill in itself to address their adult literacy demands in their daily lives.

During FGD BF2, the adult learners shared that:

Adult literacy learning is learning to read and write. It is only through adult literacy classes that we can learn how to read and write. (BF2, p.2)

Two female adult learners added:

because we have tried to use our children to teach us how to read and write, but it has failed to work, starting schooling at our age again is not possible because we cannot get the immediate things we want from that kind of school, it is for children, this is the reason we are found in these classes. (BF2, p.2)

These adult learners felt that they had advanced in age and that they could not join formal schooling because it was not convenient for meeting their immediate learning goals. They associated school-based adult literacy classes with a formal qualification which was not their main goal. They shared that they did not need to be certified through formal examinations, but rather their goal was to acquire the necessary skills that they could use to do business,

improve their lives and ultimately provide food for their families (FGD BF2, p.4). I realised that these views were a representation of what the adult learners, although a minority in both LLP-A and LLP-B, desired to get from attending the adult literacy classes: to apply their newly acquired literacy skills of reading and writing and numeracy to real-life contexts. These views are crucial for helping the facilitators to make appropriate pedagogical decisions on the content and the pedagogical processes that are required for adult literacy-learning.

5.3.1.4 Summary of sub-theme 1.1: Participants understanding of adult literacy

This sub-theme presented that the understanding of adult literacy-learning by both the managers and adult literacy-learning facilitators was influenced by their opinion of the adult learners and the purpose of adult literacy-learning. Specifically, from the LLP-A, it emerged that an adult learner was considered as an illiterate and ignorant person, except for one manager (CDA 4A) who indicated that adult learners possessed knowledge that had been acquired from their life experiences. Consequently, the adult learner was viewed as being non-functional and the only solution was to be taught the functional literacy skills of reading and writing which were presumed to produce a fully functional individual. In addition, the adult learners in both LLP-A and LLP-B accepted that they were 'illiterate' and 'ignorant'. Therefore, they believed that adult literacy classes were needed to eliminate their illiteracy and ignorance so that they could function more effectively in their real world. It is important to indicate here that this characterisation of the adult learner and the conceptualisation of adult literacy-learning were more apparent in the LLP-A than in the LLP-B. In the LLP-B, the managers were slanted towards the sociocultural perspective of adult literacy while the facilitators held the traditional cognitive view.

5.4 Sub-theme 1.2: Literacies taught in adult literacy classes

This sub-theme corresponds to the first research question that sought to understand how facilitators use pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes. For purposes of a clear understanding, it was important to begin with identifying the literacies taught in class, before understanding the pedagogical practices that they were using. Therefore, although the managers and facilitators in the LLP-A indicated that different literacies were taught, it emerged from the focus group discussions and class observations that in reality, they focused on school-based literacies as they only addressed the technical skills of reading and writing in the classroom. However, for the LLP-B, the findings from the focus group discussions and class observations revealed that the focus was on both the school-based and non-school-based literacies. The purpose of the school-based literacy skills was to prepare the adult

learners who wished to go back to formal schooling. Conversely, the purpose of non-school-based adult literacy-learning was to help the adult learners who were engaged in farming and other entrepreneurial related activities to improve both their practices and livelihoods. The details of the findings on this sub-theme are presented in the following face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions and class observations.

5.4.1.1 Face-to-face interviews with the managers

The interviews with the managers in the LLP-A revealed that some managers were unsure of the specific types of literacies which were taught in their adult literacy classes. The DCDO explained the literacies taught in adult literacy classes in the LLP-A in the statement below:

In this literacy-learning programme, we are teaching functional literacy in which we teach adults the functional literacy skills in agriculture and other livelihood skills. These are foundational skills for all learning because if they do not have these skills they cannot learn anything...they cannot even know what to do when for example they go to the bank. (DCDO, p.8)

The statement that functional skills are foundational for all learning is not consistent with the current conceptualisation of functional literacy as defined by UNESCO and the informal learning theory. According to UNESCO (2013a) functional literacy is applied reading, writing and numeracy. This means that someone has to learn the skills of reading, writing and numeracy separately before they apply them. In addition, the DCDO claimed that learning to read and write was the foundation for all other learning. This notion is contested by the Experiential Learning and Literacy as Social Practice theories. It is known through these theories that people learn informally in any context, whether in organised or informal learning contexts (Nabi et al., 2009; Perry, 2012; Rogers & Street, 2012; Street, 2014). They engage in literacy practices on a daily basis regardless of whether or not they have attended a literacy class before. Based on this evidence, the foregoing claim is inaccurate.

It is clear from the views of the DCDO that the focus of the LLP-A was on the teaching of functional literacy skills for agricultural purposes. Related to the sociocultural perspective, this would mean that the literacies which the facilitators taught should emphasise how the adult learners used literacies in their farming practices. On the contrary, the findings from class observations revealed that this emphasis was rare in practice. The emphasis in the classroom was primarily on the techniques of reading and writing, and not on the use of literacy in farming and its related practices.

In addition, the views shared by the CDAs confirmed the dominance of school-based literacies in adult literacy classes. CDAs 1A, 2A, 3A and 4A indicated that they taught the literacies which were taught in government schools. They unanimously indicated that much of what they teach was reading and writing. They explained that although they were supposed to be teaching other topics from the syllabus, school-based literacies were the only literacies taught. This was based on the belief by the managers and the facilitators that their adult learners could not learn any other skills if they did not know how to read and write first.

The following are some of their views:

Everyone in these classes teaches the usual literacy of reading and writing which is based on the syllabus provided by the ministry of community development. (CDA 2A, p.2)

Teaching reading and writing is the first thing they should learn in these classes to prepare them for learning new things. We do it very practical in the sense that the adult learners are able to see how letters and words are written. (CDA 3A, p.4)

The latter comment resonates a dominant teacher-centred approach. The concept of practical pedagogy and learning was narrowly interpreted as adult learners being shown how letters and words were written as opposed to the learners practising to write themselves. Finally, the choice of what should be learned was also determined by the facilitator. CDA 1A commented that:

We believe that the adult learners can only learn other topics if they can read and write. So we are just teaching them reading and writing. (CDA 1A, p.2)

It is evident from these views that though the intended focus of the LLP-A was on functional adult literacy skills in the context of the agricultural practices of the adult learners, in reality, the programme addressed the learning goals of only reading and writing which were contrary to its primary focus. The problem with the LLP-A approach is that it may create a situation where the adult learners would get used to memorising how a word or letter is written, and fail to learn the various ways of applying literacies in real-life contexts.

On the other hand, the interviews with the managers from the LLP-B revealed two sets of literacies which are school based and non-school based literacies. The following is the explanation given by B1A:

Here at Tikondane, we reach out to different people of different needs. For this reason, we teach school-based literacy to help members of the community who wish to continue their formal education. On the other hand, non-school-based

literacy is for people who wish to improve their livelihoods, by acquiring skills for employment and farming. (B1A, p.8)

It is clear that the managers of LLP-B paid more lip service to the social practice of literacy than the managers of LLP-A. However, the intended focus on non-school-based literacy in LLP-B was similar to that of the LLP-A. Both programmes were seemingly concerned with the improvement of farming practices and creating employment opportunities for improved livelihoods. However, in reality only reading and writing were taught.

Participant B2A added that:

...adult learners in this area are usually confronted with many challenges to learn how to read and write, especially that their own language is not sufficient in this world, and that English words are needed. Unfortunately, there is no English in this village, and it is all very difficult. (B2A, p.5)

The above opinion by B2A contradicted her earlier submission in sub-theme 1.1, in which she had presented a sociocultural view of adult literacy. Here she displayed a limited understanding of adult literacy and learning. She seemed to have forgotten that adult literacy and learning were integrated processes and activities that were situated in contexts. They cannot be divorced from people and their environments. Additionally, thinking of adult literacy in terms of the English language only is flawed in the context of multiple literacies. Her view that the adult learners' local language was insufficient for use globally and that they needed to learn English words was Eurocentric and very ironic as she confessed that "there is no English in this village": learning literacy to her meant learning the English language. This view is erroneous because the adult learners in this domain of traditional agricultural practices do not need English words to do their farming and conduct their daily conversations. Therefore, this thinking is unproductive for the teaching of literacies which are beneficial for everyday use by the adult learners.

5.4.1.2 Face-to-face interviews with the facilitators

In contrast to the views shared by the managers, the interviews with the facilitators from the LLP-A revealed the presence of a rich collection of literacies which were taught in the classes. These include language literacy in Cicewa and English, numeracy literacy, civic literacy, health literacy, entrepreneurial literacy, farming literacy and school-based literacies:

We generally teach functional literacy because of different government ministries like the Ministry of Education, who provide formal adult literacy learning. Therefore,

to differentiate from this, we the Department of Community Development provide functional literacy. (FA1, p.3)

According to FA1, the purpose of the Department of Community Development was to provide functional literacy which differentiated from the literacies that were provided by other government ministries. This is contrary to the earlier explanations by the managers and the DCDO in particular who stated that the DCD provided functional literacy to equip the adult learners with skills they could use in their daily lives, including formal school-based adult literacy-learning, and not to differentiate from what other government ministries taught. This is evidence of the challenges that were experienced in the provision and the general management of the LLP-A. It shows that information about the programme was never adequately shared with all parties involved. This practice has the potential to affect negatively the success of the adult literacy-learning programme.

Furthermore, participant FA2 stated that:

The learning taking place at the moment is Cicewa and numeracy literacies. In Cicewa we teach them how to read and write so that they can protect themselves from being cheated especially in their sale of maize and other farm produce. (FA2, p.4)

Although this indicates that Cicewa and numeracy were some of the literacies taught in adult literacy classes, the rationale for teaching these literacies was limited to an understanding of the traditional model of literacy. FA2 situated the pedagogy of literacy within the social context. However, assuming that when the adult learners acquired literacy skills, they would be able to protect themselves from being cheated in their sale of farm produce may not always hold true because no one is immune to being cheated whether literate or not.

Furthermore, participant FA4 shared that the syllabus they used contained lessons on different literacies. He stated that “I have a syllabus which I use, and it contains literacies on civic issues, literacy and numeracy, health and environmental, and business entrepreneurship literacy” (p.3).

Although the syllabus that was used in the LLP-A contained lessons on different literacies, it was evident that the programme was primer or book based, which made the learning contexts less relevant in helping the adult learners to learn literacies which should be specific to their sociocultural contexts. The contention against this approach is that the content of this syllabus had been prepared based on the assumed and prescribed learning goals by people who claimed to be educational experts. Research shows that there are many literacy practices

even within a single community (Prinsloo, 2013; Prinsloo & Street, 2014), therefore, community-based literacy practices are the starting point for teaching literacies.

Similarly, the interviews with the facilitators from the LLP-B revealed that they taught language literacies in Cicewa and English. They also added that they taught school-based literacies to the adult learners that mainly focused on reading, writing and numeracy. This literacy was intended for the adult learners who wanted to return to formal schooling. Cicewa and the English language were taught to adult learners who wanted to increase their chances of obtaining employment as either cleaners or security guards. These views were shared by all the facilitators, FB1, FB2 and FB3.

This entails that adult literacy classes in the LLP-B were more specific in terms of the outcomes and the content that was taught. For example, the facilitators indicated that at the end of attending these classes, adult learners who had performed well were employed by the organisation (Tikondane) in different capacities. However, it was not clear how the adult learners were assessed to ascertain that they had acquired the necessary literacies for employment. The facilitators could not explain to me how they evaluated their adult learners based on the literacies that they taught, apart from indicating that they asked memory-based questions about the lesson at the end of a class session.

5.4.1.3 Focus group discussions with the adult learners

In both programmes LLP-A and LLP-B, the adult learners confirmed that they were taught how to read and write in either Cicewa or English. The adult learners in the LLP-A confirmed that they were also taught other literacies which included health, farming, entrepreneurship, and civic literacy whose main focus was on human rights and gender studies. Similarly, the adult learners in the LLP-B confirmed that the focus was on both school and non-school-based literacies. The learners shared that many of them wanted to know how to read and write so that they could get employment at either the Katete mission hospital or the lodge owned by Tikondane:

During FGD A1 in LLP-A, the adult learners shared this:

We are taught to read and write, and we have experienced a lot of changes. Many of us are able to read and write, and we are now even able to sign on our own.
(FGD A1, p.1)

Additionally, the FGD A4 revealed that the lessons were primarily based on reading and writing:

The lessons are about learning to read and write. This is a good thing because some of us we never knew how to read and write, but now we can. (FGD A4, p. 2)

Furthermore, the findings from the FGDs in LLP-B correspond to the findings of the FGDs in LLP-A. For example, during the FGD BF1, the adult learners indicated that they were mainly taught how to read and write because they wanted to improve their daily well-being:

We are taught to read and write. This means that those who want to improve their lives through learning how to read and write, they can come and join adult literacy learning here so that we can share knowledge even more. (FGD BF1, p.4)

This was an indication that the adult learners were aware that their presence in adult literacy classes meant participatory engagement through knowledge sharing.

Additionally, FGD BF2 revealed that the adult learners were taught literacies for employment purposes. They shared that:

We are taught Cicewa grade 1 and English for some of us to improve on our jobs especially in getting instructions and communicating with our superiors. For some of us, we want to learn English so that we can also find employment in either the lodge or the hospital. (p.1)

Correspondingly, these views are a representation of the learning goals of the adult learners. This confirms that the adult learners were goal oriented and very specific in what they desired to learn. To further expand on the views shared during the interviews and focus group discussions, I conducted class observations on the literacies that the facilitators taught.

5.4.1.4 Class observations

The class observations in both programmes, LLP-A and LLP-B, confirmed the emphasis on the teaching of reading and writing skills. The adult literacy classes I observed in both programmes, except for one class in LLP-B which focused on speaking the English language, were based on the learning of reading and writing skills as can be seen in Figures 5.1, 5.2, 5.4 and 5.8 in the following sections of this chapter. This is an indication that much of the information from modern research (Perry & Homan, 2015; Perry, 2012; Robinson-Pant, 2016; Rogers & Street, 2012, Street, 2012) on the social view of literacy has not disseminated into literacy practices in the Katete District. Additionally, it confirms Rogers's (1997:15) observation that despite the major changes that have taken place in adult literacy research and training,

their effects on practice has been minimal. Older views on literacy have persisted, and the new ones have failed to replace them, but have tagged alongside the old views.

5.4.1.5 Summary of theme 1.2: Literacies taught in adult literacy classes

It was established in this sub-theme that school-based literacies were the main focus in adult literacy classes of both literacy learning programmes of this study. This practice corresponds with the findings of sub-theme 1.1 which dealt with how participants perceived and described their adult learners. For example, in the LLP-A, the managers and facilitators categorised their adult learners as the “genuine” and the “lapsed”. Similarly, in the LLP-B, the manager B2A and the facilitators described the adult learners as struggling to learn or ‘challenged’. Therefore, it is evident that the way in which the managers and facilitators perceived their adult learners and interpreted adult learning shaped the literacies which were taught in adult literacy classes of both the LLP-A and the LLP-B.

5.5 Theme 2: Pedagogical practices in adult literacy classes

In order to understand how pedagogical practices were used it was firstly necessary to identify the pedagogical practices that were preferred by the participants. In view of this, the findings from both the LLP-A and LLP-B indicated that the managers, facilitators and adult learners had different pedagogical preferences that were situated within the following four pedagogical approaches: expository, discovery, participatory and evaluatory pedagogies as categorised by Hamilton-Ekeke (2007) and Rogers (2009).

Pedagogical practices in this study refer to teaching and learning approaches, methods and strategies that are applied in situated adult literacy-learning classes. Situated learning pedagogy is principally learner-centred in which beneficial life experiences of the adult learners are recognised and applied to enhance adult learning. This position is supported by Moate and Cox (2015: 379) who found that “instructors who adopt this approach, value a collaborative strategy to teaching and learning”. Therefore, the use of this approach or method should relate to the creation of a learning environment in which the adult learners engage with their own learning experiences; they should discover and learn new skills and practices on their own. The details of this theme are organised and presented under the following sub-themes: (i) pedagogical strategies in adult literacy classes; (ii) participants interpretation of pedagogical strategies used; (iii) determinants of pedagogical strategies used to teach; and (iv), knowledge of the adult learning principles.

5.5.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Pedagogical strategies in adult literacy classes

The findings from the interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis revealed that the expository pedagogical approach, and in particular the lecture teaching strategy, was the main pedagogical strategy which was applied in all adult literacy classes of both the LLP-A and LLP-B. The expository pedagogical approach incorporated drill exercises and dictations and was largely teacher-centred. Despite attempts by a few facilitators to incorporate participatory strategies in their pedagogic practice, they quickly reverted to expository and lecture pedagogy in particular. The facilitators claimed that lecture pedagogy was the best strategy for teaching literacy skills to illiterate adults. They further stated that they found the lecture pedagogy easier to implement, that it facilitated the achievement of learning objectives and that it was ideal for not wasting the adult learners' time in class. This indicates that the facilitators were more concerned with fulfilling their duty of teaching rather than addressing the learning goals of their adult learners. They were convinced that teaching and learning depended entirely on the facilitators themselves.

5.5.1.1 Face-to-face interviews with the managers

There was a common theoretical position held by the managers in both the LLP-A and LLP-B regarding the pedagogical strategies that were applied. The findings show that the pedagogical methods that were recommended by the managers included participatory pedagogy which included focus group discussions and role plays, expository pedagogy which was principally centred on lecture teaching, and discovery pedagogy that focused on homework and class exercises that required adult learners to draw on their life experiences. However, I found that these views were not applied in practice as evidenced by the following findings.

According to the DCDO, the pedagogical strategies that were relevant to the teaching of literacy skills in the LLP-A were focus-group discussions, brainstorming and participatory approaches. These pedagogical strategies fall under participatory pedagogy. She explained that they were supposed to be applied in a way which should make learning interesting and relevant to the adult learners:

I think when we talk of adult literacy classes, it should not take a very formal way like basic school literacy education because if it becomes very formal, most adults will not be motivated to join the classes. Therefore, there is need to employ simple teaching methods such as focus-group discussions, and brainstorming. In addition, we also need to come up with participatory approaches to learning, I think these methods would make teaching and learning effective. (DCDO, p.13)

The above view indicates that participatory strategies were recommended in the adult literacy classes of the LLP-A. Subsequently, realising the importance of participatory pedagogy, the DCDO emphasised that participatory pedagogical strategies should be applied in class. Fundamentally, in adult literacy-learning, participatory pedagogy is crucial due to its ingrained capacity to create a communal learning atmosphere which is particularly valuable for adult learning in a societal African milieu (Nafukho et al., 2005). Additionally, participatory strategies are known for enabling the adult learners to find learning interesting and helpful in meeting their particular learning goals (Knowles, 1973). Significantly, the DCDO acknowledged that the inadequate knowledge on pedagogy among the facilitators in the LLP-A was a serious source of concern:

I agree 100% that there is a gap in teaching methodologies in adult literacy classes because few facilitators have been trained. But those few who are trained are taught that adult learners learn easily when the lesson is presented in a very simple and easy manner. For this reason, facilitators are supposed to use easy and simple methods. If someone is teaching on money under numeracy he or she just have to come up with stories on money and then from those stories maybe the learners will be able to pick something and then start asking them questions to get their understanding of the story. (DCDO, p.12)

This comment revealed that narrative pedagogy (Campbell & Burnaby, 2001; Fasokun et al, 2005) should be one of the participatory pedagogical strategies which should be applied in adult literacy classes. It indicates that stories which are centred on beneficial real-life experiences of the adult learners should facilitate and enhance real learning. Furthermore, the DCDO classified narrative pedagogy as one of the pedagogical strategies that was easy to apply in the classroom. This observation can be true because narratives generally relate to the individual or group experiences of the adult learners. However, narrative pedagogy may not be that simple to apply effectively as a pedagogical strategy; it demands certain skills on the part of the facilitator. These include some level of conversance in working with groups and in allowing adult learners to be in charge of their learning, as well as the ability to turn a narrative into a lesson that supports and encourages all the adult learners to share their stories.

Furthermore, participant CDA 1A stated that the pedagogical strategies that were used in adult literacy classes in the LLP-A were participatory pedagogy, focus group discussions, role plays and drama. Similarly, CDA 2A highlighted participatory pedagogy, focus group discussions, group activities and role-play strategies. Therefore, participatory teaching, focus group discussions, group activities, role play and drama were generally misconstrued as different

and separate pedagogical methods by the participants, yet these strategies fall under the same method which is participatory pedagogy.

CDA 4A was both managing the literacy learning centre and actively involved in teaching in adult literacy classes. She indicated that she had forgotten the adult learning pedagogies:

To be honest I have forgotten the adult learning methods because I attended a workshop some years back. So I am using my college experience of how I was taught, that the lesson should be short and that it should be relevant to the needs of the adult learners. But it is a long time I learned these things. But your questions have provoked me to go back and revise on the teaching methods. But I am also using the teacher's guide, which is this... (CDA 4A, p.4)

She commented that the questions that I asked made her reflect on her pedagogical strategies as evidenced by the following: “your questions in this research have provoked me to revise the teaching methods” (CDA 4A, p4). What she referred to as a guide in the comment above was the adult functional-literacy syllabus. And what she thought were the teaching-learning methods were the general and specific outcomes of a topic that were contained in the adult literacy syllabus.

Additionally, to understand how the actual teaching was conducted in the LLP-A, CDA 1A explained that the purpose of the introduction of a lesson was to present a topic and to allow the adult learners to brainstorm. CDA 1A thought that this strategy allowed the adult learners to activate their reasoning and thought processes, thereby allowing them to take an active role in the learning process:

The first thing I do is to present a topic to learners and allow them to say anything they know about the topic. After this, I take some time and say something about each response. For example, if I am teaching on growing of groundnuts, I allow learners to say anything they know about this issue. Thereafter, I will begin teaching from what they have brainstormed and along the way introduce new ideas to the lesson. (1A, p.15)

This pedagogical strategy is participatory with a specific focus on brainstorming. However, this facilitator did not explain categorically how this strategy was applied to the teaching of literacy. When I asked her to clarify how she applied it when teaching literacy, she indicated that it was only applicable for teaching non-literacy lessons. She believed that it was more convenient to teach literacy skills on the chalkboard. Additionally, I noticed that this facilitator did not realise the importance of preparing for an adult literacy class. Research on pedagogical strategies (Ginsburg & Gal, 1996; Rogers & Horrocks, 2010; Rogers, 2009; Moate & Cox, 2015;

Zawilinski et al., 2016) shows that preparation before class is required to help the facilitator make critical decisions, including the lesson that should be taught, how the adult learners can best be helped to learn and which pedagogical methods are ideal to achieve this goal.

Participant CDA 2A indicated that group discussions were sometimes used in collaboration with the lecture strategy for purposes of assessing the adult learners' understanding of the lesson. This was important to allow them to share a common understanding of what they had learned. During the application of this pedagogical strategy, the adult learners were grouped in fours or fives to discuss what had been presented during the lesson. Then, the facilitator would listen to each group's discussion. However, I could not verify this classroom approach because I did not see any of the facilitators use this strategy during my class observations. What was evident in the LLP-A classrooms was confirmed by CDA 2A: "I use the board (lecture teaching), when I am teaching, I say something and write it on the board. When I finish they will also write and I will mark them". (CDA2A, p.3)

The pedagogical preference of the managers in the LLP-B was guided by their orientation that the adult learners were experience-based learners. Therefore, they indicated that effective pedagogical strategies should be those that started with the known literacies and proceeded to the unknown. Participant B1A indicated that to achieve the desired learning results in adult learning, adult learners should be considered as individuals or persons who voluntarily engaged in learning. He said that unlike children, most adult learners chose their learning goals carefully and purposively. This meant that to help them achieve these goals, teaching had to start from what they already know.

Teaching and learning in adult literacy is very practical, we should always remember that our role is to engage the adult learners into doing something on their own and not for them. We believe that when they do something for themselves they will be in a better position to know what to do on their own than just listening from the teacher. So the teaching strategies we use are classroom teaching, discussions and field activities which are used in such a way that they are practical and participatory. The reason for insisting on being practical and participatory teaching is that we deal with people who are already doing something, though others are not involved in any business, they just come to learn.
(B1A, p.3)

Based on this comment, the significance of teaching the adult learners –who are already involved in socio-economic activities – by using participatory pedagogy is that it makes learning more engaging and relevant to the adult learners. However, this can also be a disadvantage because they are likely to focus only on improving what they already know, and

not on learning new skills. Nonetheless, the idea of teaching a practical skill which is relevant to the adult learners remains critical in adult learning.

Though manager B2A was in full support of participatory pedagogies in adult literacy classes, she expressed the need for a dynamic application. She indicated that its current application could be strengthened by incorporating discovery pedagogy. She believed that adult learners were independent learners and discovery pedagogy reinforced this quality:

Look I am old, I did my nursing studies 40 years ago, so my memory really is not the best. I just believe in discovery learning because for instance with the village adult learners, discovery learning makes them think about a lot of things. Even when I use stories to teach in literacy, I make them think through those stories. That way they will be more independent in many ways. So whenever I am in class, I would try and say what can you tell me about your home? What can you write about your home, write about your children? And basically start with the things they know. (B2A, p.4)

Similarly, this manager stressed the application of narrative pedagogy in adult literacy-learning. What is important here is how she incorporated narratives with discovery learning so that the adult learners would be able to think through and share their stories about their homes and families. However, this learning approach is only possible when the facilitator creates a learning atmosphere in which the adult learners are encouraged to think critically, a practice which occurred rarely in the adult literacy classes of the two LLPs.

