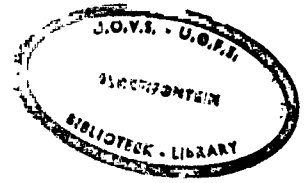


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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NON-FORMAL EDUCATION, FORMAL
EDUCATION AND THE PRIVATE SECTOR IN A SYSTEM FOR THE PROVISION
OF EDUCATION FOR THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA.**

by

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.1 ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

The beginning of the eighties brought about an unprecedented interest in manpower development in the Republic of South Africa (RSA). This period saw the establishment of the National Manpower Commission (NMC) and a subsequent formal appeal to private bodies to contribute to manpower development through the Manpower 2000 campaign.

Secondly an investigation into the education system was undertaken by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) at the request of the Central Government. The Committee under the Chairmanship of Prof. De Lange, Rector of the Rand Afrikaans University, commenced its investigation in 1980 with very formidable terms of reference:

"..., in collaboration with all interested parties, (your Committee) must conduct a scientific and co-ordinate investigation and within 12 months make recommendations to the Cabinet on:

- (a) guiding principles for a feasible education policy in the RSA in order to
 - (i) allow for the realization of the inhabitants' potential,
 - (ii) promote economic growth, and
 - (iii) improve the quality of life of all the inhabitants of the country,
- (b) the organization, controlling structure and financing of education,
- (c) machinery for consultation and decision making in education,
- (d) an education infrastructure to provide for the manpower requirements of the RSA and the self-realization of its inhabitants, and
- (e) a programme for making available education of the same quality for all population groups.

The investigation must be conducted in the light of, among other things, the present educational situation, the population composing South African society and the means that can be made available in the national economy.

The investigation must cover all levels of education, i.e. pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary."

(Prime Minister's request to HSRC, 1980).

The Work committee for Education System Planning, one of 19 sub-committees formed to investigate the education system for the RSA, had amongst its terms of reference the following to examine:

"... current world trends with regard to formal and non-formal education within education systems, with particular projections regarding the contributions that the private sector can make to non-formal education".

(HSRC, 1980, p 005)

The investigation, would as can be seen, range over a very wide field, involve a large number of researchers and collate a large number of submissions from all quarters, academic, public and private.

The third major event was the publication of the White Paper on the NMC report on High Level Manpower (HLM) which recommended some far-reaching changes for manpower development in the RSA. Of significance for the proposed research is the role implied for private bodies and that of the Government:

"In the free enterprise system, in-service training (including artisan training) is the task of the private sector, while the State plays mainly a guiding and regulatory role, ..."

(NMC, 1981, p 4)

To establish the extent and nature of in-service training in the private sector the Chairman of the NMC Dr H.J.J. Reynders requested the National Productivity Institute (NPI) to undertake a national survey of in-service training in the RSA. This survey, as is indicated in the introduction to the questionnaire sent to some 8000 private enterprises, would obviously influence Government policy concerning in-service training:

"The future discussions on the question of training and development between Government, Industry, Commerce and Employee organisations, and the subsequent course of developments in this area, will be

based on this research and its interpretation."

(National Productivity Institute, 1980, p 1)

The survey indicates the urgency to establish the current state of affairs in training and development in the RSA and implies Government concern regarding the manpower requirements of Commerce and Industry.

Fourthly, and of major importance for training in the RSA, is the Department of Manpower Utilisation Draft Manpower Training Bill and subsequent act following on the important Wiehahn and Riekert Reports, which implies a new era in the labour field in the RSA. Of importance in the Draft Bill is provision for:

"... the training of manpower and for that purpose to provide for the establishment of a national training board; to provide for the recognition of skilled persons as artisans; to provide for the establishment and registration of group training centres; to provide for the imposition of levies for training purposes; to provide for the registration of contracts of apprenticeships, private training centres and training schemes, ..."

(Department of Manpower Utilisation, 1980, p 1)

In-service training, which falls under the broader umbrella of non-formal education, would seem to be perched on the edge of a new dispensation, in which it could develop alongside formal education. It is however important to realize that non-formal education may not be the panacea to all the problems of the educational system of a country, nor is it possible for one country to simply transfer the non-formal education practised in another to its own system. An in depth study has to be made before such a transfer or an adapted version of it could be applied.

In August 1981 the Minister of Manpower introduced the Manpower Training Bill in the Assembly hailing it as a milestone in manpower development in the RSA. The Bill which was welcomed by the Opposition, provides for the following:

"Combining of the various training acts into one act. Providing for a new tripartite body - the National Training Board - composed of the State, employers and unions.

Providing for retraining committees which are required to be representative of all employer and employee groups in respect of all aspects of training.

Providing for a manpower development fund".

(Daily News, 12 August 1981)

The background of the proposed research is therefore one of a period marked by re-thinking of policy regarding educational provision, manpower development, financing of education and training, mobility of workers (especially upward mobility) from all race groups in the South African multi-national society, as well as possible re-structuring of the macro organizational structure of education.

1.1