5.5.1.2 Face-to-face interviews with the facilitators

Participants FA1, FA2, FA3, FA5, and FA7 in LLP-A confirmed that they mainly lecture when teaching literacy. They also mentioned that sometimes they combined the lecture strategy and the evaluatory method:

I use a lecture method more on teaching reading and writing because it helps me to move at the same pace with the learners. Though a few times I combine with focus group discussions, role-plays and drama, but mostly I just use class teaching. (FA1, p.15)

Sometimes I use stories for non-reading and writing lessons, but for reading and writing, I use classroom teaching on the board. (FA7, p.5)

The above views are a confirmation of the dominant application of lecture pedagogy in the adult literacy classes in LLP-A. Some facilitators indicated that they occasionally attempted to use other pedagogical strategies. For example, FA5 indicated that lecture and evaluatory pedagogical strategies were sometimes combined by using songs. The adult learners

composed songs that were based on the letters and words which they had to learn to help them remember what they had learned. It was revealed that adult learners were often encouraged by the facilitators to sing at work or whenever they engaged in an activity which could permit them to do so. However, FA5 indicated that a lecture strategy was applied when reading and writing were taught. Before beginning a class, he subjected the learners to an evaluation. Its purpose was to evaluate the literacies that the learners possessed before joining a class. However, this evaluation was based on school-based literacies. This in my view, is an unfair assessment because even those who may not have school-based literacies have literacies which they have acquired through experiential learning. FA5 stated:

I use these teaching strategies because I do not want to bore the learners, I want to help them learn how they can apply literacy skills in their lives. Because even the presentation of the topic matters a lot. You can either draw the interest and attention of the learners or drive them away based on the teaching methods you are using. (FA5, p.3)

FA5 was the only participant in both the LLP-A and LLP-B who indicated the importance of choosing the right pedagogical strategies and who understood the learning dynamics in adult literacy classes. He explained that selecting appropriate pedagogical strategies helped to enhance the morale to learn among the adult learners and the success of the learning activities. The essence of adult learning is not to teach but to help the adult learners improve and ultimately learn new skills. I also noticed that he emphasised the need to help his adult learners learn how to apply the literacies as opposed to teaching the decontextualised learning of reading and writing. This is a fundamental value of the LSP theory of literacy (Nabi et al., 2009; Rogers & Street, 2012), and it has implications for pedagogy and the language of instruction. LSP is critical to learning new skills and to build on knowledge more effectively, conveniently and meaningfully. FA5 wanted to contextualise his lessons within the local practices of the adult learners:

I use Cinyanja because that is the language everyone knows in this place. So I need to use things which are familiar to the learners. Like when I am teaching vowels, I tell them that a e i o u, these can be looked at as chiefs (Traditional leaders). Then when you have created a word from the vowels you essentially have a village. I have found that this is helpful for them to learn easily. (FA5, p.3)

Similarly, the views above relate to the sociocultural pedagogy that emphasises situated pedagogical practices that are based on the life experiences and the learning goals of the adult learners. In support of this, studies by Gebre et al. (2009) and Ghose (2007) state that educators who view reality from the perspectives of the adult learners' life experiences have more chances for success than those who use their personal or own perspectives. Therefore,

it is only through this practice that educators can effectively attend to the learning goals of their adult learners (Kolb, 2014; Knowles, 1973; Nabi et al., 2009).

Conversely, facilitators FA3, FA6 and FA8 advanced the following rationale for the application of lecture pedagogy:

I have never been trained to teach adults, but I remember very well how my teachers used to teach when I was at school. I used to see very carefully the methods they were using and that is what I have been using here. (FA3, p.6)

I learned how to use this method from the time I was in secondary school and the experiences from this community (research site). I attended some adult literacy-learning classes in the past before coming here, but even when I came here in 1999, I attended some classes for adult education and when the one who was teaching us left, I took over and started teaching my colleagues. (FA6, p.3)

I have never undergone training in adult learning pedagogy, but I have some short training in Early Childhood Education (ECE). It is from this training that I draw the knowledge for teaching. So I have found that classroom teaching is the best for teaching literacy. (FA8, p.5)

The different experiences of the above facilitators in pedagogy and learning have influenced their pedagogical preferences. The training of facilitators in adult learning pedagogy is crucial to achieve success in the classroom.

The facilitators from the LLP-B shared the same view by choosing the lecture pedagogy. According to FB1, she was usually in charge of the learning sessions. She indicated that the adult learners did not have to provide any input because their role was to listen to her teaching:

When I am teaching, learners do not have to provide anything, they are just supposed to listen and repeat whatever I say. (B1, p.3)

This approach reduced the adult learners to objects and recipients of the information that was transferred from the facilitators. It is detrimental to learning as it makes the adult learners dependent on the facilitator. Specifically, it does not offer room for adult learners to develop critical thinking skills and creativity.

FB3 suggested the need for preparation before class. She indicated that preparation was key because it helped her choose a relevant topic to teach and determined the appropriate pedagogical strategies for that lesson. However, because her preferred pedagogical methods

were lecture and evaluatory pedagogies, it remains doubtful whether her planning for class improved the quality of learning that took place:

I prepare before going to class because it is important for me to know what to teach and how I will teach. So, when I go to class I prefer teaching using the lecture method and thereafter giving an exercise to evaluate the learners. (FB3, p.4)

Even though FB3 preferred the lecture strategy, she was the only participant in both programmes who realised the importance of preparing for class. She believed that failure to prepare led to failure to teach the learners effectively. According to her, preparation determined the success of the class session and allowed the facilitator to adapt her lesson to the classroom situation. It is expected of the facilitator to be dynamic and flexible to effectively respond to the different adult learners in the classroom.

5.5.1.3 Focus group discussions with the adult learners

Similarly, the focus group discussions with the adult learners in both the LLP-A and the LLP-B revealed the dominant application of lecture pedagogy in adult literacy classes. The adult learners indicated that they were mostly taught through a combination of lecture (chalkboard teaching in centres where such facilities were available) and evaluatory methods. Below are some of their views:

We are taught from the board, the teacher writes on the board and we are able to see what she writes. (FGD A1, p.1)

*We are taught using the board, the teacher writes, **a e i o u** then we are asked to come up with words even names. Afterwards, the teacher will go round to mark what we have written. Through this, we learn how to read if we don't know we learn from our friends. (FGD A3, p.2)*

We learn in an open space just here where our teacher comes with a book and teaches us (FGD A4, p.1).

We come here and meet as a class and we are taught. The instructor wants us to share what we know and the instructor shares what we do not know. So the instructor does not teach alone, the way we do it is that some things we are asked questions and so on. Some things we ask for the instructor of the things we want to learn. (FGD A5, p.2)

Despite the adult learners in the FGD A3 and FGD A5 who indicated that they also learned from their colleagues, I did not witness any peer learning activities in the classes that I observed. However, the views expressed during the FGDA5 above, reveal elements of participatory pedagogy and learning: the sharing of information as opposed to a one-way flow

of classroom communication from the facilitator to the learner. However, I could not confirm whether participatory learning was practised in the literacy classes because I did not see any evidence of this in the class sessions that I observed.

Similarly, the adult learners in the LLP-B confirmed that they were primarily taught through the lecture pedagogy. For example, during the FGD B1 the adult learners shared the following views:

Our teachers when teaching they write for us on big papers (flip charts). Sometimes they use the board from which we copy in our books. But what is written on the paper is what we use to learn how to read. After we have written in our books, our teacher goes round to mark and grade what we have written. I can say that we are doing well because our teachers know how to teach better for us to learn well. (FGD B1, p.2)

There was a general acceptance among these adult learners of the pedagogy that was applied by their facilitator. During the discussions, they indicated that they were satisfied with the way they were taught. However, one participant was dissatisfied whenever the facilitator did not mark their work:

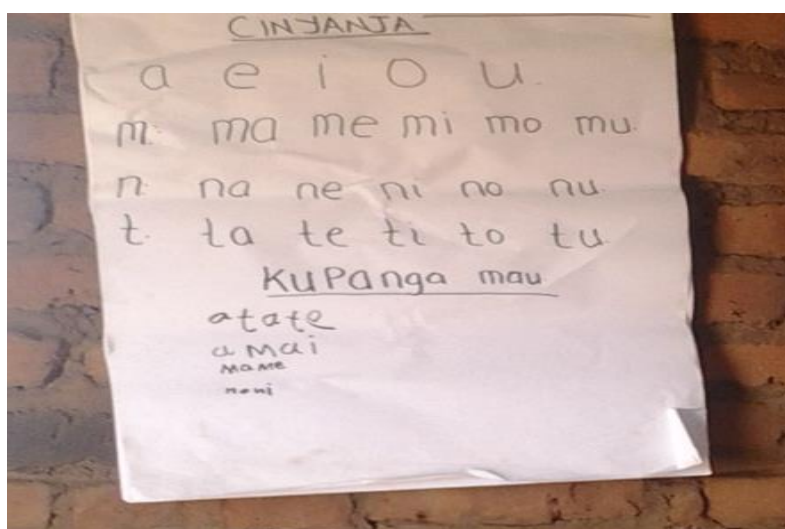
When the teacher writes on the board and asks us to copy, sometimes the work is never checked and marked for us to know whether we are doing well or not. (FGD B1, p.3)

This reaction was undoubtedly an indication of the adult learner's pedagogical preference. It shows that this learner preferred to be taught and evaluated which indicated to him or her whether progress was made. This also relates to the importance of feedback to the adult learners. It is well known in the literature (Biryukova et al., 2015; Widin et al., 2012) that adult learners require feedback because it helps them to evaluate their efforts in meeting the learning goals. Class observations also played an important role in verifying the information shared through interviews and FGDs.

5.5.1.4 Class observations

In the LLP-A, I observed four adult literacy lessons on separate days and they involved FA2, FA4, CDA4A and FA8. The first class observation involved participant FA2, who taught two lessons: word building and numeracy that lasted 51 minutes. These lessons were held in a village community church building. A pre-written lesson on a flipchart was used as shown in figure 5.1 below

Figure 5. 1: Flipchart showing a lesson in Cinyanja language literacy



FA2 fastened the flipchart to a wall and greeted the adult learners. He then announced that the topic for the day was vowels. He never referred to the syllables which appeared on the flipchart in figure 5.1. Using a stick, he pointed at and shouted out each vowel and syllable. After doing this repeatedly, he asked the adult learners to join him. Similarly, he repeated this thrice with the adult learners. Then he switched to individual learners. Each learner had to read, first with the help of the facilitator and later alone, as the facilitator pointed at each vowel and syllable using the stick. The facilitator did this with every learner in class and for every effort made by the learner, there was a round of applause from everyone in class including the facilitator.

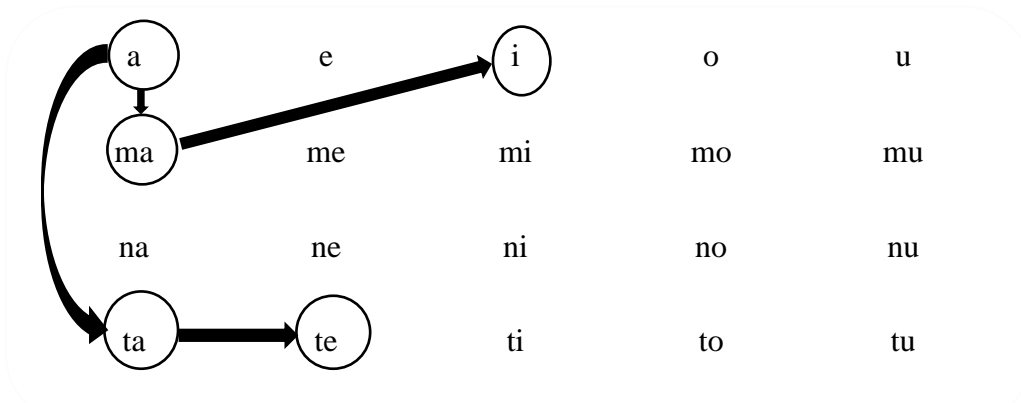
Afterwards, he asked volunteers to write at the bottom of the flipchart, as can be seen in figure 5.1 above. The exercise *Kupanga mau* at the bottom of the flipchart means 'creating words' in the Cinyanja language. In this case, words were created from the vowels and syllables as shown on the flipchart. The adult learners who were courageous enough, took part in this activity as shown at the bottom of the flipchart in figure 5.1 above.

It is evident that the pedagogical approach of this facilitator was expository pedagogy that incorporated syllabic and phonic teaching. Pedagogy was largely characterised by teaching the sounds of the vowels and syllables. The role of the adult learners was limited to repeating what the facilitator had said and answering the questions that were asked. I noticed that the emphasis in this class was on the mastery of the learning content and not on the real-life application of skills. This practice is contrary to what is known about the ways through which

adult learners learn. The experiential-based approach, also known as practical learning, is the ideal approach for effective learning to take place among adult learners.

Furthermore, FA2 continued his lesson and taught word building and numeracy. He began by scaffolding the adult learners in building words from the vowels and syllables as shown in figure 5.2 below. Based on my observation, I realised that he began the lesson on the assumption that it was not necessary to remind his adult learners of what vowels and syllables were because there was no mention of this in his lesson. Below is a schematic representation of how the lesson progressed.

Figure 5. 2: Lesson demonstration on word building



He explained to the learners that to form the word **atate**, which means ‘father’, they had to combine the vowels **a**, **ta** and **te**. And to form the word **amai** which means ‘mother’, they simply had to combine **a**, **ma** and **i**, which forms **amai** (FA2:4) as shown in figure 5.2 above. Surprisingly, FA2 indicated that he had had some training in adult learning pedagogy, yet his teaching did not reflect an adequate understanding of adult learning pedagogy. Teaching adults to build a word by combining vowels without providing any real-life context is not pedagogically sound. Subsequently, the adult learners may understand the meaning of words as merely combining vowels in a particular pattern. Furthermore, he did not explain how he arrived at the pattern shown in figure 5.2 above, or the approach he used to create the abovementioned words.

Clearly, the pedagogical approach that was applied in the lesson was expository and synthetic pedagogy. The teaching involved the sounds of the syllables which were combined to form words. This approach could have been helpful in fostering meaningful learning gains if it was not dominated by the facilitator throughout the lesson.

Afterwards, FA2 taught numeracy, despite indicating to the adult learners that the lesson for that day was on word building. He said, “at this time we can look at masamu” that means arithmetic”. This shift from one literacy to the next without proper contextualisation was confusing to the adult learners as I could gather from their facial expressions and body language. He taught additions and subtraction. He said that “we are going to use cattle or goats for our easy understanding”. He proceeded by writing $ngombe\ imodzi + ina = ngombe\ dzibili$, meaning one cow + one cow = two cows (FA2, p.5). Similarly, he used this example for goats.

The pedagogical strategy of including the adult learners’ real-life context delighted the adult learners because when the facilitator introduced this part of the lesson, the adult learners spontaneously began taking part in the lesson. This differed from the previous lesson during which the adult learners did not take part. Even if the instructor never asked a question, they raised their hands for contributions for which they had to go and write on the flipchart. This is the only facilitator in both programmes who attempted to use pedagogies that were situated in the real-life practices of the adult learners. In my view, he recognised the local practices of the adult learners and incorporated them in the lesson which resulted in the adult learners’ active participation through contributions as the lesson progressed. This was an indication that what he was teaching was more relevant to the adult learners.

This teaching style was not maintained as participant FA2 again reverted to lecture pedagogy: the adult learners had to listen to the facilitator as he delivered what he had prepared for that day. They did not have books, pencils or pens with which to write. Throughout the entire class session, the facilitator paused only for a few times to determine if learners had understood his explanations. After active contributions from three adult learners out of a total of twelve, he ended the session and said: “you should revise what we have learned today because when we meet next week I will ask you questions” (FA2, p.6). Therefore, the pedagogical practices exhibited by FA2 is evidence of his adherence to expository pedagogy and lack of pedagogical flexibility.

Participant FA4 taught a lesson based on health literacy that focused on methods of family planning which incorporated reading and writing exercises and lasted for 48 minutes. At the start of the lesson, he introduced a brainstorming exercise about the methods of family planning. I thought this was very important for both the facilitator and the adult learners because he was determining the knowledge gaps that existed among the adult learners by basing his teaching on familiar concepts, thereby enhancing their interest in the lesson and

activating their prior-knowledge. However, despite this attempt to engage the adult learners, there were only three contributions made by three assertive female adult learners. This was from a total class of 57 adult learners, who were all women. These adult learners were crowded in a small community hall with four small windows as shown in figure 5.3 below, and this may be the reason for the lack of participation. This approach, if introduced in such a manner that it involves most adult learners in class, is vital for stimulating the adult learners' interest in a topic.

Figure 5. 3: Community hall used as a classroom for literacy learning

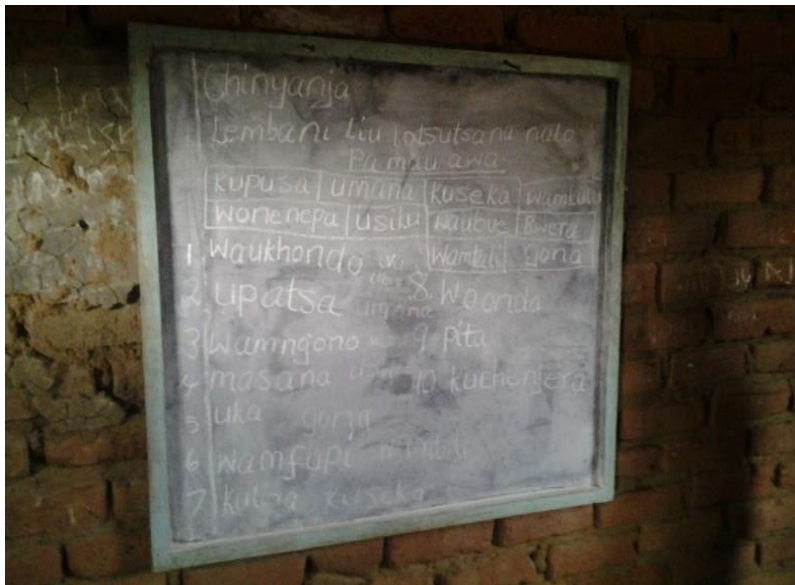


The facilitator tried to probe the adult learners for further contributions, but there was no response. I could hear some learners whispering amongst themselves saying “he seems to like this lesson so much, and I do not know why”. Other learners agreed in very low voices that “very true he really likes this topic”. I got the impression that the adult learners were unresponsive because of the irrelevance of the topic or the crowded and uncomfortable classroom conditions. As a result, they decided not to answer the questions the facilitator had asked.

The reaction by the adult learners in the above classroom may not be unique to these learners; literature on adult learning (Hasselbring, 2004; Haycock, 2015; Hughes & Schwab, 2010; Merriam et al., 2012) confirms that when adult learners do not see the relevance of a particular topic or lesson, they do not participate. This may result in adult learners losing interest in the lesson and ultimately withdrawing from the entire learning programme. Therefore, I realised that although this facilitator made an effort to engage the adult learners in his content delivery, it would have been a good idea to find out from the adult learners themselves what they wanted to learn rather than deciding for them.

In other words, asking them what they knew about family planning was not the right question. The right question should have been what they wanted to learn about family planning. I think this approach would have been more engaging, as many adult learners would have opened up on issues related to this topic. When there was a lack of contributions from the learners, the facilitator decided to read from a textbook entitled *Health and environmental education* and he asked the learners to repeat the sentences after him. He then combined the story with what was written on the board as shown in figure 5.4 below and asked them to read after him.

Figure 5. 4: Chalkboard showing a lesson in Cinyanja language literacy



After he had read the notes on the chalkboard repeatedly with the adult learners, he instructed them to copy the almost illegible written notes from the chalkboard into their exercise books. The classroom was very dimly lit hall as can be seen in figure 5.4 above. Afterwards, he asked if everyone had copied what was written on the board and they all responded in affirmation. He then asked them if there were any questions. When nobody asked a question, he then started asking them questions on environmental hygiene, a topic which was not related to family planning, the topic of that day.

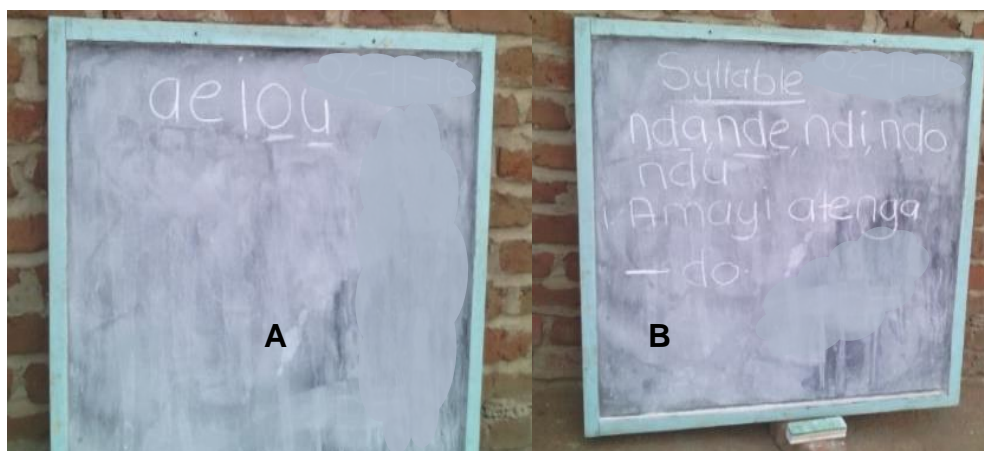
I realised that FA4 wanted to impress me. Clearly, there was no relationship between the lesson of the day and this questioning on environmental hygiene. Interestingly, whenever he asked a question, the adult learners responded in unison signifying that it was something which could have been carefully rehearsed. Additionally, I observed some adult learners laughing as they responded to the questions. After 48 minutes, he ended the class without checking what the learners had written. The data that were gathered from this classroom

observation could have contaminated my findings, however, the use of multiple data collection sources helped me to overcome this challenge.

During the face-to-face interviews, FA4 had shared his knowledge of different pedagogical practices that are used in adult learning. He categorically stated that he used focus group discussions in his teaching. He said: "For me, I use focus group discussions to help them learn in a group" (FA4, p.3). However, during the observations of his classroom practice, a lecture method was applied with minimal learner engagement throughout his lesson on health literacy. This left me wondering how much preparing goes into what FA4 does before going to class.

I also observed CDA 4A as she facilitated a lesson on Cinyanja language literacy, which lasted for 22 minutes. I saw that she combined lecture and evaluatory pedagogical strategies. She began with lecture teaching and ended with evaluating the learners through a class exercise. Her approach was a typically formal and expository school-based classroom lesson. She began with writing the date and vowels on a small chalkboard as shown in figure 5.5 A and B below.

Figure 5. 5: The use of chalkboard as a teaching aid



The vowels and syllables that were written on boards A and B respectively appeared like single words. In addition, the board was placed too low on the ground for the facilitator to write on and adult learners to see clearly. The adult learners were frequently getting up from their seats in order to see what was written on the board. This was compounded by the fact that the seating arrangement was not uniform: some adult learners sat on high chairs while others sat on the ground. Furthermore, I observed that the facilitator struggled to write on this small chalkboard. Often, she bent over turning her back on the adult learners, which is not

appropriate behaviour for the adult learners in a rural cultural setting. This practice is traditionally considered inappropriate because it symbolises a lack of respect for the elders. Her lesson was another instance of expository pedagogy which incorporated syllabic, phonic and evaluatory teaching. The facilitator was more concerned with delivering the learning content than scaffolding the learners to learn how to read and write. The effective use of expository pedagogy requires a careful consideration of the learning venue, teaching aids and seating arrangements that are appropriate for the adult learners.

Similarly, participant FA8 relied on one-way transfer of knowledge and information, with minimal learner involvement throughout the lesson which lasted for 40 minutes. The role of the learners was to listen, observe and repeat in unison whatever the facilitator had said. For example, she used hand gestures when teaching how to write vowels and syllables as shown in figure 5.6 below.

Figure 5. 6: The facilitator and adult learners in a learning session



In figure 5.6 above, the facilitator used a textbook to teach literacy. She used a grade one Cinyanja language literacy book with small printed letters and illustrations that the learners could not see from where they sat. The adult learners were passive listeners during the lesson. In her presentation, she mentioned pictures which seemed familiar to the adult learners as evidenced by the way they responded to the lesson. During the course of her presentation, the learners kept on leaving and re-joining the lesson. The lesson was conducted in an open space, where children were playing and cows and goats were roaming. The facilitator did not appear to be bothered by these interruptions. After talking for about 40 minutes she said that the learners were tired, and dismissed the class.

FA8 used expository pedagogy which was characterised by the facilitator dominating the teaching and learning session. The facilitator was more concerned with teaching rather than helping the learners to learn. The lesson presentation was coupled with the facilitator's lack of sensitivity and attention to the nonverbal cues exhibited by the adult learners, particularly when there was a lot of interruptions during the lesson. The use of a teaching material with small print was not ideal, although no adult learner complained. I observed that the adult learners struggled to see what was written in this book. Consequently, they relied on what the facilitator said and believed whatever the facilitator said. Based on the foregoing findings, it is evident that participants FA2, FA4, FA8 and CDA 4A in LLP-A, focused on expository pedagogy in their teaching of literacy skills.

In the LLP-B, I conducted two classroom observations which involved FB1 and FB2, and the findings revealed that the facilitators used similar pedagogical strategies in their lessons as the facilitators in LLP-A. For example, facilitator FB1 taught in the venue shown in figure 5.7

Figure 5. 7: Venue for the adult literacy class

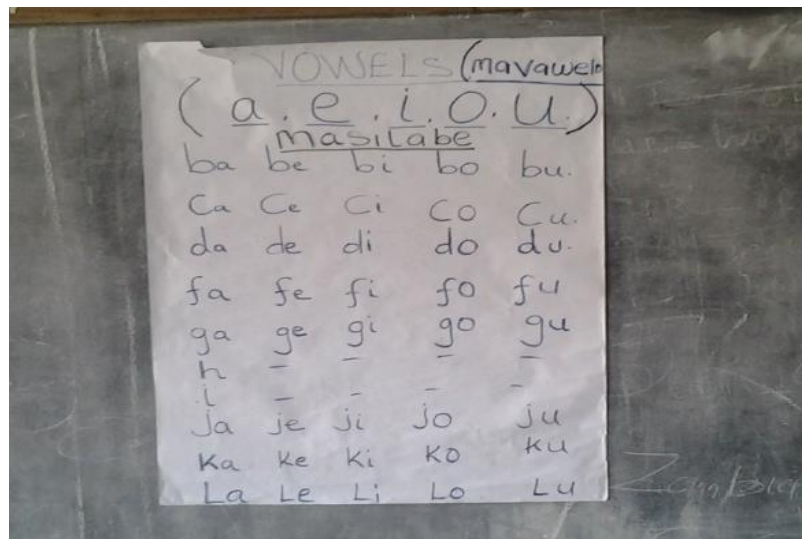


There were only six female adult learners who sat on a mattress and the facilitator sat on the chair shown in Figure 5.7 above. She taught the pronunciation of six English words which were: madam, sir, morning, excuse, please, and welcome. These words were pronounced as follows: madam, as “maram”, sir as “ser”, excuse as “excuse”, please as “please”, and welcome as “warcome”. The incorrect pronunciations were also made by FB1. When she was teaching these pronunciations, she had no material to refer to for possible guidance on the correct pronunciations.

This situation may lead to future learning challenges particularly when the adult learners are taught incorrect pronunciations that may negatively affect their spelling of words. After teaching for about 28 minutes, FB1 ended the class and asked the adult learners to revise, as she was going to evaluate them during the next lesson. The adult learners could not revise effectively, as they had not written any notes during the lesson for easy reference.

In another class, facilitator FB2 told the learners that the lesson for that day was on vowels and syllables in Cicewa. The lesson was written on a flipchart which was stuck on a blackboard as shown in figure 5.8 below.

Figure 5. 8: Lesson on vowels and syllables



The order of the presentation was based on how the lesson appeared on the flipchart. This lesson lasted for 43 minutes. During the lesson, the facilitator paused several times to allow the learners to ask for clarifications and to make contributions. However, no adult learner wrote anything because they had no pencils and exercise books. The facilitator concluded the lesson by asking the adult learners a few questions to assess if they had understood the topic.

The above class observations indicate that the facilitators dominated the adult literacy classes in both LLP-A and LLP-B. The observations demonstrated the prevalence of the lecture strategy and evaluatory pedagogy, despite the availability of other pedagogical methods and approaches. Therefore, it is evident that the pedagogical methods that were recommended by the facilitators in LLP-A and LLP-B during the interviews were not applied in their adult literacy classes.

5.5.1.5 Document analysis

Document analysis included the documents that were used as teaching-learning materials in the adult literacy classes of both programmes. I believe that although these documents are important for providing guidance on pedagogy, they are not suitable for every adult literacy-learning context. My contention is premised on the canon of literature (Canuto, 2015; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Cochran, 1991; Dmitrenko et al., 2015; Erguig, 2012; Gargallo Lopez et al., 2015), which argues in favour of the social construction of pedagogy that is mediated by the social contexts of literacy. Standard pedagogies have lost their effectiveness in the fast changing contexts of adult literacy, therefore, there is a need for situated pedagogies.

In view of this, during data collection I managed to access documents from the LLP-A. I was told by the managers of the LLP-B that their teaching-learning material was a handout which they prepared and the instructors guide from the Department of Community Development. These documents were not availed for analysis because the managers had misplaced the keys to the room where they were kept.

Furthermore, the documents that were analysed did not clearly suggest the pedagogical strategies which should be used in adult literacy classes. The four literacy learning documents availed were the Adult Functional Literacy Syllabus, the Instructor's Guide, the Learner's Handbook and the literacy learning primer entitled 'Grow More Groundnuts'. This primer on growing more groundnuts was published in 1974, and was the only document which provided a detailed account of pedagogical strategies and how they should be applied when teaching. These include the lecture and demonstration strategies, the participatory method – primarily involving narratives – and the evaluatory pedagogy with a particular focus on assessing the adult learners. The document clearly illustrated of how each of these pedagogical strategies may be applied either individually or in combination. In my view, although this primer was old, it was useful to the facilitators as they could borrow pedagogical strategies which were relevant to meeting the learning goals of their adult learners.

Although some of the recently published (2014) documents, including the Learner's Handbook and Instructor's Guide, indicate some pedagogical strategies, it was not easy to identify them, because they were hidden in the suggested learning activities. In other words, it was only when I had critically analysed the learning activities that were suggested by these documents that I managed to identify the recommended pedagogical strategies.

For example, the only way I could identify the pedagogical strategies in the Adult Functional Literacy Syllabus was by critically analysing the specific outcomes of the topics on literacy and language, which included expository, discovery and participatory pedagogical methods. However, the strategies were presented in a confusing and erroneous manner, insinuating that demonstration pedagogy is different than expository pedagogy, and discussion is different than participatory pedagogy (Doc, A1, p.3). Furthermore, there was no clear guidelines on how these strategies should be applied when teaching. The Adult Learner's Handbook did not mention the pedagogical methods. However, the activities suggested the possible pedagogical strategies which included narrative teaching, group teaching, discussions and discovery teaching.

It is only on the topic of language literacy that the Instructor's Guide specifically indicated the pedagogical strategies that should be applied: "the teaching methodology should include discussion, questioning, role play, drama group work, pair and field work" (Department of Community Development, 2014:78).

During the member checking, the facilitators of both LLPs expressed concern about how the teaching-learning materials were developed. They indicated that it was not clear how the developers of the teaching-learning material arrived at the pedagogical strategies. One facilitator stated that there was no research conducted in the district to find out which approaches, methods and strategies were relevant to literacy related activities in the sub-centres. For example, the Instructor's Guide suggested a pair method, "but I do not know what this method is and how to apply it" (FA4, p.3). To confirm this challenge, the DCDO indicated that a number of facilitators were unfamiliar with the teaching methods and, subsequently, they could not use them effectively.

In view of the above findings, the difference between the two literacy-learning programmes was that while the LLP-A never had a particular pedagogical orientation, the LLP-B emphasised teaching from the known to the unknown. This principle conforms to the theoretical framework of the study, which argues that the life experiences of adult learners support further learning. This means that the pedagogical practices that were applied in the LLP-B were more conscious of creating an ideal adult learning environment than in the LLP-A. However, the reasoning by the managers in the LLP-B suggested that the pedagogical strategy that was applied to teach literacy did not matter as long as it was aligned with the principle of starting from the known to the unknown. I find this thinking to be problematic because each pedagogical strategy has its own weaknesses and strengths and the particular

context needs to be considered to determine the intended learning outcomes. Therefore, I hold the view that the choice of pedagogical method and strategy is crucial for achieving the goals and objectives of both the learners and learning programme.

5.5.1.6 Summary of sub-theme 2.1: Pedagogical strategies used in classes

This sub-theme presented the pedagogical strategies that were used in adult literacy classes of both the LLP-A, and LLP-B. They were embedded in the four pedagogical methods: expository, discovery, participatory and evaluatory pedagogies. However, among these pedagogical methods, the facilitators preferred expository and evaluatory pedagogies which were incorporated with phonic and syllabic pedagogies. The main focus in expository pedagogy was delivering the learning content through lecture pedagogy. Evaluatory pedagogy involved assessing the adult learners at the end of each lesson. The adult learners were asked questions on what they could remember from the topic that the facilitator had presented. Although FA1, FA7, and CDA 1A attempted to use participatory strategies, mainly narrative pedagogy, this was a rare practice in all the classes of both programmes. Many facilitators (FA1, FA2, FA3, FA5, FA7, FA8, FB1, FB2 and FB3) advanced a personal reason for preferring expository and evaluatory pedagogies. They indicated that they found lecture and evaluatory pedagogical methods more convenient, compared to other pedagogical methods. Another reason was that they lacked training in adult learning pedagogy and had forgotten the adult learning pedagogical methods and strategies.

Additionally, the findings revealed that the learning venues included open spaces, church buildings, community halls, and in some centres, government schools. These learning venues presented different learning challenges which included uncomfortable seating arrangements, the inability of adult learners to write notes, noise barriers and the one-dimensional expository pedagogy of the facilitators. Having looked at the pedagogical strategies used in adult literacy classes, it is important to understand how the facilitators' interpretation of pedagogical strategies influenced the way they applied them when teaching.

5.5.2 Sub-theme 2.2: Facilitators interpretation of pedagogical strategies

As already indicated in the foregoing sub-theme, four pedagogical methods became apparent from the interviews with the facilitators of both the LLP-A and LLP-B. These were expository, discovery, participatory and evaluatory pedagogies. Each of these was interpreted on the basis of the pedagogical preference of the facilitators. The details are presented in the following interviews.

5.5.2.1 Face-to-face interviews with the facilitators

The expository-orientated facilitators interpreted expository pedagogy as having two foci: (1) to help the adult learners become better by teaching them how to read and write; and (2), to achieve the learning objectives. These facilitators claimed that lecture pedagogy produced a better understanding of the learning content among their learners because it helped the adult learners to see how the letters and words were written on the chalkboard or flipchart. Additionally, according to the facilitators, it facilitated learner concentration during the class sessions. Below are some of the comments by the facilitators:

Classroom teaching is a responsibility to make adult learners understand the lesson. With other teaching methods, the adult learners do not understand very well because when I am teaching using the board they are able to see and know what I have written. (FA2, p.6)

I use a board teaching method more and it means that learners are mastering what I am teaching and I am able to meet the learning objectives. Then I also ask learners to repeat after me several times so that they master what I am teaching. (FA4, p.6)

Lecture teaching means we have a duty and responsibility to teach our adult learners to understand. To me, it is the best teaching method. (B3, p.5)

Lecture teaching means clear explanations, better learner concentration, and understanding, teaching important things and, easy learning to read and write. (FA5, p.3)

The views above clearly indicate that the expository-oriented facilitators were more concerned with imparting information to the adult learners. They were preoccupied with ensuring that their adult learners mastered the learning content. They were not concerned with whether or not their adult learners were able to use the knowledge and skills that they had acquired. On the contrary, the quintessence of adult learning is that adult learners should acquire knowledge and skills which they should be able to apply to their real-life situations. Focusing on the mastery of the learning content entails an over-emphasis on the use of drill repetitions, and memory-based learning activities as opposed to practical learning in which the adult learners are involved in their own learning and not passive recipients of information.

In addition, the facilitators who were oriented towards discovery pedagogy, interpreted discovery learning as a way of helping the adult learners to learn independently. It meant helping their adult learners to develop fully their thinking, reasoning, and ability to make good judgements. For example, facilitator FA4 believed that adult learners were independent

learners, therefore, discovery pedagogy enhanced their self-regulated learning. Below are some of the views from the participants:

Discovery teaching means helping the learners to become more independent in terms of expressing themselves and the way they think about so many things in their lives. (B2A, p.8)

It means that when I give them homework, I am helping them to learn by finding out things by themselves and not depending on me. (CDA 1A, p.5)

From the previous section, it is evident that only three participants, who included FA4, B2A and CDA 1A, used discovery pedagogy in their teaching, although in a very limited manner. Generally, the facilitators were more concerned with what they should do in their content delivery, rather than what the adult learners should learn. They did not realise that their fundamental role in adult literacy classes was not to teach, but to facilitate and encourage the adult learners to learn independently. This is crucial for stimulating the learners to discover new ways of using literacy, rather than depending on the facilitator.

Furthermore, the managers CDA 1A, B1A, and B2A, and facilitator FA5 were oriented towards participatory pedagogy and indicated that participatory pedagogy recognised the potential, abilities, interests, and desires of their adult learners. According to the CDA 1A, when their adult learners engaged and participated in activities like a focus group discussion, the potential to express themselves in a group was enhanced. Bélanger (2011) and Campbell and Burnaby (2001) state that participatory pedagogy enhances learning by involving the adult learners as it helps them to deal with shyness as they develop confidence and courage. However, participatory pedagogy did not take place in the literacy classes that I observed.

The facilitators indicated that the importance of participatory pedagogy is premised on the idea that it is easier for someone to forget what they are told than what they have done by themselves. For this reason, the facilitators shared the view that participatory pedagogy produced better learning gains than any other pedagogical method. However, I did not witness participatory strategies in the classes that I observed. What the facilitators saw as participation was superficial: it was limited to the learners parroting the facilitator and answering the questions which were asked during the class sessions. This is what they shared during the interviews:

Like in group discussions, adult learners meet together to share knowledge on different things. So they learn from each other as opposed to just listening from the teacher all the time. (CDA 1A, p.5)

Participatory strategies are relevant because they make the learner feel that they know something and in the process, they learn something. (B1A, p.4)

When the learner participates he or she will not forget easily. Especially with focus group discussion, I believe that this is when people will understand more because when they are involved they will not forget. (FA2, p.4)

Focus group is a small group, so everyone who does not participate in a class at least they are able to participate and they will be able to understand. A role play makes the topic interesting, it is the same as participatory you involve learners in whatever you do. (FA3, p.3)

From these views, it appears that the facilitators' conceptualisation of participatory learning was limited to focus group discussions, which they equated with learning in small groups and the shared responsibilities among the adult learners and the facilitators. However, this is an inadequate view of participatory pedagogy and learning. Focus group discussions is only one strategy within this pedagogical method whose main focus is on collaborative and cooperative pedagogy and learning as opposed to facilitator-dominated pedagogy. Below are some of the views on focus group discussions in adult literacy classes:

When I use focus group discussions it means concentrating on a small group of learners, sharing responsibilities and participatory learning. It means that when learners participate they learn more. (FA4, p.6)

I use focus group discussions which imply a better understanding by the adult learners. (FA2, p.5)

Finally, facilitators who were oriented towards evaluatory pedagogy associated it with expository pedagogy. According to these facilitators, evaluatory pedagogy encapsulated an essential approach for evaluating their own pedagogy through the progress made by their learners. It was regarded as a mirror for reflecting how well and bad these facilitators were doing in their pedagogy of literacy. For example, facilitators FA1, FA2, FA5, FA8 and FB2 indicated that when they evaluated the learning progress of their adult learners, they were also evaluating themselves. They shared a common understanding that when their adult learners did not display the expected progress, it was a reflection of them not teaching effectively.

This kind of thinking has the potential to create a situation where facilitators become preoccupied with their efforts and abilities to produce better academic results rather than concentrating on cultivating the individual abilities of their adult learners towards self-improvement. Eventually, the pedagogy and learning process is likely to become teacher-

centred, as was the case in the literacy classes of both LLP-A and LLP-B. Additionally, the facilitators' references to adult learners not making the expected progress should raise some concerns regarding the implied meaning of the expected progress. For example, who determines this progress and how is it measured and by whom? From the facilitators' interpretations of this pedagogical strategy, it is evident that they felt obligated to direct pedagogy and learning to meet their outcomes. This is why the facilitators dominated the pedagogy and learning processes in the classroom in both programmes. Consequently, the potential and abilities of the adult learners remained suppressed.

5.5.2.2 Summary of sub-theme 2.2: Interpretation of pedagogical strategies

This sub-theme presented the facilitators' interpretation of four pedagogical methods which are expository, discovery, participatory and evaluatory pedagogies. Expository pedagogy was interpreted by the facilitators as their responsibility to help the adult learners become better by teaching them how to read and write. These facilitators claimed that this was the only pedagogical strategy which produced a better understanding among the adult learners: a learning-friendly strategy to learn how to read and write, and to obtain better learning results. However, this is not accurate, because there is no single method which is effective on its own in producing the desired learning results. Every pedagogical strategy becomes effective when used together with other pedagogical strategies to cater for a wide range of adult learners, each with individual learning needs.

Discovery-oriented facilitators indicated that discovery pedagogy assisted adult learners in becoming independent learners. They indicated that when they used this pedagogy it helped their adult learners to become independent thinkers by developing their reasoning and judgment abilities. Facilitators who believed in participatory pedagogy viewed it as the recognition of their adult learners' potentials, abilities and interests to improve themselves. However, I did not observe the application of these methods in the adult literacy classes.

Finally, evaluatory-oriented facilitators indicated that this pedagogical strategy represented a reflection of their own pedagogy and literacy skills. It meant that if the adult learners were not exhibiting the desired learning outcomes, then it was the fault of the facilitators. By implication, this fear of failure influenced the facilitators' preference for expository pedagogy as they focused on the achievement of outcomes, rather than on learning as a process of self-discovery.

Therefore, based on the findings of this sub-theme, it is evident that the facilitators' interpretation of their preferred pedagogic strategies should have influenced their actual pedagogy in class. However, this was not the case as much of their pedagogy focused on direct or expository teaching. In view of this, I realised that though the foregoing pedagogical interpretations by the facilitators appeared to be valuable, especially those relating to making pedagogical decisions, they did not influence the application of pedagogical methods by the facilitators in the classroom. These interpretations were rhetoric, and the facilitators did not internalise the pedagogical practices of the learner-centred pedagogies.

In addition, the facilitators claimed that their preferred pedagogies produced a better understanding of the learning content among the adult learners. However, as opposed to helping the adult learners practice the literacies that they were taught, the facilitators were preoccupied with making their adult learners master the learning content in a decontextualized setting. To further understand this sub-theme, it is important to explore how these interpretations informed the facilitators' choice of pedagogical strategies.

5.5.3 Sub-theme 2.3: Determinants of pedagogical strategies used to teach

This sub-theme corresponds to the second research question of the study, which sought to understand why facilitators used these pedagogical practices. It is evident that in the actual application of pedagogy, the facilitators focused on expository pedagogy, whose choice was shaped by three determinants which are discussed in the following categories of face-to-face interviews.

5.5.3.1 Face-to-face interviews with the facilitators

It emerged that similar to adult learners who have preferred styles of learning, teachers have preferred ways of teaching. In both the LLP-A and LLP-B, three pedagogical determinants were apparent among the facilitators which are Personal, Professional and Prescriptive determinants.

1) Personal determinant of pedagogy

The findings from the facilitators indicated that their choice of pedagogical strategies was influenced by their personal preference for a particular pedagogy, and their perception of their adult learners. According to FA1, FA2, FA4, FB1, FB3, CDA 1A and CDA 4A, a facilitator could select a pedagogical method on the basis that it was familiar to him or her, or that his or her adult learners were 'illiterate and ignorant'. Therefore, these factors compelled the facilitators

to select and apply pedagogical methods which were presumed to eliminate illiteracy and ignorance:

I know my learners personally so I just look at them in terms of how best they can respond or how best they can understand the material that I am going to deliver to them. (FB1, p.4)

The claim in the comment above is based on how well a facilitator knew his or her adult learners. This facilitator claimed to know her adult learners so well that selecting a pedagogical strategy was easy. However, there is need to be cautious about this approach as it has the potential for breeding familiarity, thereby causing the facilitator to make inappropriate pedagogical decisions. In addition, this approach is limited to the facilitator who knows his or her adult learners' learning styles. This means that it cannot apply to a situation where the facilitator meets the adult learners for the first time.

In addition, facilitator FB2 shared that:

I first look at the learners I have, that is when I decide what to do and the methods to use. I look at the learners in terms of their age and their levels of education. You find that in a class there are some who went up to grade one, others grade four and others up to grade seven. But from observation, I can see that they are in a group of slow learners so I prepare work for them as well. (FB2, p.4)

This view is subjectively centred on the facilitator's perception of the adult learners: if he or she has a wrong perception of the adult learners, then the selected pedagogical strategy may not produce the desired learning goals. In addition, using adult learners' levels of formal education to determine pedagogical strategies may not be ideal and applicable to all adult learning situations. Ideally, all adult learning programmes should be driven by the learning goals and needs of the adult learners, and not so much by their socioeconomic status. In fact, if the selection and grouping of the adult learners on the basis of previous education experience is not done carefully, they may feel left out and may even withdraw before attending any lesson.

Furthermore, most facilitators made their pedagogical decisions based on how best a particular pedagogical strategy would facilitate their teaching. In addition, some facilitators were more concerned with using pedagogical strategies that they were familiar with and they were not interested in experimenting with other pedagogical strategies. Below are the views of the facilitators:

It is basically a personal decision to choose a teaching strategy, though for some methods, sometimes I refer to the guide, if the guide is not helpful I have to decide.

But I can say I make personal decisions on the teaching strategies to use. (FA1, p.18)

Some learners cannot even try to read and write, so I have to use common sense in choosing the appropriate method for these learners. (FA4, p.4)

to be honest the choice of teaching strategy to use is often influenced by both my common sense and the preference for the strategy. There is nothing to argue about this issue because not everyone has the teaching material to guide us on what methods to use. (FA5, p.5)

The use of common sense in determining the choice of pedagogy is a strategy which is not easy to validate. Although this approach could have been useful for some facilitators, it is not possible to claim that common sense is relevant all the time: it is not objective, and it is informed by subjective assumptions or beliefs about a phenomenon – adult learners in this case. Therefore, these facilitators were subconsciously influenced by their perceptions of how the teaching of adults should be organised and conducted.

Additionally, participant FA5 raised an important point in that the lack of teaching-learning material was responsible for his dependence on common sense in determining pedagogy. However, the lack of teaching-learning material was not the only reason for the one-dimensional pedagogical methods that were used by the facilitators: knowledge gaps on pedagogies was another reason.

2) Professional determinant of pedagogy

Although the previous training of the facilitators influenced their choice of pedagogy, it was not the case for every facilitator. There were instances where facilitators including CDA 4A, FA8, FB3 and FA7 could not remember the underlying assumptions of the pedagogical methods that they used. Therefore, they had to use a form of “common sense” which involved drawing on how they had been taught when they were either in college or high school as evidenced by the views of participant FA6:

The choice of teaching method depends on one's previous experiences of secondary school education and possibly their participation in literacy learning classes. (p.4)

Similarly, FB3 said:

How I was taught in school that is how I learned to teach. But I also decide if it is a good method I follow it if it is a bad method I leave it. Most of it I teach how I was taught from both primary and secondary schools. And I have seen it work well. (p.3)

In addition, FA7 indicated that his choice of pedagogy was limited to lecture pedagogy because that was the only strategy which he knew through previous experiences of secondary education and by participating in adult literacy classes as an adult learner (p.1). The findings revealed no difference in how the trained and untrained adult literacy facilitators determined pedagogy. Trained facilitators' determination of pedagogy was influenced by how they had been taught, as opposed to the training that they had received in adult learning pedagogy. The implication of this is that the way in which the facilitators were taught at school or college had a more lasting influence than the pedagogical practices that they were taught during their pedagogical training.

Nonetheless, managers including DCDO, CDA 1A, B1A and B2A, and facilitators FA6, FA7 and FB3, whose pedagogy was influenced by their professional training, pointed out that their pedagogical determinants were informed by their knowledge of the usefulness of a particular strategy in facilitating a better understanding of a lesson by their adult learners. They indicated that sometimes the topic influenced the choice of pedagogical strategy. In addition, adult learners had different learning goals, which in certain instances influenced how the lesson was delivered. This practice points to the prescriptive determinant of pedagogy.

3) Prescriptive determinant of pedagogy

In this study, the prescriptive determinant embraced both personal and professional determinants. It refers to pedagogical strategies that are prescribed in recommended or prescribed teaching-learning material, which may restrict the facilitator's choice of pedagogies. There are two factors which influence the choice of pedagogy under the prescriptive determinant. The first is the adult learner's choice of pedagogy. However, it is only during authentic participatory learning that adult learners may influence pedagogy. In this study, the facilitators indicated that some of the pedagogical strategies that they used were suggested by the adult learners themselves. For example, facilitator FA2 said:

Sometimes I am made to teach based on the choice of the learners. They demand to be taught like children in school, especially for those who have never experienced primary schooling. (p.4)

To substantiate the foregoing, the views from learners (FGD2) in the LLP-A confirmed the pedagogical preference of the adult learners as indicated in the statement below:

The method of teaching we appreciate is where the teacher writes on the board and allow us to write in our books. That is what we need at least it helps us to learn faster because we are able to revise on our own. So when the teachers write on

the board we can be asked to read the word and write it so that we don't forget. So when we meet next, we should be asked to close our books and everyone should say a word out of what was taught in the previous meeting. (FGD2, p.4)

The learning environment as described above may compel the facilitator to teach based on the preference of the adult learners. However, it is possible for the facilitator to explain his pedagogical approach to the learners in addressing their demands without making them feel disappointed or offended. While doing this the facilitator can still maintain a cordial facilitator-adult learner relationship. What matters in all this is that the professional conduct of the adult educator is revealed not so much by academic training, but through experience of working with the adult learners.

The second factor under the prescriptive determinant of pedagogy was derived from the teaching-learning material which was the adult learner's handbook or instructor's guide. This is prescriptive because the vaguely stated pedagogical strategies in the teaching-learning material for both programmes did not provide clear guidelines to help facilitators make informed pedagogical choices. The facilitators implemented the prescribed pedagogies as best they could, as they appeared in the teaching-learning material. To confirm this, FA3 stated:

"on the teaching methods, we just follow the syllabus because the methods are provided to follow them exactly and step-by-step". (p.8)

First, I have to look at the material that I am going to teach from. Then from there, I decide the best method to use. (B1, p.3)

Although these views indicate that the facilitators were to a limited degree able to follow the pedagogical guidelines in the teaching guides and that relying on experience and using textbook-based pedagogy could have a positive influence on the teaching of literacy skills, the facilitators in both programmes did not apply best pedagogical practices as they reverted back to how they had been taught at school or college. i.e. expository pedagogy.

5.5.3.2 Documents

The findings from the teaching-learning materials indicate a lack of clear instructions on what facilitators should consider when selecting a particular pedagogical strategy. I observed that the teaching-learning materials, including the Instructor's Guide and the Adult Learner's Handbook, compelled the facilitators to do exactly what was indicated in these documents. They contained suggested pedagogical strategies (though not stated categorically) that were

included under the wrong assumption that they were applicable to any given rural environment in Zambia. Therefore, the teaching-learning materials that were used in adult literacy classes in the LLP-A and LLP-B were not helpful in providing clear guidance on determining pedagogies, especially in situated contexts.

5.5.3.3 Summary of sub-theme 2.3: Determinants of pedagogical strategies

This sub-theme revealed that the determinants of pedagogical strategies in adult literacy classes in both programmes were *Personal*, *Professional* and *Prescriptive*. The personal determinant consists of: (1) the facilitator's perception or opinion of the adult learners; (2) the degree to which the facilitator is conversant with the use of a particular pedagogical strategy; (3) the ability to remember the adult learning pedagogy; and (4), his or her previous pedagogy and learning experiences. The professional determinant relates to the nature and type of training the facilitator received. The prescriptive determinant is based on two aspects: (1) the pedagogical preference of the adult learners; and (2), the pedagogical strategies that were prescribed by the teaching-learning materials which were used in adult literacy classes in the research sites. This means that each facilitator could decide on the pedagogical methods to use in the classroom based on a combination of determinants. However, it emerged that the facilitators largely depended on common sense which falls under the personal determinant of pedagogy. In addition, they also drew on their knowledge of the adult learning principles which is presented in the following section.

5.5.4 Sub-theme 2.4: Knowledge of adult learning principles

This sub-theme relates to the second research question of this study, in which it was necessary to establish the relevance of pedagogical practices used in adult literacy classes. The findings of this sub-theme were based on the views of the facilitators and the adult learners from both the LLP-A and the LLP-B.

5.5.4.1 Face-to-face interviews with the facilitators

During the interviews with the facilitators, the following adult learning principles emerged:

- a) adult learning should be based on treating adult learners with respect;
- b) the facilitator should be patient when teaching learners;
- c) the facilitator should recognise and use the learners' wealth of life experience, and recognise their status in the community or society;
- d) the facilitator should exercise limited or no control over the learners; and
- e) learning should be participatory.

The above are not the only principles of adult learning. However, the reference to these principles by the facilitators indicates that the facilitators in both the LLP-A and LLP-B were aware of some of the basic principles of adult literacy learning.

According to the facilitators:

The facilitator should take interest in knowing each learner if possible because adult learners have different learning challenges. (FA1, p.5)

Adult learners should be taught in such a way that they also participate in the learning process. (FA2, p.4)

What I know is that adults should not be rushed when teaching them, I need to be patient with them. (FB1, p.5)

Adults should be respected in every way, their dressing and the way they speak. We should also remember that they have their own personal life experiences. (FB3, p.2)

This awareness should translate into learner-centred pedagogical practices, particularly in class. Nonetheless, these principles that were identified by the facilitators were not applied as witnessed by me in the classroom. Apart from this, I think that the application of some of these principles, for instance taking into account the life experiences of the adult learners, depends on how valuable the experiences might be to facilitating new learning because some life experiences can be quite traumatic for the adult learners to draw on.

Therefore, the facilitator should have considerable knowledge of his or her adult learners to find the best way of providing support for their learning, and more importantly, to make informed decisions about which pedagogical strategies to use. To confirm this, participant FB1 said that adult learning was premised on active involvement in the exchange of information among the adult learners and the facilitator. Here are some of the views of the facilitators:

When teaching adults, the lesson should be short and that it should be relevant to their aspirations. (FA4, p.3)

...adults cannot be handled harshly if you shout at them they will not show up in the next class. So when teaching adults, they should be handled carefully and with respect. As you show them respect you will see them become consistent in attending lessons. If you treat one like that you will see that in the next meeting he or she will come with a friend. (FB1, p.4)

When I am teaching, I don't tell them harshly that you are wrong here, because if I do that then tomorrow they will not show up. Because I am interested in every

learner to learn, I speak to them in a way which is not demeaning to them. So when they have gotten the answer wrong, I tell them that here you can do it like this, but I never say that you are wrong. In other words, I teach them very patiently considering that they are adults. (FB3, pp.2-3)

A short and precise lesson and treating adult learners in a friendly manner are some of the important principles of adult learning (Caruth, 2014). Apart from the information shared by the facilitators, it emerged that the adult learners were also aware of how they should be treated by their facilitators. The details are presented in the next section.

5.5.4.2 Focus group discussions with the adult learners

The focus group discussions revealed that the adult learners in the LLP-A and the LLP-B were aware of how they should be treated by their facilitators. This was despite being considered as illiterates and ignorant by their facilitators. The adult learners indicated that they should be treated with respect as adults and that the facilitators should exercise patience when teaching them because some of them experienced learning challenges. The adult learners indicated that they were different than children. For example, one female adult learner told me that she was aware that the facilitator had the right to exercise some control over them, but the control should not be excessive because they knew how to behave like adults. Below are some of the views of the adult learners:

As adults we are supposed to be taught at our level, to be taken patiently and step by step. Although school going children are also handled patiently and step by step, the pace is a bit faster than for us adults. So for adults, we need to be taken step by step and slow as some of us have physical impairments like sight and hearing. (FGD A3, p.3)

What we learn today, even tomorrow should be repeated before moving to another lesson. Because although we can be taught something same day and understand it, it is only those who are a bit more intelligent than us who can remember. (FGD A5, p.4)

...adults, we differ from children, there is no late coming with adult learning. Therefore, we should not be embarrassed when we come late for class asking us to apologise publicly, although this does not mean that we should come late deliberately. We need to be talked to nicely, even when we make a mistake we need to be corrected with respect. (FGD B2, p.4)

An adult should be exemplary all by oneself, no one should tell him how to behave or conduct himself. One should know that he is an adult and should not be told to stop making noise because it cannot look good at all. An adult should conduct himself well, that is the difference between adults and children. (FGD B1, p.4)

The adult learners' knowledge of how they should be treated in class is both an advantage and disadvantage to the facilitator. For example, it should be an advantage because the facilitator should have fewer difficulties in creating a conducive adult learning environment, as many adult learners stay focused on relevant tasks. The adult learners' awareness of their responsibilities and needs in class can assist the facilitator to engage them in more meaningful learning activities that are directed at meeting their learning goals. Therefore, when the adult learners' knowledge of the adult learning principles is acknowledged by the facilitator it can help the learners to attain self-improvement and learning satisfaction.

Conversely, it can be a disadvantage because not all adult learners acknowledge these principles. As a result, this may cause problems for the facilitator because some adult learners can misinterpret their limited knowledge of the adult learning principles. For example, in one class that was observed, adult learners were offended when the facilitator gave a simple example to help them understand the lesson. The facilitator was professional and did not antagonise the adult learners. However, most of the adult learners in this class took it personally and they told me that they felt disrespected as the facilitator had been condescending. One of the adult learners said that "we know how we should be treated, we are not like children who should be talked down to in a disrespectful manner" (FGD B2, p.3). In this situation, the facilitator is compelled to be sensitive and careful of what he says and does, because he or she has no control over how the adult learners might react.

5.5.4.3 Summary of sub-theme 2.4: knowledge of adult learning principles

It was found that both the facilitators and adult learners held some knowledge of the adult learning principles. It emerged that the facilitators were aware that the adult learners should be treated with respect and patience and that reference should be made to their life experiences in class. They also agreed that the adult learners should regularly be engaged in participatory learning. Similarly, the adult learners understood of how they should be treated when they were in class. They indicated that they were not supposed to be treated like children, but with respect, while they exercised self-control as was expected of every adult in their situated local communities. Nevertheless, notwithstanding the facilitators' knowledge of adult learning principles, the findings of the study indicated that these principles did not inform the facilitators' pedagogical practices in the classroom: there was no significant difference between the two programmes on pedagogical strategies used as expository and evaluatory pedagogies were preferred in both the LLP-A and the LLP-B.

5.6 Theme 3: Pedagogical resources

This theme relates to the second secondary research question of this study. Under this theme, there are two sub-themes which are: the teaching aids used in adult literacy classes, and the teaching-learning materials. The data on this theme emerged from the face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, documents and class observations.

5.6.1 Sub-theme 3.1: Teaching aids used in adult literacy classes

This sub-theme presents the findings on the teaching aids used in adult literacy classes of both the LLP-A and the LLP-B. The findings revealed that chalk and chalkboard were the commonly used teaching aids in both programmes.

5.6.1.1 Face-to-face interviews with the managers

The face-to-face interviews with the managers of the ALLP in both programmes revealed that the teaching aids that were used included chalkboard and chalk and rarely locally available materials such as the wall of a house or any building which could provide a writing surface. When chalk was not available the facilitators used local materials, for instance pieces of cassava or charcoal. The DCDO from the LLP-A said:

We also use initiative on things like chalk and the board. In places where such things are not available, we encourage the instructors to use cassava or charcoal. They can also use a sizeable piece of the iron sheet as a board or better still the wall of a building. (DCDO, p.8)

The interviews with the managers CDA 1A, 2A, 3A, 4A, and B1A revealed that the only teaching aids that were used in classes were chalk and chalkboard. These managers indicated that most of the teaching aids were in short supply. For example, when a facilitator had a board then he or she would be lacking chalk, and the opposite was also the case. This situation negatively affected their literacy provision. In addition, the facilitators expressed their views and concerns regarding the teaching aids in adult literacy classes as are discussed in the following interviews.

5.6.1.2 Face-to-face interviews with the facilitators

Similarly, the interviews with the facilitators in both programmes revealed a dominant use of chalk and chalkboard. However, most of the time these materials were in short supply, in particular chalk:

The chalk I use to write on this wall (used as a board) I normally ask from the primary school which is down there. The only challenge I have is that I do not have a board that is why I use this wall, but when the weather is not ok I cannot teach here in an open place. (FA2, p.5)

I use this classroom and teach from this very board you can see. As it is, it requires some painting because when I want to write I have to wet the chalk so that the writings can be clear for the learners. (FA7, p.3)

The foregoing views were also shared by FA1, FA3, FA4, FA5, FA8, FB1, FB2 and FB3. The facilitators indicated that the limited supply of teaching aids had a negative effect on their work. For some facilitators, their motivation to continue participating in adult literacy classes was diminishing because of this lack. Consequently, this may lead to withdrawals from the programme and ultimately closure of adult literacy classes in the affected areas. The supply of teaching aids for adult literacy learning does not only facilitate teaching, but it also motivates the facilitators. They indicated that the availability of the required teaching aids boosted their morale to teach because these aids facilitated their teaching. In supplementing these views, the adult learners shared the facilitators' views.

5.6.1.3 Focus group discussions with the adult learners

The findings from the focus group discussions with the adult learners confirmed that the teaching aids used in both LLP-A and LLP-B included chalk and chalkboard, as well as whiteboard markers and flipcharts. During FGD A1, the adult learners indicated that most of the time their facilitators lacked chalk and other materials, which made conducting classes difficult:

When our teacher has no chalk, it means that classes will not take place, until such a time when we have chalk. Another participant added that even if we have a chalkboard it is not big enough to write a lot of things on it, even for us to see clearly. (FDG A1, p.2)

Regardless of the above, the adult learners expressed satisfaction with the way they were taught. They indicated that despite the challenges, they were committed and determined to continue with the classes. One adult learner from the LLP-A, said: "often times we depend on World Vision to assist us with flipcharts, that is what the teacher uses. And when these papers finish (flipcharts), it means that there will be no classes" (FGD A2, p.2). According to the adult learners in FGD A5, a chalkboard was never used in their classes. They shared that they had been learning in the open where the facilitator taught from a primary school book, while they wrote on the ground. The classes were conducted where the ground is sandy to facilitate

writing. The participants indicated that it was a better option than not having any literacy classes at all. This is an indication of the determination of the adult learners to meet their learning goals.

The chalkboard is the most available teaching aid (Rogers, 2010), and this could be one of the reasons why the facilitators preferred it. However, its uncreative use makes teaching and learning more formal and teacher-centred rather than learner-centred. Furthermore, the views of the managers, facilitators and adult learners were substantiated by the information obtained from the documents that were used in adult literacy classes.

5.6.1.4 Documents

Document analysis was another source of data on the teaching aids that were used in adult literacy classes. The analysis focused on what the documents stated about the use of teaching aids in adult literacy classes. As indicated earlier, all the documents analysed in this study were accessed from the LLP-A, which included the Instructor's Guide, Adult Functional Literacy Syllabus, Learner's Handbook and a primer on Growing More Groundnuts. During the analysis, I found that these documents contained topics on both literacy and agricultural entrepreneurship. For purposes of this study, I limited my analysis to teaching aids on literacy topics.

The Instructor's Guide comprised of eight topics: civic education, management skills, entrepreneurship, technology, health and environmental education, numeracy, literacy and language, and other income generating activities. Under each of these topics general and specific teaching aids were listed which included pictures, chalk, board, duster, board markers and flipcharts, cash books, ledgers, bank statements, receipt books, cellphones, hammer mills, grinding machines and sewing machines. The topic of literacy and language suggested no teaching aids, despite the heading "teaching/learning aids" (Department of Community Development, 2014: 74). For the topic on numeracy and mathematics, the Instructor's Guide recorded that the suggested teaching aids were classroom objects which included desks, pencils, books, stones, nearby trees, the toes, the eyes and the ears of learners, as well as sticks (Doc A1, p.14).

Therefore, the recommended teaching aids on the topic of numeracy contained in the Instructor's Guide were limited in meeting the specific learning goals of the adult learners. They appeared more relevant to teaching numeracy to children than to adults. On the other hand, although the Adult Functional Literacy Syllabus contained topics on literacy, specifically

reading and writing, computer literacy and Zambian languages, it did not say anything about the teaching aids which should be used when teaching these literacies. With regard to the Adult Learner's Handbook, the topic on literacy was based on reading and writing. This topic was activity based as each activity was centred on a particular real-life item that was presented in pictures throughout the topic. These items included a television set, radio cassette, ballot paper, poster, a post office, compass and traffic lights.

However, the document did not specify how these items should be used. Instead, they were presented as different learning activities for a given lesson. There was no indication in the Adult Learner's Handbook that these were the teaching aids which should be used. Based on my field experience of interviewing and observing the facilitators in their classrooms, I noticed that the majority of facilitators were unable to distinguish between the teaching-learning materials and aids, and the teaching methods.

5.6.1.5 Class observations

I was able to confirm which teaching aids were used in the adult literacy classes of both LLPs through class observations. I found that the only teaching aids that were used by the literacy-learning facilitators were chalk, chalkboard, whiteboard markers and flipcharts. Whiteboard markers and flipcharts were used at only one literacy-learning centre in the LLP-A as it did not have chalk or chalkboards. These teaching aids were supplied by World Vision at the time of the study. This is a non-governmental organisation which was implementing a project on food security in the area and had incorporated literacy-learning interventions for the participants. During the face-to-face interviews, the managers and the facilitators mentioned the use of pictures, slates and board rulers: however, I did not observe any of these teaching aids during class observations.

During the follow-up observations, I noticed that the facilitators used the same teaching aids, which primarily included chalk and chalkboard because these were the only ones available. Therefore, the class observations were helpful to validate the information that was shared during the face-to-face interviews. I found that not all the teaching aids that the facilitators had mentioned, were used in class.

5.6.1.6 Summary of sub-theme 3.1: Teaching aids used in adult literacy classes

It was found that the teaching aids that were used in both the LLPs were limited to chalkboard, chalk (sometimes facilitators used pieces of cassava when chalk was not available), flipcharts

and whiteboard markers. However, the most common teaching aids were chalk and chalkboard because compared to other teaching aids, these were more readily available. The use of different teaching aids facilitates alternative learning approaches, for instance participatory and discovery learning, in adult literacy classes. The lack of a variety of teaching aids in the two programmes contributed to the fact that learner-centred approaches were not used in the classroom. Teaching-learning material was also used in the adult literacy classes, which is the main focus of the next sub-theme.

5.6.2 Sub-theme 3.2: Teaching-learning materials

This sub-theme presents the findings of the study on the teaching-learning materials that were used in the adult literacy classes of both programmes. The findings revealed that the teaching-learning materials that were used included the Adult Literacy Functional Syllabus, the Instructor's Guide, the Adult Learner's Handbook, and the primers. The details are presented in the following interviews, documents and class observations.

5.6.2.1 Face-to-face interviews with the managers

The managers indicated that this was the only area in which minimal progress had been made to support the ALLP. In particular, the managers from the LLP-A indicated that in 2015 they had been provided with updated teaching-learning materials (the Adult Literacy Functional Syllabus, Instructor's Guide and the Adult Learner's Handbook) which helped facilitators in the classroom. However, they complained that there were not sufficient teaching-learning materials for all the adult literacy-learning centres. They described the Instructor's Guide as difficult to use because it was written in English and the language used in the research sites included Cinyanja or Cewa. Furthermore, they indicated that some of the topics included in the Instructor's Guide, like computer literacy, were not relevant to the district because it did not address the immediate learning needs of the adult learners; moreover, many areas in the district lacked electricity and appropriate infrastructure for computers. During the interviews, the managers insisted on sharing the challenges that were encountered by their facilitators regarding the use of the teaching-learning materials. They indicated that although it was gratifying to be provided with the teaching-learning material, the facilitators faced challenges with its implementation.

For example, DCDO said that:

There is a problem with the actual teaching-learning material as well. Even if the new syllabus on literacy stresses so much on issues that affect people on a daily basis such as civic education and technology, health and environment,

entrepreneurship and management, it becomes difficult to implement because the materials are not enough for all the centres. The other problem is that while we appreciate the effort made to provide these materials, the instructors should have been trained on how to use the materials. As I am speaking most of them are not able to use the teaching material properly. (p.15)

In addition, CDA 3A stated:

Teaching materials are not enough for every sub-centre especially the new materials. In many centres, we are still using the outdated material because I can tell you that we are still teaching the same things for over ten years... so a person who learned these things ten years ago would be surprised to find that the content has not changed. (p.2)

The facilitators found it challenging to use the teaching-learning materials effectively. The managers indicated that there was nothing that they could do to address this situation. They complained that the department responsible for training facilitators had not addressed the problem. However, I observed that some of the managers rarely visited the sub-centres. To confirm this, during my member-checking the acting DCDO told me that she had never visited the sub-centres for four years. She depended on the information that was provided by the officers who were in charge of the literacy-learning centres. This practice is harmful to the success of adult literacy classes in these centres because the facilitators indicated that they feel cared for and motivated to work when they are frequently visited by their supervisors.

Furthermore, CDA 2A indicated that the topic of literacy and language in the Instructor's Guide (74) was not easy to follow. She said that although the document had clearly outlined the learning activities, there were no clear examples and pictures to guide her through the teaching process. For this reason, she preferred to use primary school books on language literacy. According to CDA 2A, the school books were much easier to use than the Instructor's Guide. She contended that the adult learners enjoyed using these books:

What they learn in literacy and language comes from primary school books prepared by the ministry of education. They learn the same things children learn from grade 1 up to grade 7. These books are simple, even the learners like them. But for things like grow groundnuts, numbers, and entrepreneurship we get guidance from the Instructor's Guide, learner's book and the primer. (CDA 2A, p.5)

My concern with using primary school books is that they are irrelevant in helping the adult learners to attain their context-based learning goals. The content does not help the adult learners to learn the literacies that they need in their real-life contexts. Secondly, the claim by participant CDA 2A that the adult learners liked the teaching material that she used, was not

objective. In the adult literacy classes I visited, I found that the facilitators were viewed as superior to the adult learners, as is the case in most conversational learning contexts (Merriam et al, 2012; Knowles, 1970). Therefore, it is not precise to claim that the adult learners liked the primary school books because in practice the adult learners did not have a choice in deciding on the learning content, the teaching-learning material and the pedagogical strategies. All decisions regarding the foregoing were made by the facilitators.

Furthermore, participant CDA 4A explained that although they were provided with the teaching material, she decided to use other materials to supplement the content of the topic on literacy. She explained that it became monotonous to teach the same topics from the Instructor's Guide:

I do appreciate that they give us teaching guides, but the topics for this village are based on what the people like here. So if we teach something which is not here, then our learners will not learn well. Sometimes I ask them the things they would want to learn. They explain to me because they have those things. So I equally learn from using what they have and know what they wish to learn. Things like growing more ground nuts, maize, and sun flower. So I ask them questions how they go about all these things before I teach. Sometimes I divert from the Instructor's Guide to make them learn other things rather than learning the same things all the time. They have to learn a lot of things so that they are aware of what is happening around them. (CDA 4A, p.5)

This manager did not contextualise learning materials during the lesson that I observed. She suggested that the teaching-learning materials were not adequate to meet the learning needs of her learners. To bridge this gap, she indicated that she used her initiative to look for more relevant topics, in various materials, which her adult learners should learn. Although she indicated that she "sometimes" involved the adult learners in deciding what they would wish to learn, she did not do this in practice. Nonetheless, I do agree with her position that the teaching materials were too limited in content and more importantly, limited in addressing the learning goals of the adult learners.

5.6.2.2 Face-to-face interviews with the facilitators

In both programmes LLP-A and LLP-B, the facilitators indicated that they used the teaching-learning material that was provided by the Department of Community Development. However, they found the instructions in these documents challenging to follow. This was true especially for the facilitators who used the updated teaching-learning materials. As an alternative, they used teaching-learning material which was considerably easier to understand and to use and which was more readily available in their classrooms. The following are their views:

I am forced to use primary school learners' books as teaching and learning material for adult learners because I do not have enough teaching material. I have one syllabus and learners book provided by MCDSW against nine literacy classes. (FA1, p.2)

I use primary school books grade 1 and grade 2 because I have two classes, English 1 and English 2. English 1 is comprised of learners who have completely no idea about the English language, whereas English 2 they have some background in English. (FB2, p.4)

With me, I use the English dictionary, pamphlets and Christian magazines by the Jehovah's Witness because they have very nice biblical stories which go very well in helping the adult learners to understand. (FB3, p.2)

Again, these views were not reflected in the facilitators' classroom practice. Similarly, FA3, FA4, and FA8 said that they were compelled to use primary school-based literacy books for English and Cinyanja because the syllabus on adult functional literacy in the Instructor's Guide was not adequate. They stated that there were many other skills that the adult learners needed to acquire, but the content was limited to teaching reading, writing and numeracy. To further justify the perceived inadequacy of the Instructor's Guide in meeting the learning needs of the adult learners, participant FA3 claimed that her adult learners' real-life problems could not be resolved by merely teaching them how to read, write and count. She had to teach skills which were directly related to their problems. This would mean teaching them literacy practices which should improve their communication and decision-making skills. Nonetheless, none of these views were practiced in class.

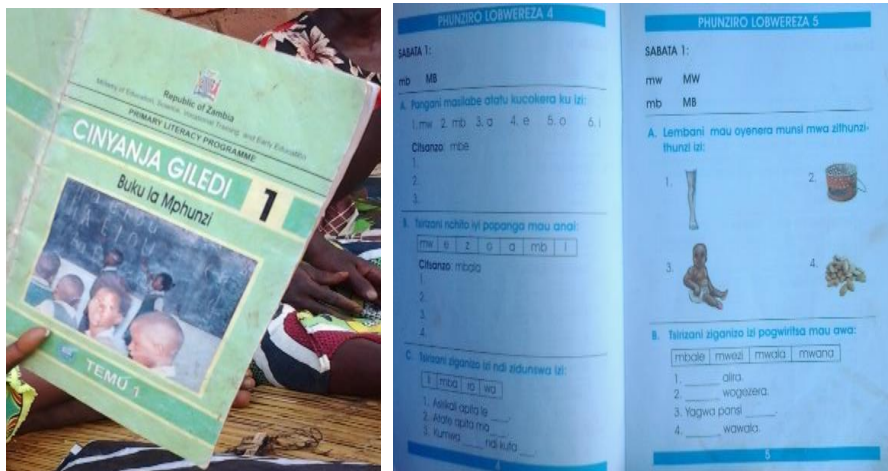
A further analysis of the foregoing concern by the facilitators revealed that the unit on literacy and language in the Instructor's Guide had four topics. The first topic was based on teaching adult learners to identify the front and back of a book, to form and read syllables and to create new words from the family of syllables. The second topic was based on storytelling in relation to civic education, maternal health, population, gender and the environment. The third topic was based on reading and writing, and the fourth topic included using literacy to communicate. In my view, although this document was not adequate in addressing all the learning goals of the adult learners, its content could still be used to teach the adult learners to develop their everyday literacy practices. In the listed activities, the participants lived experiences were emphasised (Department of Community Development, 2014:74-78) which could be creatively used by the facilitators to address many of the participants' personal everyday challenges. The challenge, in this case, was the absence of adequate training to help the facilitators

interpret and apply the teaching-learning material more effectively in their classrooms, and not their claim of inadequate content for literacy pedagogy.

5.6.2.3 Class observations

Class observations confirmed that apart from the recommended teaching-learning materials that were provided by the Department of Community Development, the facilitators used primary school literacy material as shown in figure 5.9 below.

Figure 5. 9: Primary school literacy book



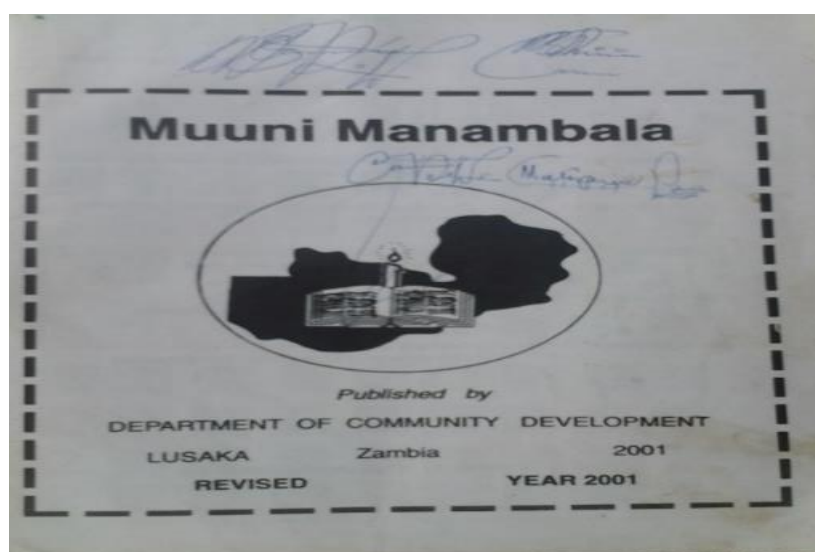
During the class observations, which involved FA8 in the LLP-A, I observed that the facilitator only used the teaching material in figure 5.9 above to teach literacy to adults. This book was published in 1996 by the Zambian Ministry of Education. It is based on Cinyanja language literacy for primary school, grade 1. During my follow-up interview with this facilitator, she told me that the centre had no other teaching-learning materials, and for her to keep the LLP active at this centre, she had to look for alternative teaching-learning materials. She indicated that this material was not suitable for meeting the learning goals of her adult learners, but this was the only available option to keep the class active.

In my view, the use of learning material is depended on the purpose of the LLP. If the purpose was to teach school-based literacies at the elementary level, then this teaching-learning material should be suitable. However, if the purpose was to help the adult learners improve their everyday literacy practices, which I believe should be the focus of both the LLP-A and LLP-B, this teaching-learning material was not suitable. Adult literacy learning requires the use of teaching-learning materials that are generated from within the real-life contexts of the adult

learners. Teaching-learning materials which are familiar to the adult learners is critical for meeting their learning goals.

Similarly, the class observations, which involved FA2 in the LLP-A, revealed the lack of suitable teaching-learning materials. The facilitator at this centre only used the material that is shown in figure 5.10 below. When translated into English, this material is entitled 'numeracy for night school'. It was published in 2001 by the Department of Community Development.

Figure 5. 10: Teaching-learning material on numeracy



This material included numeracy for adult learners. It appeared relevant and suitable for teaching adults who wished to learn numeracy because it included real-life applications. However, the full relevance of this material lies in the proper utilisation by the facilitator to ensure that the learners are taught not only what is contained in this book but also how they can use this knowledge and skills in real life. Based on my analysis, a properly trained adult literacy-learning facilitator should be able to use this document. However, because of the lack of training of the facilitators this was not the case in the LLP-A.

The lack of appropriate teaching-learning material was also observed in the adult literacy classes of the LLP-B. For example, in an effort to use initiative participant FB1 used teaching-learning material which she did not fully understand, as presented in figure 5.11 below.

Figure 5. 11: Literacy-learning material used to teach the English language



This book was written both in English and German and was published in 1975. When I asked participant FB1 to explain how she used this material, she told me that she concentrated only on content written in English and left out the content written in German.

She further explained that:

The reason I am using this material is that I do not have suitable teaching-learning material for these adult learners. So I have to use my initiative to find material which I can use to help my learners. (FB1, p.3)

While initiative should be encouraged, the use of material which is written in an unfamiliar language to both the facilitator and the adult learners is unacceptable. It was indicated earlier that Tikondane had two literacy learning programmes, school-based and non-school-based. Therefore, I expected this facilitator to use one of the school-based literacy books. However, in her defense, she emphasised that the school-based literacy books were not relevant to her adult learners as the content was divorced from their real-life contexts. Furthermore, Tikondane had a small library that contained different primary school books and adult literature as shown in figure 5.12 below.

Figure 5.12: Books on adult literature at Tikondane library



I could not access any of the material from this library because the librarian had misplaced the keys to these shelves. I observed that all these books were written in English. They covered relevant subject areas on English literature, natural science, cookery, needle work, health and farming but could not be used by the facilitators. The directors of Tikondane indicated that there was a handout on adult literacy learning that was, however, also not made available to the facilitators. The managers of LLP-B had resources that could be used for teaching adult literacy, but did not make it available to their facilitators.

5.6.2.4 Summary of sub-theme 3.2: Teaching-learning materials

This sub-theme presented the teaching-learning material that was used in adult literacy classes of both the LLP-A, and the LLP-B. It was established that despite being provided with updated teaching-learning materials which included the Adult Functional Literacy Syllabus, the Instructor's Guide, the Adult Learner's Handbook and the primer, the facilitators chose to use other teaching materials, in particular, primary school literacy-based material, which they claimed was more user-friendly than the materials provided by the Department of Community Development. This finding has three possible interpretations: (1) the facilitators may have genuinely lacked the knowledge of using the teaching-learning material; (2) the material might have been too technical and difficult for the facilitators to follow; and (3), the content was not

relevant to the adult learners and their respective contexts which were small-scale rural agriculture.

The lack of pedagogical knowledge on how to use the teaching-learning material was more apparent among the facilitators. The absence of updated teaching-learning material in some literacy-learning centres had been highlighted. During lesson observations, I found that not all facilitators used the teaching-learning materials that were provided by the Department of Community Development. I noticed that the further the centre was from the district office of the Department of Community Development, the more unlikely it was for the centre to have the relevant teaching-learning materials.

5.7 Theme 4: Participation in adult literacy classes

This theme corresponds to the second research question of this study. The theme is based on the different reasons that were shared by the managers, facilitators and the adult learners for participating in adult literacy classes. The findings indicate that the managers and the facilitators felt socially obliged to help their adult learners to learn how to read and write, hence their participation. The adult learners were convinced that they were illiterate and ignorant. Therefore, they needed to attend adult literacy classes in order to eliminate illiteracy and ignorance. The details of this theme are discussed under two sub-themes which are: Experiences and role of participating in adult literacy classes, and the adult learners' reasons for joining the adult literacy classes.

5.7.1 Subtheme 4.1: Experiences and role of participating in adult literacy classes

This sub-theme presents the findings which emerged from the face-to-face interviews with the managers and facilitators of the LLP-A and LLP-B on their experiences and roles in adult literacy classes.

5.7.1.1 Face-to-face interviews with the managers

The interviews with the managers revealed that their experiences were characterised by both an ambivalent sense of joy and discouragement. They had a sense of joy for the reason that they were improving the lives of the people in their communities. On the other hand, they felt discouraged because their efforts were not adequately supported by the main providers of literacy-learning programmes. This points to the challenges alluded to earlier in the previous sub-theme.

The managers' sense of joy was informed by their conviction that they had a social obligation to help others to learn how to read and write. They explained that as members of the same community, they lived as one big family. Therefore, just as they shared several material possessions with the community, they found it morally justifiable to share their knowledge of reading and writing:

My personal experiences are that we live in this community where many people do not know how to read and write. I feel that it is a responsibility of everyone to help one another, not only in other things but in reading and writing as well. So we are trying our best to help each other with the limited resources available. I wish we can do more to help the people in these communities. (CDA 1A. p.5)

In addition, DCDO said:

We have to help the community by teaching those who do not know how to read and write. I have witnessed many cases of people who have improved their literacy by attending these classes. We have had people that improved to read, and write, and do simple arithmetic. On the basis of this, they have been able to proceed to formal education. (pp.1-2)

Another view was that:

We are making a difference in this community. We have six literacy classes and have been here for four years. We are getting rid of ignorance in this community. In fact, the learners have been helped in different ways because when we started, the learners were not able to write anything, but now they are able to sign, read and write, even to read the bible. They have been assisted in so many ways. (CDA 2A, p.5)

If social obligation was one of their motivations for participation in adult literacy, then it should be accompanied by commitment, passion and enthusiasm in their practice. However, in practice they took a laid-back approach and left much of the work to the facilitators who were mostly volunteers. From my observation, these managers appeared demotivated and discouraged by the conditions under which they had to provide the literacy-learning programmes.

The findings from the LLP-B disclosed that although the participants were driven by the sense of responsibility to help the community, their experiences were shaped by the challenges that were faced by the community. According to manager B1A, Tikondane started literacy classes to help their community to learn how to read and write, and since then the organisation had

witnessed many positive changes in the lives of the people. Some learners learned how to read and write, and others found employment.

The literacy classes have helped them to improve themselves. Others have improved on their reading and writing. They can read bibles in church and other literature on their own. Some have even acquired some jobs at the hospital and the lodge through which they are earning a living. (B1A, p.6)

In addition, manager B2A said:

You bring to my memory of how challenged the people are to learn reading and writing...how all this started is that I worked as a nurse trainer at St Francis mission hospital and in the first week, it turned out that the electrician could not read and write. Now I thought that was a problem, so they were at the time adult educators in Katete so it was quite easy to say shouldn't we have classes and we got one librarian. I remember he became the teacher and so it started. And when the hospital got worried about the villagers turning up and saying this is only for staff that is when Tikondane was founded. But then really a friend a good lady friend said to me look we do not need literacy in the village, moreover do they even know what it is to them, they do not know what reading and writing are for. Then this influenced us to start focusing on literacies for improving livelihood, in particular, helping people get skills for jobs. So we have had literacy classes all along but I no longer have an active part in that anymore. (p.4)

It is clear that this programme was primarily motivated by the desire to help members of the community to learn how to read and write. During the interviews, it appeared that this focus had shifted as the managers indicated that the focus was on the literacies that were required for preparing adult learners for employment. Nonetheless, I cannot confirm this assumption because my observations in adult literacy classes of LLP-B revealed a focus on school-based literacies.

5.7.1.2 Face-to-face interviews with the facilitators

The interviews with the facilitators revealed that they participated in adult literacy classes as either full-time or volunteer facilitators. They were motivated by their sense of responsibility to help community members who wanted to improve their reading and writing. The facilitators conceived their role as that of eliminating illiteracy in their respective communities. This is evidenced by the following views:

What I know is that these adult learners are people who do not know anything at all. And what they want is to learn how to read and write. (FA3, p.2)

I teach to reduce illiteracy among adults because people in this community do not know how to sign. (FA4, p.2)

What I know is that we help the community to know how to read and write, by that we eliminate ignorance. (FA6, p.2)

I have two classes, illiterates and the literate. I know that they have their own experiences, but we remove ignorance so that they should know something...we remove ignorance from their heads...yes so that they should know how to read and write. (FA7, p.2)

As at now, they know nothing completely, so when they know something that is when will move on to teaching them other things. I can say that these people are stagnant like water. They know nothing that is why I use things like writing in the air, on the sand and sometimes I use slates if I have them. Learners expect me to teach them how to read and write... (FA8, p.4)

The foregoing descriptions of adult learners and their interpretation of their role in adult literacy classes by the facilitators did not correlate with the adult learning principles indicated in sub-theme 2.4. This is a further indication of how limited these facilitators' understanding was of learning in general and the adult learner in the 21st century in particular. It is even more problematic for a person living in a multiliterate world to label someone as illiterate. However, their notion of the adult learner provided an important link to their interpretation of their role in adult literacy classes and ultimately how they decided to teach.

The facilitators' experiences were hinged on how challenging it was for them to teach adults. They explained that though they were not conversant with working with adults, they had acquired some experiences through the years. They shared that they had taught adult learners of different age groups and with diverse personalities. Some were easy to work with, whereas others were not.

For example, participant FB1 said:

My experience in adult literacy classes is that I meet different learners with different goals. But because I am a retired primary school teacher, I am able to use my previous experience to handle most of my learners.

Additionally, participant FB2 explained:

My experience is that learners are different and look for different things in class. Therefore, I find it easy to teach because when I start teaching most of the learners become attentive. I also have some challenges in that sometimes I have to wait

for a long period of time for the learners to show up. The reason is that when we open classes for adults it is during farming season and most of them give an excuse that they are farming and also during harvesting time. So, those are the major experiences I encounter.

The foregoing views of the facilitators indicate the effort on their part to understand their adult learners. The facilitators observed that their adult learners had different learning goals. However, these facilitators did not have the relevant training to fulfil their adult learners' needs. Therefore, teaching groups of adult learners was challenging for the facilitator who did not have knowledge of adult learning pedagogy.

5.7.1.3 Summary of sub-theme 4.1: Experiences and role of participation

This sub-theme presented the experiences and role of participation by the managers and the facilitators in adult literacy classes. Their participation was inspired by a sense of responsibility to help the adult learners in their respective communities to learn how to read and write. They indicated that their pedagogical experiences were both discouraging and encouraging. Discouraging experiences were associated with the limited supply of pedagogical resources to do their work effectively. Encouraging experiences were associated with their personal motivation to help members of their communities to learn literacies, which they primarily considered as reading and writing. The following sub-theme considers the adult learners' reasons for participating in adult literacy classes.

5.7.2 Sub-theme 4.2: Adult learners' reasons for joining literacy classes

This sub-theme is based on the reasons that were shared by the adult learners for participating in adult literacy classes. Their views are presented in the following focus group discussions.

5.7.2.1 Focus group discussions with the adult learners

During the focus group discussions, the adult learners indicated that attending adult literacy classes added value to their lives. They said that those who were not able to read and write well, and those who could not use a pencil and a book properly, had learned to do so in these classes. Some participants indicated that previously they had used to be shy, but after attending these classes, they were confident enough to talk to other people. These newly acquired literacy skills assisted them in becoming more immersed in their church activities, which played an important role in the lives of most of the participants. Additionally, they learned to read the bible that shaped the lives of many of the Katete residents. However, the majority of adult learners in both programmes indicated that they still could not read and write.

Many of us are still using a thumb to sign, but if we continue we will learn how to sign. (FGD A1, p.2)

To be honest although we have been attending these classes for close to two years, for me I am still very far from knowing how to read and write properly. Whereas others can sign, me I am still far because these classes are usually at intervals so it is very difficult for some of us to grasp what is taught. Therefore, those who are fast learners, they can say they are doing well and able to sign, but as for me I am still struggling. (FGD A3, p.3)

The above observations raise serious concerns about the quality of pedagogy that was taking place in LLP-A. Notwithstanding, the adult learners in FGD A4, FGD B1 and FGD B2 remained committed to attending these classes to improve their literacies. The following are some of the adult learners' reasons for joining adult literacy classes.

We realised that even if we are old we have missed out on a number of things in life. Because of this, we face a lot of problems in getting some of the things done. For example, we are often times cheated of change on a bus, and from the shops when we are buying something, especially with a big amount. We cannot fill the forms on our own at the hospital and the bank. For these reasons, we realised that we needed to join this class. (FGD B1, p.4)

We appreciate a lot for these classes because they are opening our minds to a lot of things. Your coming for this research (referring to researcher) is an encouragement to us that we should continue and remain committed to attending these classes. (FGD 1A, p.4)

For me, I started with Cicewa literacy class. When I completed all the books, I joined English grade 1 and 2, and completed everything and even attempted grade 7. I have plans of proceeding to secondary school but at the moment I am raising some money by working at the restaurant which came as a result of attending literacy classes. (FGD B2, p.3)

From the views of the adult learners, it is clear that their participation in adult literacy classes was motivated by different goals. They indicated that the classes had helped them improve a number of literacy skills, not just reading and writing. They stated that they wanted to eliminate illiteracy and ignorance so that they could use literacy in their businesses, to interpret road signs and to interpret health-related literacies.

1) Eliminate illiteracy and ignorance

The adult learners unanimously stated that they joined adult literacy classes to eliminate illiteracy and ignorance:

We joined this class because we realised that we were ignorant. We found ourselves in a community where our friends who had literacy, life was better for them. So we joined classes to get rid of ignorance and learn how to write and sign on our own, rather than asking other people to sign for us. (FGD 1A, p.4)

During a discussion, one adult learner said:

To be honest, for me I wanted to get rid of ignorance because I was a very backward person. This is a reason why I need these lessons to continue so that I am different from the way I used to be. At the moment, I can personally say I am much better than before. (FGD 2A, p.3)

Another stated:

I joined this class to learn how to use my phone, my husband has saved numbers for me in the phone. When someone phones I see the phone ringing but I cannot read who has phoned because I don't know how to read. Even when someone sends a message I cannot read. (FGD 5A, p.4)

The above learner's learning goal was to learn how to use the phone. This is called digital literacy. If the facilitator is conscious of the importance of facilitating learning that is based on the foregoing digital literacy needs of his or her adult learners, success in adult learning is likely to be attained because adult learning is goal oriented towards the immediate real-life application of the acquired knowledge and skills. However, the facilitators in both the programmes were not conscious of the learners' needs.

2) Business purposes

It emerged that some of the adult learners were motivated to join literacy classes because they wanted to improve their business practices. The common view shared by these adult learners was that they were actively involved in farming, and it was difficult for them to determine if they had received a fair deal when they sold their produce to the Food Reserve Agency (FRA). For example, when receiving their money they had to fill in forms, and they did not understand what they were signing for. Some of the adult learners were dissatisfied because what they were taught in the two programmes did not address their learning goals. They indicated that they were taught the general school literacies, including decontextualised reading, writing and numeracy skills, which did not address their specific business literacy goals.

3) Interpret road signs

A number of adult learners wanted to learn how to interpret road signs. This decision was based on their personal life experiences:

I wanted to learn how to read and write especially when I go somewhere. I want to find it easy to find my way because sometimes I feel embarrassed to ask for something because I am not able to read and understand. So if I can read road signs I can find my way without getting embarrassed or lost. (FGD 4A, p.5)

Another adult learner explained that she had travelled to Chipata which is the provisional capital of the Eastern Province. She could not find her way and she was afraid to ask strangers for directions. When she eventually did ask for directions, she was given the wrong instructions and she was almost kidnapped. She could not read the clearly marked road signs. Therefore, she was determined to join the class to learn how to read and write.

4) Health-related uses

Another reason which was provided by the learners for participating in adult literacy classes was framed within health-related reasons. They shared that:

The reason we started these classes was for us to read on our own because when we go to the hospital we ask other people to read for us. But if we know how to read, we shall do a lot of things on our own. (FGD 5A, p.5)

For me, I am interested in knowing how to read and write because this has been my main challenge. So that when I am taking a child to the clinic, I do not have to carry the hospital card for the father leaving behind the card for the child like it happened in the past. When I reached the clinic, I found this young nurse who was old enough to be my child. She shouted at me like a child, I was very hurt, even now when I remember I feel bad about that experience. After this occurrence, I decided to join literacy classes so that I can know how to read and write. (FGD 5A, p.5)

Learning to read and write is an important thing for every adult. Sometimes when you are not well you go to the hospital and they mistakenly give you wrong medication. If you cannot read, it becomes a big problem. For example, it happened to one patient that the doctor had prescribed Pen V for his medication, but at the pharmacy, he was mistakenly given Panadol which did not treat the infection he had. So when one knows how to read and write, such things can be prevented. (FGD 5A, p.5)

The foregoing views revealed that a standard curriculum or content was not adequate for these adult learners because they had diverse learning goals and reasons for joining the class. Therefore, a class which is organised on this principle would incorporate a variety of

pedagogical strategies to make learning more experience based, learner focused and meaningful to all adult learners.

5.7.2.2 Summary of sub-them 4.2: Adult learners reasons for attending classes

This sub-theme indicated that the main motivation for adult learners' participation in adult literacy classes was to eliminate illiteracy and ignorance. This motivation was also linked to the desire to learn specific literacy practices for health, communication and business purposes. However, what the adult learners in LLP-A and LLP-B learned in class was not linked to any social context and, therefore, did not address the embedded real-life learning goals of these adult learners.

5.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented the data which were collected on pedagogical practices that were applied in the two adult literacy-learning programmes in the Katete District of Zambia: LLP-A and LLP-B. The data were collected through face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, class observations and document analysis, and were analysed through thematic content analysis. The findings revealed that though the participants had indicated that they used the pedagogical practices embedded in the four pedagogical methods of expository, discovery, participatory and evaluatory pedagogies, in practice, they used expository and evaluatory pedagogies, which were largely teacher-centred. This means that the use of a variety of pedagogical strategies as a way of providing different learning pathways for the adult learners was absent. Additionally, the chapter revealed that this choice was largely based on the narrow view of adult literacy and of the adult learner that was held by the managers and facilitators. They perceived an adult learner as an illiterate and ignorant person and adult literacy-learning as a means for eliminating illiteracy and ignorance among the illiterate adults. In order to provide a clear understanding of these findings, in the next chapter I provide a scientific and consolidated analysis. To achieve this, I use the literature review and the theoretical framework which underpinned this study.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study which were presented in chapter five. The discussion considers the literature that was reviewed in chapter two and the theoretical framework to either confirm or discount the findings which emerged from the thematic and content analysis of interviews, focus group discussions, class observations and document data. The themes include the conceptualisation of adult literacy-learning by both the facilitators and the managers, the pedagogical practices in adult literacy classes, pedagogical resources, and participation in adult literacy classes. The following is a detail analysis of the findings.

6.2 Theme 1: Conceptualisation of adult literacy-learning

The findings in this theme illustrated that most of the managers, facilitators and the adult learners had a traditional cognitive conceptualisation of adult literacy-learning as the acquisition of reading and writing skills. It was claimed by the managers and the facilitators that the acquisition of adult literacy skills eliminated illiteracy and ignorance. They indicated that the application of reading, writing and numeracy skills to real-life situations made the 'illiterate' adult learners functionally literate in their everyday lives (UNESCO, 2013a). However, based on studies by Gebre et al. (2009), Nabi et al. (2009), Street (2012) and a report by UNESCO (1999), it is incorrect to think that functionality among the people that are labelled as 'illiterates' is only attained when they acquire the functional skills through functional literacy-learning. These sources contend that adult learners are primarily experiential learners and that they actively use literacies in their daily lives, irrespective of whether they are classified as 'literate' or 'illiterate'. Instead of focusing on becoming functional, the focus should be on improving their existing literacies.

Furthermore, it was evident that the above notion of adult literacy-learning had implications for both the literacies taught in class and the pedagogical strategies used by the facilitators. Papen (2000: 12) confirms that "metaphors for literacy do not stand on their own. They are part of a particular view of literacy that has implications for how we think about the learners, how they should learn and how this could be achieved". In other words, the conceptualisation of literacy influences how educators perceive their adult learners, what they think the adult learners should learn and how the adult learners should learn. In addition, Rogers (1997: 15-16) asserts that the misconception of literacy has negatively influenced the teaching and

learning of literacies in many adult literacy-learning programmes in developing countries where literacy is taught as the decontextualised skills of reading and writing.

In the literature, there are two major opposing views on the concept literacy. One view is that literacy is a universal set of skills of reading and writing (Street, 2014), and the contesting view is that literacy is situated in a context and that there is not one literacy but rather multiple literacies (Rogers & Street, 2012). In view of this, the managers, facilitators and adult learners' dominant interpretation of adult literacy learning under this theme was anchored in the view that literacy is a universal set of skills that included reading and writing. Embedded in this interpretation are the two opposing views of the managers and the facilitators about the adult learner. The majority of the managers and facilitators viewed the adult learner as illiterate and ignorant, which relates to the findings by Rogers (1999) who highlights the dominance of this perception in practice. The other view held by only three managers (CDA 4A, B1A and B2A) was that the adult learner possessed knowledge and various literacies which were essential for further learning. This interpretation conforms to Merriam et al. (2012) and Rogers and Street's (2012) view.

The first view rests on the assumption that an adult learner who decides to join the adult literacy class is illiterate and ignorant – this understanding differs from the literature about adult learning. Modern pedagogy (Kolb, 2014; Lane-Kelso, 2015; Peterson & Ray, 2013; Schweisfurth, 2015; Westbrook et al., 2013) does not view the learner as an empty vessel which requires knowledge to be deposited into, but as a reservoir of knowledge and experience that is acquired in many different contexts. This is why informal learning is critical to adult learning. Every adult learner comes to class with funds of knowledge on different practices that have been acquired from his/her life experiences. It is this pool of knowledge which is decisive in helping the adult learner to learn new literacy practices (Nabi et al., 2009). The findings indicate that the first interpretation was dominant in practice in both the LLP-A and LLP-B.

It is also important to note that the participants' interpretation of adult literacy learning provided insight into understanding the literacies which were taught in adult literacy classes in the Katete District. This interpretation of literacy is never neutral (Papen, 2005; Rogers, 1999), and it affects all aspects of adult literacy and ultimately how it was taught by the facilitators. The findings revealed that school-based literacy skills were the main focus in adult literacy classes of both adult literacy-learning programmes. The participants' interpretation was that this was the foundation for all forms of learning which were provided to their adult learners.

However, this position contradicts with what is documented in the literature, in particular on experiential learning (Kolb, 2014; Taylor, 2006; Yardley et al. 2012).

The general understanding in the literature is that learning is a lifelong process: it takes place everywhere and at any time (Rogers, 2014a; Wang, 2007) irrespective of whether someone has school literacies or not. It does not require anything like a foundation as it occurs naturally, informally, incidentally and/or accidentally with or without a conscious effort. The theoretical framework of this study, which was framed by the Literacy as Social Practice and adult Experiential Learning theories (Kolb, 2014; Langer, 1986; Rogers, 2014a), postulate that much of the practices we learn in life, be it reading or writing practices, have been acquired through informal learning. However, the existing knowledge on acquiring literacies informally was not apparent among the managers and facilitators in their conception and interpretation of adult literacy learning. They thought that learning literacy skills should only be conducted through direct teaching as will be discussed in the next theme.

In light of the above, the managers and facilitators' interpretations of the adult learner and adult literacy learning indicate a misunderstanding of the dynamics of literacy and adult learning. In support of this, Rogers (1997: 16) indicates that the perception of the adult learner as an empty vessel is created by the negative attitude towards illiteracy, which is often associated with backwardness, ignorance and a lack of formal learning.

This confirms the existing inconsistencies between theory and practice. However, the participants' narrow view of adult literacy learning remained valuable in gaining a deeper understanding of how adult literacy skills were taught to the adult learners. Having analysed the conceptualisation of adult literacy-learning by the participants in both the LLPs, it is now necessary to understand how these literacies were taught in the classroom. Therefore, the next theme discusses the findings that related to the use of pedagogical practices in adult literacy classes in both the LLP-A and LLP-B.

6.3 Theme 2: Pedagogical practices in adult literacy classes

The findings from both the LLP-A and LLP-B indicated that the managers, facilitators and adult learners had different pedagogical preferences that were situated within the following four pedagogical approaches: expository, discovery, participatory and evaluatory pedagogy (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007; Rogers, 2009). The literature shows that there are different methods and strategies of teaching, and the choice of pedagogy depends on its effectiveness to help the adult learners to achieve their learning goals. According to the scholars who have explored

pedagogy in adult learning (Knowles, 1970; Merriam, 2001; Merriam et al., 2012; Rogers & Horrocks, 2010; Rogers, 2009; Tight, 2004), choosing relevant pedagogical strategies requires critical considerations on aspects that include the topic to be taught, the learning context, the attributes of the adult learners, their aspirations, and other essential aspects of supporting teaching and learning. For example, it is known both in theory and practice that adult learners are often encouraged to learn by their desire to meet their goals (Biryukova et al., 2015; Kolb, 2014; Rogers & Horrocks, 2010). Therefore, the use of different pedagogical strategies should facilitate their learning, especially in contexts which are familiar to them.

Notwithstanding, the findings of the study indicated that the pedagogy that was used in the research site was centred on expository and evaluatory pedagogies. This is supported by Rogers (2009) who records that expository pedagogy is the most popular instructional method that is used by educators for the following reasons: it is how educators were taught; educators focus more on teaching than learning; educators are more concerned about learning content, and they think that adult learners are dependent on them. In this study, the majority of the facilitators' choice of pedagogy was determined by their conceptualisation of a given pedagogical method and strategy.

For example, all the facilitators in both programmes, except CDA1A, FA4, and B2A who cautiously used discovery and participatory pedagogy, preferred the expository method, which includes lecture pedagogy. They believed that lecture teaching helped their learners to become better people through reading and writing. However, studies (Gargallo Lopez et al., 2015; Kane, 2004; Vreman-de Olde et al., 2013) have found that learner-centred pedagogies produce more meaningful learning than teacher-dominated pedagogies. The expository method is teacher-centred if not used creatively with other approaches (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007). The facilitators in both programmes agreed that the lecture strategy was the only pedagogy that produced better learning outcomes. They claimed that lecture teaching was effective for the mastery of the learning content because learners understood the facilitator's explanations when this method was used in class. According to them, it also facilitated meeting the learning objectives.

Additionally, the findings demonstrated that the facilitators (FA1, FA2, FA4, FA5, FA7, and FB1) who were aware of other pedagogical methods and strategies did not choose them because they did not know how to use them effectively in the classroom. In the literature, pedagogical content knowledge is regarded as crucial to all educators to implement effective teaching and learning (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Shulman, 1987; Siraj-Blatchford et al.,

2002). This means that facilitators in adult literacy classes are expected to possess a considerable amount of knowledge on pedagogy. However, the findings revealed that the facilitators in both programmes who used lecture teaching and those who attempted to use a variety of pedagogical strategies had difficulties to implement clearly, creatively, innovatively and logically the different pedagogical strategies. They shifted from one method to the other with little consideration of learner involvement. I noted that the facilitators would first use the chalkboard and then tell stories which were unrelated to the lesson. This shift between unrelated learning topics confused the adult learners. This meant that the facilitators had a misconstrued conceptualisation of what it meant to use a variety of pedagogical methods because they dominated the learning activities even when they attempted to combine various pedagogical strategies.

Apart from the facilitators and adult learners' interpretation of pedagogical strategies, their preferred pedagogical method was also influenced by the three pedagogical determinants that include the Personal, Professional and Prescriptive determinants. In the literature, the choice of pedagogical method is guided by both the teacher's content knowledge (CK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) (Hill, Ball, & Schilling, 2008; Kleickmann et al., 2013). Additionally, the literature reveals that PCK can be socially constructed and professionally developed (Erguig, 2012; Lane-Kelso, 2015; Marienau & Fiddler, 2002; Moje, 2007). The findings of this study revealed that the managers and facilitators' personal determinants of pedagogy related to their personal misconceived interpretation of pedagogy.

I realised that the facilitators' choice of pedagogy was influenced by the way in which they perceived their adult learners, their knowledge of pedagogical strategies, both in theory and practice, and how familiar they were with a particular pedagogical strategy. They preferred the traditional approach of viewing the adult learner as an illiterate person and the concomitant expository pedagogy of teaching and learning in which they wanted to 'fill the empty tin'. As opposed to socially constructed pedagogy, they held a rigid view and made personal and subjective decisions on pedagogical strategies that were based on their pedagogical experiences. In confirming this, Hashweh (2005) states that this type of pedagogical knowledge is personal and private, rather than public and objective. It is private because it is acquired through observing others teach. This explains partly why FB1, FB2, FB3, FA3, FA6 and FA8 who did not have any training in adult learning pedagogy relied on their experiences as either facilitators or adult learners in adult literacy classes or on how they had been taught when they were in school or college. Pedagogical knowledge can be acquired informally, but

much of the knowledge on teaching and learning is centred on the professional training of educators (Temli Durmuş, 2016; Westbrook et al., 2013).

Professional determinants of pedagogy are characterised by professional training. It is held that all trained educators possess PCK which is crucial for effective teaching and learning (Hill et al., 2008). This means that the choice of pedagogical strategies should be determined by professional knowledge. These choices should be objective because they are based on a scientific body of knowledge. The findings of the study showed that the brief professional training that the facilitators in both programmes had undergone, did not have a positive effect on their understanding of pedagogy. The participants preferred personal and private pedagogical content knowledge to professionally acquired objective knowledge.

The prescriptive determinant incorporates both personal and professional determinants. The findings indicated that it involved the adult learners' choice of their preferred pedagogy and the suggested pedagogical strategies that were contained in the teaching-learning materials. The majority of the facilitators indicated that they often closely followed the prescribed but confusing pedagogical strategies in the material. This prescriptive procedure represented uncreative and incomplete PCK knowledge on teaching. The literature illustrates that teachers who use pedagogical methods in innovative ways create meaningful learning environments for their learners (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2007; Hill et al., 2008; Kleickmann et al., 2013; Kane, 2004).

Furthermore, the findings revealed that there was a greater emphasis on teaching reading and writing by facilitators in both programmes than on helping adult learners to apply literacy skills in their everyday lives. This practice is influenced by the global misconception that the acquisition of literacy skills produces socio-economic benefits for the adult learners (Dighe, 2006; Bhola, 1995; UNESCO, 1990). On the contrary, it was found by Rogers (1999), Rogers and Street (2012), and Street (2014) that the benefits of literacy are revealed by using reading and writing skills in everyday contexts rather than learning to read and write in decontextualised situations. In addition, the LSP theory of adult literacy (Perry, 2012; Rogers & Street, 2012; Street, 2014; Vygotskiĭ, Hanfmann, & Vakar, 2012; Wang, 2007) postulates that adult literacy is ingrained in social groups and communities of practice which suggests that adult learners and their domains of socialisation should be understood before literacy practices are taught. Research shows that effective adult educators are those who have adequate knowledge of their adult learners (Biryukova et al., 2015; Knowles, 1974; Langer, 1986; Merriam et al., 2012; Hill et al., 2008) because apart from knowledge of the subject

matter, understanding one's adult learners shapes the teaching-learning process either positively or negatively.

The majority of the managers and facilitators in this study had a limited understanding of situated literacies. As previously noted, they understood their adult learners in a one-dimensional manner, as reflected by their pedagogical practices. Their knowledge of adult learning principles was rhetorical, because these principles were not applied in the adult literacy classes that I observed. I believe that a thorough knowledge of the adult learner, literacy and adult learning pedagogy as documented in the literature (Biryukova et al., 2015; Merriam et al., 2012; Nabi et al., 2009; Rogers & Street, 2012) is vital for the facilitator to teach adult learners how to learn independently, rather than to teach them to depend on others for help. It is evident from the findings that the adult learners in these classes did not know how to learn, but rather they knew how to be taught.

In summary, the analysis of this theme confirmed my initial motivation for this study: that pedagogy is a neglected area in adult literacy classes in the research site. It was established that in these classes pedagogy was teacher-centred. Consequently, these non-formal adult literacy classes mirrored school-based literacy classes. This reality is contrary to the learner-centred pedagogy that was prescribed in the Zambia National Adult Literacy Curriculum Framework of 2012 (Ministry of Education, 2012). The literacy-learning documents that were used in these classes provided minimal attention to pedagogical methods and strategies. Furthermore, the teacher-centred propositions by the participants are at variance with the theoretical framework of this study which postulates that literacies are social practices, that adult learning is experiential learning and that pedagogy is socially constructed. Both the LSP theory and the Experiential Learning theory are based on learner-centred pedagogies which were absent in the adult literacy classes of both programmes in the research site. In addition to this theme, the managers and facilitators' pedagogical practices were understood through the teaching and learning resources that were used in adult literacy classes.

6.4 Theme 3: Pedagogical resources

The pedagogical resources comprised of teaching aids and teaching-learning materials. The findings of the study indicated that the teaching aids that were used in adult literacy classes were limited to chalk, chalkboards, flipcharts and whiteboard makers. This illustrated the inadequate use of teaching aids and the inability of the facilitators to use a variety of teaching aids to make learning more experiential and interactive, which are the basic characteristics of adult learning (Bélanger, 2011; Drago-Severson, 2011).

Instructional aids that reflect the adult learners' real-life experiences provide adult learning opportunities that produce the desired learning outcomes (Caruth, 2014). In addition, research on pedagogy emphasises the need to use a variety of teaching aids to help adult learners who learn in diverse ways (Avargil, Herscovitz, & Dori, 2011). Subsequently, when teaching aids are strategically chosen and skillfully applied, they provide a variety of learning pathways and a range of pedagogical practices that enhance learning gains. For facilitators, understanding adult learners' motivation for joining a literacy class and their prior experiences should help them to select instructional aids which meet their aspirations.

The literature on adult learning indicates that the prior experience and perceptions of the adult learners are tied to their self-identity (Boakye et al., 2014; Ginsburg & Gal, 1996). Though differences in experiences and perceptions exist among adult learners, these learners remain rich resources for improving instructional experiences (Biryukova et al., 2015; Knowles, 1970). From the findings, it was evident that the consideration of prior experiences of the adult learners was not the primary concern of the facilitators in both the LLP-A and LLP-B, but rather the focus was on decontextualised pedagogy. In addition, the facilitators did not realise that, according to DeFrance and Fahrenbruck (2016), teaching aids can be socially constructed from the local environment of the adult learners. The findings showed that in some places where chalkboards were not available, classes could not be conducted. This implies that the facilitators overly relied on the Department of Community Development to provide them with the relevant teaching aids when they could have improvised by using locally available materials, for instance the use of the walls of the buildings as chalkboard and cassava or charcoal as chalk.

Furthermore, the facilitators who used the available teaching aids applied them incorrectly. In substantiating this, I refer to figure 6.5 which can be interpreted as the improper use of the chalkboard. Firstly, the blackboard was too small. Additionally, the vowels and syllables that were written on it were not clearly distinguishable and appeared as one word. This could indicate to the adult learners that this was how vowels and syllables should be written.

The findings also elucidated the inadequate supply of teaching-learning materials. Asokhia (2009) observes that teachers are often not supplied with teaching materials, and when they are available, they are either inadequate or obsolete. However, the challenge in teaching adult literacy classes does not lie so much with the lack of teaching-learning material, but with the lack of creativity among the facilitators who, in the Katete District, perpetuated "textbook" dominated practices. The absence of creativity and innovation in teaching and the over

dependence on literacy-learning materials encouraged expository and rote learning, as opposed to experiential and participatory-based learning. This was one of the main challenges that was identified in the adult literacy classes that I observed. Unfortunately, nothing was done by the adult literacy providers to address this issue.

In light of the foregoing, the facilitators were divided between those who believed that the available teaching materials were relevant to adult learning and those who felt that they were not. The majority of the facilitators highlighted that the teaching materials were too complicated to follow because they had not been trained to use them. Some of the teaching-learning materials contained topics that could easily be contextualised to the local environment in which adult literacy classes were conducted; however, this was not done by the facilitators who lacked training. Those with alternatives resorted to using primary school-literacy books. Additionally, the facilitators claimed that the teaching materials were prepared without their involvement which contributed in making these materials irrelevant to their adult learners.

The use of a top-down approach in the preparation of teaching materials requires some attention as well. It is well known in the literature that participatory-based learning is one of the tenets of adult learning (Campbell & Burnaby, 2001; Bélanger, 2011). Adults learn better when they are actively involved in the learning process and when learning is centred on their motivation for joining a literacy class (Polson, 1993; Rogers & Horrocks, 2010). This entails that the preparation of teaching-learning materials for adult literacy should involve all the stakeholders. These include the facilitators who are the implementers and the adult learners who should recognise the relevance of these materials to their daily lives. This approach is ideal for voluntary adult-learner engagement which is essential for genuine adult learning. Therefore, the teaching and learning resources that were used in the adult literacy classes in the Katete District would require revisions to align them with the social practice view of literacy. These revisions are crucial because facilitators focused on the limited view of literacy as the teaching of reading, writing and numeracy in decontextualised contexts.

6.5 Theme 4: Participation in adult literacy classes

The findings confirmed that enticing adults to join adult literacy classes without addressing their literacy needs was the practice in the adult literacy classes in the Katete District. Rogers and Street (2012), and Rogers (1999) found that the practice of enticing adult learners by exaggerating the benefits of literacy is not a unique occurrence; it has been a common phenomenon in many adult literacy-learning programmes in developing countries. The appropriate stance is that participation in adult literacy classes should be driven by the adult

learner's desire to meet his or her learning aspirations because many adult learners are self-motivated: they set their own learning goals, choose their learning path, and control and evaluate their progress (Knowles, 1973; Merriam et al., 2012). Therefore, enticing adult learners to join a literacy class and to keep them committed to attending classes is contrary to the principle of self-motivation and what is recommended in the literature on adult learners' participation in adult literacy classes.

For example, in Zambia, Zimbabwe, Uganda, Tanzania, Malawi, Kenya, Nigeria, Mozambique, Ethiopia, and Angola (Omolewa, 2008; Ministry of Education, 2015; UNESCO, 2015, 2013b) to mention a few countries, adult literacy-learning providers and facilitators usually entice adult learners by spreading the myth that participating in adult literacy classes will lead to immediate social and economic improvements in their lives: it will lead to job creation, better health by preventing diseases and improved business skills. On the contrary, studies by Nabi et al. (2009), Papen (2005), and Rogers and Street (2012) show that the acquisition of literacy skills does not necessarily change the socio-economic status of these adult learners.

The findings of this study confirmed the above views. The adult learners felt that their participation would change their economic and social well-being and that of their families. It was clear during the focus group discussions that the adult learners were not self-driven but enticed by the perceived socio-economic benefits that were likely to accrue to them by virtue of their participation. A study by Rogers (1999) established that these practices are among the main reasons why several adult literacy-learning programmes have failed to achieve their objectives. The managers of these programmes used a top-down approach that disregarded the fact that adult literacy-learning should start with the literacy practices of the adult learners.

The foregoing practice translates into the participants' interpretation of their roles in adult literacy classes. From the interviews with the managers and facilitators, it emerged that their perceived role was that of teaching adult learners to read and write. This corresponds to Caruth (2014), and Rogers and Street (2012) who claim that the ineffectiveness of teaching literacy to adults has been caused by the overemphasis of teaching rather than learning. This implies that when teaching is emphasised the entire purpose of adult literacy is lost as the adult learner's role as already-existing font of knowledge is overlooked. The adult learners in both programmes in the research site believed that they were illiterate and ignorant, and their participation was supposed to be a panacea for illiteracy and ignorance. Their newly acquired skills included learning about letters, words, road signs, currency notes, numeracy and health.

The pedagogical implication of this theme is that the participants' interpretation of the purpose of joining an adult literacy class influenced their pedagogical practices and preferences. The findings revealed that it shaped their preferred pedagogical strategies and learning styles. Literacy-learning facilitators controlled the learning process in the adult literacy classes and the adult learners were reduced to mere recipients of information. In this learning environment, knowledge production and learning were not interactive and contextualised, but teacher-centred. This practice contradicts the research that indicates that knowledge production, pedagogical practices and learning are interactive social processes (Vaughn et al., 2015; Wang, 2007; Watkins, 2013; Westbrook et al., 2013). The facilitators and adult learners in this process are expected to recognise and respect each other's roles.

What is clear from the findings is that the adult learners in both the LLP-A and LLP-B were passive participants (being physically present in class but limited to listening and receiving) as opposed to active participants and experiential adult learners. They could have been actively involved in the entire learning processes by discovering new literacies that were based on their already existing literacies and that were embedded in their social contexts and literacy practices. In view of this discussion, a summary of the findings in terms of the similarities and contradictions with the literature is presented in the next section.

6.6 Summary of the findings: evidence from literature and new insights

The findings of the study indicated a number of similarities to what is documented in the literature. They also revealed insights that could help in shaping both the theory and the practice of adult literacy-learning in the Katete District.

6.6.1 Similarities and contradictions with the literature

- a) The conception of adult literacy-learning by the participants was inclined towards the traditional cognitive literacy skills approach. The findings revealed that adult literacy was regarded by the participants in this study as the acquisition of reading and writing skills, whose popularity is confirmed by the findings of a number of researchers (Balatti, Black, & Falk, 2006; Barton et al., 2000b; Benavot, 2015; Boon & Kurvers, 2015; Street, 2014). It was established that although this view has been influential in the design and implementation of many adult literacy-learning programmes globally (Nabi et al., 2009), it is not suitable for adult literacy-learning because it limits literacy to only reading, writing and numeracy and it does not take cognisance of the social and cultural contexts of the adult learners. A more comprehensive approach is the social

practice view of adult literacy, and specifically the LSP. However, the findings of this study indicated that the social practice view of adult literacy had not yet been integrated into the pedagogy of literacy in adult literacy classes in the Katete District. This is confirmed by Crowther and Tett (2011) who record that there are only a few countries globally which have accepted literacy as social practices, including Scotland.

- b) With regard to pedagogical practices, the findings confirmed that the way in which the adult learner was perceived by the facilitators was influential in shaping the pedagogical practices that were applied in class. It is clear from the findings that in reality the pedagogical emphasis was on the literacy skills that the adult learners lacked and not on the experience and knowledge that the adult learners had already acquired. The participants' view of the adult learner as an illiterate and ignorant person is similar to the findings of Rogers (1999). He observed that adult learners in adult literacy-learning programmes in developing countries are usually perceived as illiterates. In my view, this notion undermines the ingrained socio-cognitive potential of each adult learner which should be an important resource for adult learning.

Consequently, the facilitators' pedagogical practices were teacher-centred as opposed to learner-centred. This is contrary to what is documented in the literature on modern pedagogy (Education for development, 1996; Gargallo Lopez et al., 2015; Moate & Cox, 2015; Schweisfurth, 2015, 2011; Thompson, 2013) as there has been a shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred pedagogy. The Zambian Adult Literacy Curriculum for 2012 stipulates that the pedagogical approach for adult literacy classes should be learner-centred. However, as earlier indicated this was not the case in practice as the facilitators in both LLP-A and LLP-B used expository and evaluatory methods in their classrooms.

- c) The pedagogical resources in LLP-A and LLP-B included the adult literacy syllabus, primers, an instructor's guide, a learner's handbook, chalk, chalkboard, flipchart and whiteboard markers. The facilitators exhibited limited knowledge of pedagogical methods and strategies as well as of the educational value of teaching materials because many of them were volunteers and untrained in adult learning pedagogy. Similarly, Diagne et al. (2006) found that many adult literacy educators in non-formal adult learning programmes do not know how to use teaching-learning materials effectively. In addition, Carr-Hill, Roberts, and Currie (2010a) state that this challenge

could be exacerbated by the practice of using untrained volunteers as facilitators to keep running costs low. This practice was evident in both LLP-A and LLP-B.

- d) In the research site, participation in adult literacy classes was based on the myth that the acquisition of adult literacy skills would lead to the improved socio-economic status of the adult learners. This is confirmed by Nabi et al. (2009), Rogers and Street (2012), Rogers (1999), and Street (2006), who indicate that in many adult literacy learning programmes in developing countries, the providers entice participants to join adult literacy classes based on an exaggerated set of presumed benefits. Research in general and my research in particular found that these assumptions are erroneous.

6.6.2 New insights

This study provided new insights into the pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District of Zambia:

- a) The existing literature emphasises policy changes, new curricula and the need for increased funding for adult literacy-learning programmes (Benavot, 2015, 2008; British Association for International and Comparative Education, 2015; Robinson-Pant, 2016; UNESCO, 2013a). Pedagogy in adult literacy-learning is an essential component for producing the desired learning outcomes but has remained a neglected area of study. Although some of the studies (Kleickmann et al., 2013; Lane-Kelso, 2015; Mayhew & Fernández, 2007; O'Neill et al., 2013; Westbrook et al., 2013) explore pedagogy in education, their focus has not been on adult literacy-learning: they have focused on elementary school-based and higher education.

Furthermore, the findings of this study revealed that the efforts by the adult literacy-learning providers to improve the provision of literacy-learning were focused on providing the teaching and learning materials without training the facilitators to use these materials. Therefore, the facilitators were expected to use their initiative and creativity when using the teaching materials. The facilitators in both LLP-A and LLP-B did not have the skills to use the learning materials successfully as they lacked adequate or relevant training. If this practice remains in place, the success of the adult literacy classes in the research site will remain unattainable.

- b) Adult literacy-learning pedagogy is anchored in starting with the literacy practices of the adult learners, where they live (social context) and what they do in their everyday

lives (cultural and work literacies) (Rogers & Street, 2012). This is crucially a learner-centred principle. This is also the emphasis in modern pedagogy (Gargallo Lopez et al., 2015; Moate & Cox, 2015; Schweisfurth, 2011, 2015). In line with this, the findings of the study demonstrated that knowledge of the adult learners and the purpose of adult learning were vital in shaping pedagogical methods and strategies that were used in adult literacy classes. However, this relationship is rarely emphasised in the literature. Many studies have focused on encouraging educators to adopt the learner-centred pedagogies based on the assumed benefits likely to accrue to the adult learners: little attention has been given to the influence that the educator's perceptions of the adult learners have on choosing learner-centred pedagogical strategies.

Based on the findings of this study, it emerged that the way in which adult literacy-learning facilitators perceived their adult learners (illiterate and ignorant, a characterisation which was accepted by the adult learners themselves), and their understanding of the purpose of adult learning (a platform for eliminating illiteracy and ignorance), as well as their lack of the relevant training in adult literacy pedagogy, shaped their preference for expository pedagogy as opposed to the learner-centred pedagogy. The latter approach was recommended by the Adult Literacy-Learning Curriculum Framework for Zambia.

- c) The literature on pedagogical practices emphasises the need to train educators in both CK and PCK to ensure effective learning outcomes (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Crowther et al., 2010; Shulman, 1987; Tarrant & Thiele, 2016a; Vanassche & Kelchtermans, 2016; Vreman-de Olde et al., 2013; Westbrook et al., 2013). It is also known that adult literacy facilitators should not be trained as full-time teachers, but as facilitators (Rogers, 1999, 2009).

Notwithstanding, the findings revealed that the training of facilitators had little influence on their pedagogical decisions and their application of pedagogical strategies in the research site. My initial assumption was that the trained facilitators would apply a variety of pedagogical practices in their teaching to make learning interactive and beneficial to the adult learners. However, all the facilitators' teaching strategies were based on the prior education experiences that they had gained in secondary school, in college, or as adult literacy learners. There is a dearth of information about this phenomenon in adult literacy literature: particularly the reason why training does not

markedly influence adult literacy-learning facilitators' pedagogical decisions and subsequent practices.

- d) In addition to the above, this study generated three categories of pedagogical determinants that include the personal, professional and prescriptive. Apart from the common practice of using both CK and PCK in determining the pedagogical strategies for teaching (Mitton Kukner & Murray Orr, 2015; Porath, 2016; Rodriguez, 2015; Shulman, 1986; Spector, 2015), it emerged from the findings that pedagogical decisions were framed by personal, professional and prescriptive categories.

The personal determinant involved each participant's personal and private pedagogical decisions that were influenced by her/his prior teaching experience or by her/his observation of how others taught. However, it was found in this study that the weakness of this determinant was that it was guided by the facilitators' preferences (that the participants were familiar with the method, or simply found it easy to use). This determinant ignored whether or not the chosen method was able to achieve the intended learning goals.

The professional determinant is tied to pedagogical decisions that are based on one's training, CK and PCK. It was determined in this study that this determinant was lacking among the facilitators in both the LLP-A and LLP-B. The prescriptive determinant involves making pedagogical decisions that are influenced by external elements such as the adult learners' preferences and learning needs. However, in the research site these practices were rarely entertained because the findings of the study indicated that the facilitators dominated the teaching and learning process.

Although some studies have explored the social construction of pedagogy (Erguig, 2012; Girvan et al., 2016), which is linked to the creativity and innovativeness of the educator, the main emphasis and assumption in the literature is that pedagogical decisions are informed by CK and PCK. Unfortunately, this practice has created an information gap on other determinants like personal and prescriptive aspects which influenced the pedagogical decisions that were made by the participants who possessed CK and PCK (although to a limited degree), as is evident in the findings of this study.

- e) Furthermore, the sociocultural environment played a crucial role in influencing the participation of facilitators in adult literacy classes in the research site. The findings illustrated that the facilitators felt compelled to teach based on the community ethos of cooperation. They mentioned that they felt a sense of responsibility to teach those who did not know how to read and write because it was part of the communal practice in their villages. This view is absent from the existing literature and practice because what is documented is how adult literacy learning shapes learning and literacy practices (Barton & Hamilton, 2000; Perry, 2012), the learning content, pedagogical strategies, and the behaviour of participants as they engage in learning processes (Gebre et al., 2009; Rogers, 2014a; Stein, 1998; Street, 2014), and not how the sociocultural environment influences teaching and learning.

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings that are based on the four themes which emerged from the analysis of the data. They included the conceptualisation of adult literacy-learning; pedagogical practices in adult literacy classes; pedagogical resources; and participation in adult literacy classes. It was established that all the pedagogical practices that were used in adult literacy classes were for teaching literacy skills. This was influenced by the facilitators and managers' perception of the adult learner as an illiterate and ignorant person, and that the acquisition of literacy skills was a means of eliminating ignorance and illiteracy among the illiterates. The literature demonstrates that the ideal pedagogical approach or method is that which uses a variety of pedagogical strategies, as opposed to only one pedagogical method throughout the lesson. The reason advanced by the participants for this practice was based on the facilitators' lack of training in adult learning pedagogy. Additionally, it was found that even facilitators who had previously been trained in adult learning pedagogy resorted to using expository and evaluatory pedagogies in their lessons. The chapter also highlighted the similarities and contradictions of the findings with the literature. Finally, the chapter presented the new insights which emerged from the findings of the study. In the next chapter, I conclude the findings of the study while focusing on the research questions.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I discussed the findings of the study through the lens of the literature that was reviewed on pedagogical practices in adult literacy-learning. This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations of the study. It includes the summary of the study, the conclusions that are based on the research questions, the positioning of the findings within the theoretical framework, the implications of the findings, the recommendations and the conclusion. The purpose of this study was to develop an understanding of how pedagogical practices were used in non-formal adult literacy classes within the sociocultural contexts of the learners. Furthermore, this study was conducted to bridge the pedagogical knowledge gaps that exist between theory and practice in adult literacy learning.

7.2 Summary of the study

In chapter one, I explained that the aim of this study was to explore pedagogical practices that were used in non-formal adult literacy classes. The motivation for this focus was based on the continued neglect of pedagogy in adult literacy-learning. I indicated that research which was conducted on literacy learning in Zambia concentrated on literacy-learning for children which has caused knowledge gaps on pedagogy in adult literacy learning. Additionally, the evaluations of adult literacy-learning programmes have continued to ignore pedagogy. This is evidenced by the 2009 and 2012 evaluation reports on the poor performance of adult literacy-learning programmes in Zambia, which reported on the lack of coordination among the adult literacy-learning providers, poor funding, lack of teaching-learning materials, the appointment of untrained literacy facilitators and the lack of an independent policy on adult literacy (National Assembly of Zambia, 2009, 2014). Although the 2012 curriculum framework acknowledges the need for the adoption and application of a learner-centred pedagogy in adult literacy classes, there has been a dearth of information on pedagogical practices that are used in adult literacy classes in Zambia and the Katete District in particular.

In view of the above and for purposes of understanding pedagogical practices that were used in adult literacy classes, the following research questions were asked: How are pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District?, and Why are these pedagogical practices used? In line with these questions, my position on pedagogy was based on the understanding that pedagogy is not universal but rather situated in unique pedagogical

contexts. This entails that every adult learning facilitator should use pedagogical methods which are situated within the social context of the adult learners. Based on this, I concluded that both adult learning and non-formal learning have their own expectations of pedagogy which were relevant to the understanding of pedagogical practices that were used in non-formal adult literacy classes.

In chapter two, I reviewed the literature on pedagogical practices in adult literacy-learning. The literature revealed that the pedagogy of adult learning is shaped by three prominent learning theories which include the humanistic, experiential and transformational learning theories. According to these theories, the pedagogy of adult learning should be learner-centred and relevant to the context and the learning goals of the adult learners. It was found that the pedagogy of adult literacy-learning emphasises that teaching and learning should start from the existing literacy experiences of the adult learners because understanding how learners use literacy is crucial for teaching new literacy practices (Rogers & Horrocks, 2010; Rogers & Street, 2012). In view of this, the literature review indicated that it is important for facilitators to understand adult learning pedagogy in order to improve the teaching of literacy skills and to guide learners to acquire new and relevant literacies.

Furthermore, in chapter three I discussed the theoretical framework of the study which was based on two theories which included literacy as a social practices (LSP) and adult learning as Experiential Learning (EL) theories. These theories view pedagogy as socially constructed and learner-centred. The relevance of this framework to the study was premised on its ability to produce an in-depth explanation of literacy and pedagogy in the sociocultural contexts of the adult learners in the Katete District. This was important for analysing data and interpreting the findings of the study. Furthermore, the two theories have been crucial in influencing research in adult literacy-learning and practice in the 21st century.

In chapter four, I discussed the research design and methodology that I used for collecting and generating data, and for analysing and interpreting the findings. The research paradigm that was suitable for this study was the interpretive research paradigm. This decision was guided by the research questions and the purpose of the study which was to understand pedagogical practices used in adult literacy classes that were based on the experiences of the research participants. I adopted a multiple case study design to develop an in-depth understanding of pedagogical practices that were used in the adult literacy classes. This decision was shaped by the evidence that a case study is helpful in exploring an area which has been understudied (Yin, 2012). Furthermore, the Katete District was purposively selected

to help in developing this understanding because it had the highest adult illiteracy levels in the country, which was estimated at 63% (Central Statistical Office, 2012a). In view of this, qualitative data collection methods were used and they included face-to-face interviews, observations, focus group discussions and document analysis. Data were analysed through inductive thematic and content analysis.

In chapter five, I presented the findings of the study and in chapter six, I discussed them under the themes which had emerged during data analysis. The findings of the study revealed that the pedagogical practices in both the LLP-A and LLP-B which were used for teaching literacy skills were based on: (1) the pedagogy of school-based literacies, and (2) the use of expository and evaluatory pedagogical methods. These practices were informed and shaped by two perceptions that were held by the participants: (1) the managers and facilitators' perception of the adult learner, and (2) the conceptualisation of adult literacy-learning. It was found that the managers and the facilitators perceived the adult learner as an illiterate and ignorant person. This characterisation was also held by the adult learners themselves. Consequently, adult literacy learning was conceptualised as the acquisition of reading, writing and numeracy skills for the purposes of eliminating illiteracy and ignorance among the adult learners. Furthermore, this resulted in the use of expository and evaluatory pedagogical methods because the managers and facilitators believed that their role was to impart the skills of reading and writing to the 'illiterate' adult learners.

The literature holds that the world in the 21st century has become more technologically advanced and that society should acquire skills and knowledge which are necessary to adapt to this kind of environment (Kelchtermans, 2016; Strawn & Monama, 2012; Tarrant & Thiele, 2016a; UNESCO, 2015; Vanassche & Schweisfurth, 2015). Therefore, adult literacy learning is crucial in preparing and enhancing knowledge and skills among the learners for better literacy practice and everyday survival in the 21st century. In view of this, it is necessary for literacy-learning providers and facilitators to be aware of the ongoing advancements in the area of literacy, for instance the shift from a single to a multiple view of literacy, and from a one-size-fits-all pedagogy to socially constructed and situated pedagogies.

The implication of this is that literacy-learning providers should reconsider their view of literacy and should adopt pedagogical approaches and practices that foster the ability of learners to learn independently. Instead of only focusing on the teaching of reading and writing skills, the facilitators should teach their learners to learn how to learn. The current practice in the research site of rote learning is not suitable for adult learners as they learn better through

practice. It was indicated by some learners in both LLPs that despite attending literacy classes, rote learning had not helped them to learn how to write and read for themselves; instead, the majority of the adult learners continued to depend on their facilitators and members of their respective communities to read and write for them.

Therefore, although the perception of adult literacy was not one of the foci of this study, it emerged as an important finding of the primary research question. Thus, this chapter concluded that the pedagogical practices used for teaching in non-formal adult literacy classes of both LLP-A and LLP-B were shaped by how the adult learner was perceived by the managers and the facilitators. Consequently, this perception influenced the managers and facilitators' view of literacy, adult literacy-learning and the way literacy was taught in class.

7.3 Positioning the findings within the study's theoretical framework

The theoretical framework of this study was based on viewing adult literacy as a social practice (LSP) and adult learning as experiential learning (EL). This framework was drawn from the literature on the 21st-century's conceptualisation of literacy and adult learning. I postulated that literacy is not a single universal set of skills, but rather multiple practices of reading, writing and numeracy in specific social contexts. Furthermore, adult literacy learning is based on helping the adult learners to improve their everyday literacy practices. This is in line with Rogers and Street (2012) who espouse that literacy is social practices that are ingrained in the daily activities of the people, and teaching literacy should involve guiding learners to improve their already existing practices. In view of this theoretical framework, pedagogy is considered as learner-centred.

My assumption on the above was that the facilitators in both LLPs would teach different literacies which were relevant to the learning goals of the adult learners and that their pedagogical practices would be contextualised through the life-worlds of the adult learners. In support of this, Rankin and Brown (2016) found that adult learner-centred pedagogy enhances learning by allowing learners to learn independently and creatively and to gain ownership of the learning process. This implies that the use of the learner-centred pedagogy is essential for helping the adult learners improve their practices without depending on the facilitators.

The findings of the study revealed that except for managers B1A, B2A and CDA 4A, all the other managers and facilitators of both LLPs conceived adult literacy in terms of the skills that relate to reading, writing and numeracy. This was a limited conceptualisation of adult literacy because in the literature, adult literacy is no longer viewed in single terms but rather in multiple

terms as consisting of various literacies (Prinsloo, 2013; Prinsloo & Street, 2014). It emerged from the findings that the facilitators were teaching school-based literacy skills and not the situated literacy practices as postulated by the LSP theory. Based on this practice the adult learners whose motivation for joining the adult literacy class was to improve their business-based literacy skills, expressed disappointment that they were compelled to learn skills which were irrelevant to their learning goals. This finding confirmed that literacy as a social practice had not been adopted and integrated by the literacy-learning providers of both LLPs in their adult literacy pedagogical practices

In terms of pedagogical practices, both the LSP and EL theories posit that pedagogy is socially situated and learner-centred. This means that knowledgeable adult literacy facilitators should use pedagogical practices that are learner-centred. In this study, facilitators dominated the teaching and learning activities. Their pedagogical practices involved dominant teacher-talk, and the use of expository and evaluatory teaching methods which were incorporated with drill exercises and repetitions. Similarly, these pedagogical practices were at variance with the theoretical framework of the study. Therefore, the study concluded that the participants in both LLPs had a limited view of the practice of pedagogy, which was not aligned to the 21st century's conceptualisation of the teaching and learning of literacy. Similarly, although much research has been conducted on the benefits of using the learner-centred pedagogy, this study revealed that in practice learner-centred pedagogy was not used in the LLPs in the Katete District. Teaching and learning remained teacher-centred.

7.4 Conclusions based on the research questions

This section presents the conclusions of the study by answering the research questions which were asked in chapter one.

7.4.1 Research questions

The research questions for this study were: How are pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes in the Katete District, and why they were used? In order to answer these research questions, I interviewed the managers and facilitators of the adult literacy-learning programmes. I also reviewed the documents that were used in adult literacy classes and conducted focus group discussions with the adult learners and observed the facilitators in class.

7.4.1.1 Research questions 1

How are pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes?

The findings revealed that pedagogical practices were used for teaching school-based literacy skills to adult learners. Different pedagogical methods were recommended by the participants for application in adult literacy classes, which included expository, discovery, participatory and evaluatory pedagogies. However, the findings indicated that in practice only the expository and evaluatory pedagogical methods were used. In particular, lecture pedagogy was the main pedagogical strategy that was used for teaching in all adult literacy classes of both the LLP-A and LLP-B. The application of these pedagogical methods was teacher-centred and was based on synthetic teaching. Although a few facilitators attempted to incorporate participatory teaching strategies, for instance dialogue, they quickly reverted back to lecture teaching. These practices were found to be contrary to the postulations of both the LSP and EL theories, and adult learning pedagogy which are all learner-centred.

Furthermore, in view of the fact that the facilitators indicated that they possessed knowledge of adult learning principles and how adult learners should be treated by their facilitators during class, I expected that this knowledge would shape the facilitators' pedagogical practices. To the contrary, my assumptions were proven wrong because teaching and learning activities remained dominated by the facilitators. In view of this, it was concluded that the pedagogical practices used did not meet the learning goals of the adult learners.

The findings of the study also revealed that the pedagogical practices used in adult literacy classes of both LLPs were compromised due to the teacher-centred manner in which they were applied. Three aspects were identified based on this compromise: (1) the application of pedagogical methods to teaching literacy, (2) the teaching aids used, and (3) the teaching-learning materials used. These are now discussed.

1) The application of pedagogical methods to adult literacy

The application of pedagogical methods to adult literacy was compromised in the LLP-A and LLP-B by the teacher-centred approach in which pedagogy was applied. This practice did not meet the learning goals of the adult learners. It was found that the teacher-centred pedagogy reduced learners to passive recipients of the messages and the information communicated by the facilitators in class. This practice is contrary to the expectations of adult learning pedagogy whose emphasis is on participatory and learner-centred learning (Radovan & Makovec, 2015). Therefore, the role of the facilitator is to facilitate learning by means of scaffolding learners in

areas where they face difficulties (Rogers & Horrocks, 2010). The implication of this is that when adult learning is dominated by the teacher, it becomes difficult to meet the respective learning goals of the adult learners. Subsequently, the pedagogical practices used for teaching become irrelevant, as was the case in LLP-A and LLP-B.

2) The pedagogical aids used

Competent facilitators use a variety of relevant teaching aids to support teaching and learning. This is important to adult learning because adult learners learn more by observing and practising their skills (Polson, 1993; Zepke, 2015). However, the findings of this study revealed that the expository or teacher-centred method was compounded by the use of limited teaching aids in the LLPs. In this study, the teaching aids that were used in both the LLPs were limited to the chalkboard, chalk, flipcharts and whiteboard markers. However, the most commonly used teaching aids were chalk and chalkboard because compared to other teaching aids, these teaching aids were more readily available. The literature (Rankin & Brown, 2016; Raelin, 2006; Rogers & Horrocks, 2010) postulates that teaching aids are important for facilitating learning, and when they are limited or absent there is the possibility that learning will be negatively affected. Therefore, the use of different teaching aids, especially those which are familiar to the learners should facilitate multiple learning strategies for adult learners who are involved in adult literacy classes. However, the findings of the study suggested that the adult literacy-learning facilitators had limited knowledge of the suitability of teaching aids for adult literacy learning.

3) The pedagogical materials

The findings demonstrated that the teaching-learning materials which were recommended and available in the research site were the Adult Literacy Functional Syllabus, the Instructor's Guide, the Adult Learner's Handbook, and the primers. This revealed that the materials available to the facilitators were based on decontextualised primer or book-based texts as opposed to materials that reflected the everyday practices of reading and writing of the learners. Additionally, it was found that most of these teaching-learning materials were up-to-date materials published in 2014, except the primer on Grow More Groundnuts which was published in 1974. However, despite being provided with updated teaching-learning materials, the findings revealed that the facilitators chose to use other decontextualised teaching-learning materials. Primary school-based literacy materials were preferred, which the participants claimed were more user-friendly in comparison to the materials that had been provided by the Department of Community Development.

My interpretation of this practice includes two conclusions: (1) it was an indication of the facilitators' lack of knowledge of how to use the teaching-learning materials properly; and (2), the content of the teaching-learning materials was irrelevant to the learning goals of the adult learners. However, it was confirmed by the facilitators during member-checking that their lack of pedagogical knowledge was the reason for their preference of the primary school-based literacy materials. Consequently, many facilitators were convinced that the content of the updated teaching-learning materials was not suitable for the needs of their adult learners. Therefore, this study concluded that the pedagogical practices used for teaching in adult literacy classes were irrelevant because they were teacher-centred and they ignored the learning goals and social contexts of the learners. This does not suggest that these learning materials were not suitable for adult learning, but the teacher-dominated manner in which they were used was what rendered them irrelevant.

7.4.1.2 Research question 2

Why are these pedagogical practices used in non-formal adult literacy classes?

The facilitators claimed that lecture pedagogy was easier to use when teaching literacy skills. This was an indication that the facilitators were more concerned with teaching than scaffolding the learners to learn how they could improve their use of literacy. This finding conforms to Rogers (2009) who found that expository teaching is commonly used in adult literacy classes because educators are more concerned with learning as a set of outcomes rather than learning as a process. Furthermore, they think that the learners always depend on the teacher. Additionally, Hamilton-Ekeke (2007) found that many educators choose expository teaching as the most effective means of teaching and learning because they believe that it makes learning more meaningful and enhances performance, which is based on outcomes. The facilitators in LLP-A and LLP-B were also more comfortable with this approach as it made them feel in control of the learning environment. This may also reflect a lack of confidence in their pedagogical abilities as participatory pedagogy allows for a great deal of independence among the adult learners who are encouraged to question what is said by the facilitator.

The study also revealed that the adult learners joined the literacy classes to eliminate illiteracy and ignorance, improve their business literacy skills, learn to interpret road signs and acquire health literacy skills. In view of this, the managers and facilitators from both the LLP-A and LLP-B did not address the adult learners' needs as they only focused on expository and evaluatory methods that did not take the particular social contexts of the learners into consideration. In my view, the learning goals of the adult learners should have guided the

facilitators to select the suitable pedagogical strategies to meet the learning goals of the learners. However, as already indicated, the findings indicated that in practice teaching and learning was teacher-centred. This means that the learning goals of the adult learners were ignored because they were compelled to learn the content which was prescribed by the facilitators. For this reason, the adult learners expressed their disappointment in the irrelevant literacy content.

The findings of the study also revealed the presence of three pedagogical determinants which include personal, professional and prescriptive determinants. Based on the face-to-face interviews with the managers and the adult literacy-learning facilitators of both LLP-A and LLP-B, the personal determinants consisted of: (1) the facilitator's perception or opinion of the adult learner; (2) the degree to which the facilitator was conversant with the use of a particular pedagogical method; (3) the facilitator's ability to recall adult learning pedagogy; and (4) the facilitator's previous teaching and learning experiences. The professional determinant was based on the nature of the training that the facilitator had received. For example, the facilitators whose previous training had been teaching school pupils transferred this experience to their teaching of literacy skills to adults. The prescriptive determinant was based on two aspects: (1) the pedagogical preference of the adult learners; and (2) the pedagogical methods that were prescribed by the teaching and learning materials that were used in adult literacy classes.

In practice, the facilitators largely depended on their personal preference for a particular pedagogy. This was influenced by the foregoing attributes of the personal and professional determinants of pedagogy. This practice involved the use of common sense which consisted of drawing on how they had been taught when they were either in college or high school. The facilitators indicated that their use of common sense involved perceiving the adult learner as an illiterate and ignorant person who needed to be taught literacy skills for the purposes of eliminating illiteracy and ignorance. This approach of determining pedagogy was contrary to professional practice because in the literature that was reviewed, pedagogy is determined by both content knowledge (CK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) (Kleickmann et al., 2013). Therefore, this study concluded that the facilitators' choice of pedagogy, which was based on a personal determinant that emphasised common sense, was a misconceived interpretation of pedagogy. This practice is unprofessional and is not beneficial for quality pedagogy and learning.

7.5 Limitations of the study

My choice of a qualitative study was guided by the primary research question of the study. I used two literacy-learning programmes to understand the pedagogical practices in adult literacy-learning classes in the Katete District. One programme was provided by an NGO called Tikondane and the other by the government Department of Community Development. In view of this, four data collection methods were used which included observations, focus group discussions, face-to-face interviews and document analysis. The challenge experienced during data collection and analysis was that the only documents that could be analysed on literacy were provided by the Department of Community Development. Tikondane did not make available the documents that they used in their adult literacy classes and they did not give a reason for this decision. This means that it was not possible to compare the teaching and learning materials that were used for teaching literacy by Tikondane and the Department of Community Development. However, this does not suggest that the findings were incomplete: the literacy content of the documents from the Department of Community Development provided insight into the literacies that were taught and how they were taught in adult literacy classes in the district because the Department of Community Development ran most of the literacy classes in the district.

The other limitation was the use of a case study design which does not provide for generalisations to be made for other parts of the country. Inadequate studies on pedagogy in adult literacy classes in Zambia does not only affect the Katete District but also other districts. Therefore, it would have been useful to extend this study to other districts in order to have a comprehensive understanding and to find broad-based solutions to the problem. However, it was not the aim of this study to generalise the findings of this study to other adult literacy-learning programmes.

7.6 Implications and recommendations of the study

The findings of this study were crucial because they helped to identify gaps, which needed attention to improve practice in adult literacy learning. These gaps included the facilitators' limited knowledge of literacy and the pedagogy of adult learning. In view of the research findings, the implications are outlined in terms of the literacy-learning providers, the facilitators' pedagogical practices in their teaching of literacy and their professional development as well as the implications for research.

7.7 Implications for providers of adult literacy-learning programmes

The findings of the study revealed that the pedagogical practices used in adult literacy classes were shaped by the limited conceptualisation of literacy. Consequently, the role of the facilitator was defined as imparting knowledge and skills. Therefore, the pedagogical methods that were used were teacher-centred. This means that the literacy-learning providers should reconsider their view of literacy for purposes of improving the way literacy is taught to their adult learners. It is evident that the limited conceptualisation of literacy impacted both the content of literacy which was taught and how it was taught. Failure to rethink the view of literacy will perpetuate the current practice which will further hinder the progress in the general provision of adult literacy learning.

It was also revealed that the participation of adult learners in adult literacy classes was often based on enticements which were linked to the perceived benefits that were likely to accrue to the illiterates once they had learnt how to read and write. In reality, this practice produced disappointments and frustration among some learners who stated that they had not experienced the positive changes that they were promised while attending literacy classes. The implication of this practice is that the literacy-learning providers did not regard non-formal adult learning as a voluntary learning programme which learners decided to join without any form of exaggerated enticements. Based on this practice they subtly compelled learners to participate in the literacy-learning programmes. This is contrary to the principle of adult learning that is based on voluntary participation (Merriam et al., 2012). This is one of the reasons that is attributed to the failure of many adult literacy-learning programmes in developing countries (Rogers, 2012).

The findings of the study revealed that the Department of Community Development focused on providing the teaching and learning materials without providing training to the facilitators on how to use the materials: literacy-learning that is textbook or primer based should address the needs of the learners and should include materials from their contexts. Consequently, the intended standardisation and quality of adult literacy-learning programmes were compromised in the research site.

7.8 Implications for facilitators' professional development

The findings of the study revealed that most facilitators participated in adult literacy-learning programmes because of a sense of communal responsibility to help others. They indicated that in order to achieve this they needed to be trained and retrained in adult learning pedagogy because the majority of facilitators were not trained and those who had been trained had

forgotten the relevant pedagogical methods. They indicated that the lack of training by the literacy-learning providers hindered the effective facilitation of adult literacy-learning programmes, especially for the untrained facilitators.

Furthermore, the findings from the classroom observations revealed that there was no significant difference in the pedagogical practices between the trained and untrained facilitators. All the facilitators relied on personal pedagogical preferences and specifically on how they had been taught when they were either in secondary school or college. This implies that there is a need to evaluate the training which is offered to adult literacy-learning facilitators because the continued use of undertrained facilitators will perpetuate the poor outcomes of literacy-learning programmes in the district. The adult learning pedagogy that is applied by the literacy providers is learner-centred pedagogy: the adult literacy-learning facilitators should be trained to use learner-centred pedagogy in their classrooms. This training should include identifying pedagogy which is relevant to beginner and advanced adult literacy learners. This is necessary because facilitators tended to treat and teach both beginner and advanced learners in the same way.

7.9 Implications for research on pedagogical practices

The field of pedagogy in adult literacy learning has remained under-researched. Most studies that I reviewed on adult literacy-learning evaluated the performance of adult literacy-learning programmes (Chisenga, 2013; Kalenda, 2014; Kamocha, 2011; Luchembe, 2016; Sumbwa, 2013) and dealt with issues of funding and policy (UNESCO, 2015; 2013a, 2013b, Unesco Institute for Statistics, 2013). Because I explored pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy-learning classes in the Katete District, the findings are limited to this context. Therefore, there is a need for more research to explore pedagogy in adult literacy-learning programmes in Zambia as a whole.

7.10 Recommendations for future studies

The findings of this study were based on a case study which does not allow for generalisation. Therefore, a broader study is suggested for gaining more insight on pedagogical practices in adult literacy classes in Zambia as a whole.

Furthermore, in chapter one it was indicated that adult literacy-learning programmes in the Katete District were performing poorly and pedagogy was not one of the reasons cited for the poor performance in the government's literacy reports (Ministry of Education Science Vocational Training and Early Education, 2012; National Assembly of Zambia, 2009, 2014).

Based on the findings of this study, the pedagogical practices that are used in adult literacy classes contribute to this poor performance. This is evidenced by the fact that both the managers and facilitators of both LLPs used pedagogical practices which did not incorporate the learning goals of the learners. This resulted in a feeling of disappointment among the learners. Therefore, an in-depth exploration of the relationship between the findings of the previous adult literacy assessments in the Katete District which established the poor performance of adult literacy-learning programmes in the district, and the pedagogical practices that are used in the teaching of literacy is suggested.

There is a need for further research to explore the influence of the facilitators' perceptions of the adult learner and the reasons why they adopt a teacher-centred pedagogy. The literature reviewed on pedagogy emphasised the importance of learner-centred pedagogy to improve teaching and learning in adult literacy-learning, however, the facilitators in LLP-A and LLP-B chose a teacher-centred approach.

The findings of this study revealed three pedagogical determinants that are personal, prescriptive and professional. The emphasis in the literature should be on making pedagogical decisions that are based on the CK and PCK as indicated earlier. Therefore, a study is suggested to explore the personal and prescriptive determinants of pedagogy because there is inadequate information on this subject in the literature.

7.11 Conclusion

The study concluded that despite the government's adult literacy-learning curriculum framework's recommendation that a learner-centred pedagogy should be adopted in all adult literacy-learning programmes in Zambia, the pedagogical practices that were used in both the LLPs were expository and evaluatory teaching methods and in particular the lecture strategy. These methods and strategies contradicted the theoretical framework of the study which postulated that pedagogy is both socially constructed and learner-centred. The manner in which these pedagogical methods were used, was inadequate to meet the learning goals of the learners. Additionally, the majority of the facilitators admitted that they lacked both CK and PCK in adult literacy learning. This was an indication that untrained facilitators were assigned teaching tasks for which they were not adequately prepared. Therefore, the provision of professional development to improve their practice is crucial or else inappropriate practices would be perpetuated. These include the top-down and teacher-centred approaches whose focus is on teaching the sounds of letters and words instead of the uses of reading and writing in real-life contexts. It is my hope that other researchers and literacy-learning providers will

use this study to improve practice in adult literacy-learning programmes in areas that experience similar challenges.

In terms of practice, the changing global context of literacy-learning implies specific changes in the teaching of literacy skills to adults. Therefore, the findings of this study are useful for modifying and developing new pedagogies for meeting the diverse aspirations of the adult learners. I also considered it useful for developing locally based solutions such as the use of community-based approaches for improving the teaching of literacy practices. Additionally, considering my position as a lecturer at the University of Zambia, who is involved in the professional training of adult educators, this study provides up-to-date information on the prevailing pedagogical practices in Zambia and informs the development of the appropriate learning content and pedagogical approaches for training adult educators.

In addition, although this was a qualitative case study conducted in a limited context, it remains relevant to lifelong learning in a wider context: realising the 2030 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) on youth and adult literacy in the Zambian context. Therefore, I envisaged that this study would provide information to the adult literacy practitioners in the country to reflect on the issue of pedagogy and to ensure the success of ALLP and other literacy interventions.

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Appendix A : Letter of permission to conduct a research-MCDSW

The Director
Community Development
Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare
Ministry Headquarters
Private Bag W252
Community House, Sadzu Road
Lusaka, Zambia.

RE: Permission to conduct a research in Katete District under your Ministry on non-formal adult literacy learning.

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Noah Sichula a PhD student at the University of Pretoria in the Department of Humanities Education. I hereby request for permission to conduct an academic research under your Ministry. The title of the study is: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes**. The purpose of the study is to understand how pedagogical practices are used for teaching in non-formal adult literacy education in Zambia. Your Ministry has been purposefully selected for its long history in providing non-formal adult literacy education programmes in Zambia. And Katete District has been selected for recording high levels of adult illiteracy in the country based on the 2010 census report of national housing and population.

This study regards literacy as social practices in which people use numeracy, reading and writing in their everyday lives. Pedagogical practices have been defined as strategies often used by facilitators to support teaching and learning. It has been established through research that pedagogical practices play an essential role in achieving the desired learning objectives and gains in the learners. In Zambia, the subject of pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy learning has not received adequate attention both in research and practice. There is inadequate information on pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy learning. Evidence from research and evaluation reports on the status of adult literacy education in Zambia show a practice of omitting information on teaching and learning strategies used. The focus is often times on statistics regarding the general performance of literacy learning programmes. The current general poor performance of adult literacy learning programmes have been attributed to several other factors with very little information on the contribution of teaching and learning strategies used. Therefore, it remains important to explore pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education and develop insight on what is happening and possibly produce knowledge which can be used to improve practice.

Data will be collected through interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis. Interviews will be conducted to collect information from the staff managing the provision of adult literacy learning programmes in the district and adult literacy learning facilitators. Focus group discussions will be used to collect information from literacy learning

participants and observations will be used to observe teaching strategies used by literacy facilitators during literacy learning sessions. Document analysis will involve collecting information from your literacy learning reports, curriculum, handbooks and policies on literacy learning.

Schedule of data collection activities

Date	Activity	Duration	Location
2 nd Week of October 2016)	Information meeting	1 hour per site	Literacy sites
3 rd to 4 th Week of October 2016	Focus group discussion with adult literacy learners Observing facilitators	1 hour 40 mins	Within a sub-centre in a neutral place Literacy session
1 st week of November 2016	Interviews facilitators	40 mins	A neutral place
	Interviews with managers	40 mins	A neutral place

Participation in this study will be voluntary and no participants will be compelled. All the participants will be protected from harm that may be as a result of this study. Pseudonyms and positions they hold in the ministry will be used for identification during analysis of data and report writing. With permission from the research participants, all written data and recorded interviews will be stored in a safe repository at the University of Pretoria and will be used for academic purposes only.

In case there are areas that may require clarification on this research, they can kindly be addressed to me and my supervisors using the details provided below. Your favourable consideration and a written feedback to this request will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

Signature.....

Noah K. Sichula (PhD Candidate)

University of Pretoria

Humanities Education

Mobile: +27715576568 or +260968743378

Email: snokenny@yahoo.com

Supervisor

Dr Gerhard Genis

University of Pretoria

Humanities Education

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Appendix B : Informed consent for the Director-MCDSW

Informed consent

I _____ (your name) Director – Community Development agree/ do not agree (circle your decision) to allow Noah Sichula to conduct an academic research under this Ministry. The research title being: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.**

I understand that the research will involve interviewing officers in charge of adult literacy learning and facilitators. With permission from the participant's interviews will be tape recorded. It will also involve conducting focus group discussions with adult learners, observing facilitators as they teach and analysis of documents on literacy learning such as handbooks, reports, curricula and policies.

I understand that the researcher adheres to research ethics of:

- a. Voluntary participation: in which participants willingly decide to participate and may withdrawal at any time.
- b. Informed consent: implying that participants have to be kept informed of every stage of the research and purposes, and must consent to their participation.
- c. Privacy: referring to anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents should always be observed.
- d. Trust: meaning that information should be factual and respondents will take the responsibility for any form of deception in the research process and its outcomes.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix C : Letter of permission granted to conduct the study-MCDSW

All communications should be addressed to the Director

Telephone (260) 211 227308
Fax: (260) 211 227308



REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

In Reply please quote
No.....

MINISTRY OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND SOCIAL WELFARE

DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
COMMUNITY HOUSE
P.O. BOX 31958
LUSAKA

19th October, 2016

The Ethics Committee
Faculty of Education
University of Pretoria

RE: LETTER OF CONSENT- NOAH SICHULA

This is to confirm that through the Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare Department of community Development has given consent to Mr. **Noah Sichula** to conduct an academic research whose title is exploring pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy education.

The research will involve interviewing officers in charge of adult literacy learning and facilitators, and it will also involve conducting Focus Groups Discussions with adult learners, observing facilitators as they teach and analysis of documents on literacy learning such as handbooks, reports, curricula and policies.

I therefore wish Mr. Sichula a success as he undertakes this assignment.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'S Phiri'.

Steven Phiri
Director- Community Development
For/PERMANENT SECRETARY
MINISTRY OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT SOCIAL WELFARE.

c.c. The District Community Development Officer
KATETE

Appendix D : Letter of permission to conduct a research-Tikondane

The Director
Tikondane,
Katete District, Zambia.

RE: Permission to conduct a research in your organization on non-formal adult literacy learning

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Noah Sichula a PhD student at the University of Pretoria in the Faculty of Education Department of Humanities Education. I hereby request for permission to conduct an academic research in your organization. The title of the study is: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes**. The purpose of the study is to facilitate the improvement of teaching in non-formal adult literacy education by understanding pedagogical practices used for teaching. Your organization has been purposefully selected for being the main current active NGO in providing adult literacy education in Katete District.

This study regards literacy as social practices in which people use numeracy, reading and writing in their everyday lives. Pedagogical practices have been defined as strategies often used by literacy learning facilitators to support teaching and learning. It has been established through research that pedagogical practices play an essential role in achieving the desired learning objectives and gains in the learners. In Zambia, the subject of pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy education has not received adequate attention both in research and practice. There is inadequate information on pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education. Evidence from research and evaluation reports on the status of adult literacy education in Zambia show a practice of omitting information on teaching and learning strategies used. The focus is often times on statistics regarding the general performance of literacy learning programmes. The current general poor performance of adult literacy learning programmes have been attributed to several other factors with very little information on the contribution of teaching and learning strategies used. Therefore, it remains important to explore pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education and develop insight on what is happening and possibly produce knowledge which can be used to improve practice.

Data will be collected through interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis. Interviews will be conducted to collect information from the staff managing adult literacy learning programmes in your organisation and adult literacy learning facilitators. Focus group discussions will be used to collect information from literacy learning participants and observations will be used to observe teaching strategies used by literacy learning facilitators during literacy learning sessions. Document analysis will involve collecting information from your literacy learning reports, curriculum, handbooks and policies on literacy learning.

Schedule of data collection activities

Date	Activity	Duration	Location
2 nd Week of October 2016)	Information meeting	1 hour	Literacy learning site
3 rd to 4 th Week of October 2016.	Focus group discussion with adult literacy learners	1 hour	A neutral place
	Observing facilitators teaching literacy	40 mins	Literacy session
1 st Week of November 2016.	Face to face interviews With facilitators	40 mins	A neutral place
	Face to face interviews with staff managing literacy learning programmes	40 mins	A neutral place

Participation in this study will be voluntary and no participants will be compelled. All the participants will be protected from harm that may be as a results of this study. Pseudonyms and positions they hold in the organizations will be used for identification during analysis of data and report writing. With permission from the research participants, all written data and recorded interviews will be stored in a safe repository by my supervisors at the University of Pretoria and will be used for academic purposes only.

In case there are areas that require clarification on this research, they can kindly be addressed to me and my supervisors using the details provided below. Your favourable consideration and a written feedback to this request will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

Signature.....
 Noah K. Sichula (PhD Candidate)
 University of Pretoria
 Humanities Education
 Mobile: +27715576568 or +260968743378
 Email: snokenny@yahoo.com

Supervisor
 Dr Gerhard Genis
 University of Pretoria
 Humanities Education
 gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Appendix E : Informed consent for the Director-Tikondane

Informed consent

I _____ (your name) Director of Tikondane agree/ do not agree (circle your decision) to allow Noah Sichula to conduct an academic research in this organization. The research title being: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.**

I understand that the research will involve interviewing officers in charge of adult literacy learning and facilitators. With permission from the participant's interviews will be audio tape recorded. It will also involve conducting focus group discussions with adult learners, observing acilitators as they teach and analysis of documents on literacy learning such as handbooks, reports, curricula and policies.

I understand that the researcher adheres to research ethics of:

- a. Voluntary participation: in which participants willingly decide to participate and may withdrawal at any time.
- b. Informed consent: implying that participants have to be kept informed of every stage of the research and purposes, and must consent to their participation.
- c. Privacy: referring to anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents should always be observed.
- d. Trust: meaning that information should be factual and respondents will take the responsibility for any form of deception in the research process and its outcomes.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix F : Letter of permission granted to conduct the study-Tikondane



Noah K. Sichula
University of Pretoria
Department of Humanities Education
South Africa.

Dear Sir,

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEACH IN OUR ORGANISATION ON NON-FORMAL ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION.

Your letters to us on the **above** mentioned subject above received by us, was given positive consideration, by management, and thus accept your said request.

You are very welcome to do your said research and thanks for considering our institution for your research. Again we will be grateful to receive you and go about your research.



Yours: CATHERINE MUNYANSHO (on behalf of the director Elke Kroeger-Radcliffe).

Thank you.

Appendix G : Information letter and informed consent - Literacy managers

Information letter and informed consent for staff managing adult literacy learning programmes

Consent to participate in a PhD study

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Noah Sichula a PhD student at the University of Pretoria in the Department of Humanities Education. I hereby request whether you will be willing to participate in this research. The title of the research is: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes**. The purpose of the study is to facilitate the improvement of teaching in non-formal adult literacy learning by understanding how pedagogical practices are used for teaching in non-formal adult literacy education.

This study regards literacy as social practices in which people use numeracy, reading and writing in their everyday lives. Pedagogical practices have been defined as strategies often used by literacy learning facilitators to support teaching and learning. It has been established through research that pedagogical practices play an essential role in achieving the desired learning objectives and gains in the learners. In Zambia, the subject of pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy education has not received adequate attention both in research and practice. There is inadequate information on pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education. Evidence from research and evaluation reports on the status of adult literacy education in Zambia show a practice of omitting information on teaching and learning strategies used. The focus is often times on statistics regarding the general performance of literacy learning programmes. The current general poor performance of adult literacy learning programmes have been attributed to several other factors with very little information on the contribution of teaching and learning strategies used. Therefore, it remains important to explore pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education and develop insight on what is happening and possibly produce knowledge which can be used to improve practice.

Schedule of data collection activities

Date	Activity	Duration	Location
2 nd Week of October 2016	Information meeting	1 hour at each site	Literacy learning sites (Sub-centres A, B,C,D)
1 st Week of November 2016	Face to face interviews with you	40 minutes	Within a sub-centre in a neutral place

If you are willing to participate in this study, you will be interviewed on this subject at your convenient time and place. With your permission the interview will be tape audio recorded for

easy capturing of information, analysis and interpretation. The information you will provide will be used for school purposes only.

I would also like to analyse documents on literacy learning such as the handbooks you are using, curricula, evaluation reports and policies. This information will also be used for school purposes only and your identity will be protected.

You are not compelled to participate in this study if you do not want. However, if you are voluntarily willing to participate, kindly fill in the consent form provided below.

Informed consent

I _____ (your name) agree / do not agree (circle your decision) to participate in this academic research entitled: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.**

I understand that the research will involve interviewing me and with my permission it will be audio tape recorded. I will also be observed as I facilitate during the literacy learning sessions. I understand that the researcher adheres to research ethics of:

- a. Voluntary participation: in which I have willingly decided to participate and can withdrawal at any time.
- b. Informed consent: implying that I have to be kept informed of every stage of the research and purposes, and I must consent to my participation.
- c. Privacy: referring to anonymity and confidentiality of my participation.
- d. Trust: meaning that the information I provide should be factual and I will not take the responsibility for any form of deception in the research process and its outcomes.

Participant

Signature: _____

Date: _____

In case you may have questions on this research, feel free to contact me or my supervisors using the details provided below.

Yours faithfully,

Signature.....

Noah K. Sichula

PhD Candidate

University of Pretoria

Department of Humanities Education)

Mobile: +27715576568 or +260968743378

Email: snokenny@yahoo.com or noah.sichula@unza.zm

Supervisors

Dr. G., Genis

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Appendix H : Information letter and informed consent for literacy facilitators

Consent to participate in a PhD study

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Noah Sichula a PhD student at the University of Pretoria in the Department of Humanities Education. I hereby request whether you will be willing to participate in this research. The title of the research is: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes**. The purpose of the study is to facilitate the improvement of teaching in adult literacy learning by understanding how pedagogical practices are used for teaching in non-formal adult literacy education.

This study regards literacy as social practices in which people use numeracy, reading and writing in their everyday lives. Pedagogical practices have been defined as strategies often used by literacy learning facilitators to support teaching and learning. It has been established through research that pedagogical practices play an essential role in achieving the desired learning objectives and gains in the learners. In Zambia, the subject of pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy education has not received adequate attention both in research and practice. There is inadequate information on pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education. Evidence from research and evaluation reports on the status of adult literacy education in Zambia show a practice of omitting information on teaching and learning strategies used. The focus is often times on statistics regarding the general performance of literacy learning programmes. The current general poor performance of adult literacy learning programmes have been attributed to several other factors with very little information on the contribution of teaching and learning strategies used. Therefore, it remains important to explore pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education and develop insight on what is happening and possibly produce knowledge which can be used to improve practice.

Schedule of data collection activities

Date	Activity	Duration	Location
2 nd Week of October 2016)	Information meeting	1 hour at each site	Literacy learning sites (Sub-centres A, B,C,D)
1 st Week of November 2016)	Face to face interview with you	40 minutes	Within a sub-centre in a neutral place

If you are willing to participate in this study, you will be interviewed on this subject at your convenient time and place. With your permission the interview will be audio tape recorded for

easy capturing of information, analysis and interpretation. You will also be observed as you facilitate during the literacy learning sessions.

You are not compelled to participate in this study if you do not want. However, if you are voluntarily willing to participate, kindly fill in the consent form provided below.

Informed consent

I _____ (your name) agree / do not agree (circle your decision) to participate in this academic research entitled: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.**

I understand that the research will involve interviewing me and with my permission it will be audio tape recorded. I will also be observed as I facilitate during the literacy learning sessions.

I understand that the researcher adheres to research ethics of:

- e. Voluntary participation: in which I have willingly decided to participate and can withdrawal at any time.
- f. Informed consent: implying that I have to be kept informed of every stage of the research and purposes, and I must consent to my participation.
- g. Privacy: referring to anonymity and confidentiality of my participation.
- h. Trust: meaning that the information I provide should be factual and I will not take the responsibility for any form of deception in the research process and its outcomes.

Participant

Signature: _____ Date: _____

In case you may have questions on this research, feel free to contact me or my supervisors using the details provided below.

Yours faithfully,

Signature.....
Noah K. Sichula
PhD Candidate
University of Pretoria
Department of Humanities Education)
Mobile: +27715576568 or +260968743378
Email: snokenny@yahoo.com or noah.sichula@unza.zm

Supervisors
Dr. G.Genis
gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Appendix I : Information letter and informed consent for literacy learners

Consent to participate in a PhD study

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Noah Sichula a PhD student at the University of Pretoria in the Department of Humanities Education. I hereby request for your voluntary participation in this research. The title of the research is: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes**. The purpose of the study is to understand how pedagogical practices are used for teaching in non-formal adult literacy education. It is hoped that this understanding may help in facilitating an improvement in teaching in non-formal adult literacy learning programmes in Zambia.

This study regards literacy as a social practice in which people use numeracy, reading and writing in their everyday lives. Pedagogical practices have been defined as strategies often used by literacy learning facilitators to support teaching and learning. It has been established through research that pedagogical practices play an essential role in achieving the desired learning objectives and gains in the learners. In Zambia, the subject of pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy education has not received adequate attention both in research and practice. There is inadequate information on pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education. Evidence from research and evaluation reports on the status of adult literacy education in Zambia show a practice of omitting information on teaching and learning strategies used. The focus is often times on statistics regarding the general performance of literacy learning programmes. The current general poor performance of adult literacy learning programmes have been attributed several other factors with very little information on the contribution of teaching and learning strategies used. Therefore, it remains important to explore pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education and develop insight on what is happening and possibly produce knowledge which can be used to improve practice.

Schedule of data collection activities

Date	Activity	Duration	Location
2 nd Week of October 2016	Information meeting	1 hour at each site	Literacy learning sites (Sub-centres A, B,C,D)
3 rd to 4 th Week of October 2016	Participation in a focus group discussion	1 hour	Within a sub-centre in a neutral place

If you are willing to participate in this study, you will be asked to participate in a focus group discussion on adult literacy learning. With your permission the discussion will be audio tape recorded for easy capturing of information, analysis and interpretation. You are not compelled to participate in this study if you do not want. However, if you are willingly to participate, kindly fill in the consent form provided below.

Informed consent

I _____ (your name) agree / do not agree (circle your decision) to participate in this academic research entitled: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.**

I understand that the research will involve my participating in a focus group discussion on this subject and with my permission it will be audio tape recorded.

I understand that the researcher adheres to research ethics of:

- a. Voluntary participation: in which I have willingly decided to participate and can withdrawal at any time.
- b. Informed consent: implying that I have to be kept informed of every stage of the research and purposes, and I must consent to my participation.
- c. Privacy: referring to anonymity and confidentiality of my participation. That I will not disclose to any person whatever will be discussed during the focus group discussion and confront any of my fellow participants after the focus group discussion for whatever they may say contrary to my view.
- d. Trust: meaning that the information I provide should be factual and I will not take the responsibility for any form of deception in the research process and its outcomes.

Participant

Signature: _____ Date: _____

In case you may have questions on this research feel free to contact me or my supervisors using the details provided below.

Yours faithfully,

Signature.....

Noah K. Sichula

PhD Candidate

University of Pretoria

Department of Humanities Education

Mobile: +27715576568 or +260968743378

Email: snokenny@yahoo.com or noah.sichula@unza.zm

Supervisors

Dr. G., Genis

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Appendix J : Information letter and informed consent for the interpreter

Consent to participate in a PhD study

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Noah Sichula a PhD student at the University of Pretoria in the Department of Humanities Education. I hereby request for your voluntary participation in this research. The title of the research is: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes**. The purpose of the study is to facilitate the improvement of teaching in adult literacy learning by understanding pedagogical practices used for teaching in non-formal adult literacy education.

This study regards literacy as a social practices in which people use numeracy, reading and writing in their everyday lives. Pedagogical practices have been defined as strategies often used by literacy learning facilitators to support teaching and learning. It has been established through research that pedagogical practices play an essential role in achieving the desired learning objectives and gains in the learners. In Zambia, the subject of pedagogy in non-formal adult literacy education has not received adequate attention both in research and practice. There is inadequate information on pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education. Evidence from research and evaluation reports on the status of adult literacy education in Zambia show a practice of omitting information on teaching and learning strategies used. The focus is often times on statistics regarding the general performance of literacy learning programmes. The current general poor performance of adult literacy learning programmes have been attributed several other factors with very little information on the contribution of teaching and learning strategies used. Therefore, it remains important to explore pedagogical practices being used in non-formal adult literacy education and develop insight on what is happening and possibly produce knowledge which can be used to improve practice.

Schedule of data collection activities

Date	Activity	Duration	Location
2 nd Week of October 2016)	Information meeting	1 hour at each site	Literacy learning sites (Sub-centres A, B,C,D)
3 rd to 4 th Week of October 2016)	Participation in a focus group discussion	1 hour	Within a sub-centre in a neutral place

If you are willing to participate in this study, you will be asked to participate in a focus group discussion as an interpreter. With your permission the discussion will be audio tape recorded for easy capturing of information, analysis and interpretation. You are not compelled to participate in this study if you do not want. However, if you are willingly to participate, kindly fill in the consent form provided below.

Informed consent

I _____ (your name) agree / do not agree (circle your decision) to participate in this academic research entitled: **Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes.**

I understand that the research will involve my participating in a focus group discussion as an interpreter and with my permission it will be audio tape recorded.

I understand that the researcher adheres to research ethics of:

- a. Voluntary participation: in which I have willingly decided to participate and can withdrawal at any time.
- b. Informed consent: implying that I have to be kept informed of every stage of the research and purposes, and I must consent to my participation.
- c. Privacy: referring to anonymity and confidentiality of my participation. That I will not disclose to any person whatever will be discussed during the focus group discussion and confront any of my fellow participants after the focus group discussion for whatever they may say contrary to my view.
- d. Trust: meaning that the interpretations and information I will provide should be factual and I will not take the responsibility for any form of deception which may occur in the reporting of the research findings.

Participant

Signature: _____ Date: _____

In case you may have questions on this research feel free to contact me or my supervisors using the details provided below.

Yours faithfully,

Signature.....

Noah K. Sichula

PhD Candidate

University of Pretoria

Department of Humanities Education

Mobile: +27715576568 or +260968743378

Email: snokenny@yahoo.com or noah.sichula@unza.zm

Supervisors

Dr. G., Genis

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Appendix K : Interview protocol for literacy learning providers and managers

Date:
Time of interview:
Name of literacy learning provider:
Name of literacy learning centre:
Interviewer:
Position of interviewee:
Length of interview:

Title: Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes

Questions

1. Share with me your experiences of providing adult literacy learning in this community.
2. Kindly share with me what you know about adult literacy education.
3. What form of literacy is provided by your organization?
4. What influences your provision of this form of literacy learning?
5. How do you develop the learning content for this form of literacy?
6. What teaching strategies do you use for teaching literacy?
7. How do you use these strategies to meet the learning needs of your learners?
8. How do you decide on the strategies to use for teaching?
9. Explain the relevance of these strategies to adult literacy learning?

END OF INTERVIEW

Appendix L : Interview protocol for literacy-learning facilitators

Date:
Time of interview:
Name of literacy learning provider:
Name of literacy learning centre:
Interviewer:
Position of interviewee:
Length of interview:

TITLE: Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes

Questions

1. Kindly share with me your experiences of facilitating literacy learning at this centre.
2. Please tell me what you know about adult literacy learning?
3. What form of literacy do you teach and why?
4. How do you come up with what to teach in literacy learning?
5. What teaching strategies do you know?
6. How do you use them in teaching literacy?
7. Why do you use these strategies?
8. How do you decide on the strategies to use?
9. How do these strategies help your teaching literacy and meeting learner's goals?

END OF INTERVIEW

Appendix M : Focus group discussion protocol

Date:
Time of discussion:
Name of literacy learning provider:
Name of literacy learning centre:
Discussion prompter:
Participants:
Length of discussion:

TITLE: Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes

Questions

1. How did you join the literacy learning class at this centre?
2. What literacy are you taught?
3. How are you taught?
4. What difficulties do you face in the way you are taught?
5. How do you benefit from what you are taught?
6. What does your participating in literacy learning classes mean to you?
7. What could be a suitable method of teaching you?

END OF DISCUSSION

Appendix N : Observation protocol

Date:

Time observation (a) Start (b) Stop..... (c) Length.....

Name of institution:

Name of literacy learning centre:

Name of observer:

Position of participant:

Title: Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes

Descriptive notes	Observation notes	comments
a) Literacy participants		
b) Literacy instructor		
c) Learning venue		
d) Lesson		
e) Language of instruction		
f) Pedagogical strategies		
g) Application of pedagogy		

Appendix O : Document analysis protocol

Date:

Name of institution:

Name of literacy learning centre:

Title: Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes

1.	Type of document <ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Literacy curriculum○ Literacy learning handbooks○ Literacy policy○ Literacy learning reports
2.	Physical characteristics of the document <ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Handwritten○ Typed
3.	Status of the document <ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Published○ Unpublished
4.	Author of the document: Date and year of document:
5.	Audience the document written for:
6.	Document information on literacy learning and pedagogical practices used: What does it say about: <ul style="list-style-type: none">a) The form of literacy learning providedb) How the literacy learning content is developedc) Pedagogical practices used for teaching literacyd) The relevance of pedagogical practices usede) Criteria for deciding on pedagogical practices to usef) The sociocultural environment and literacy learning provision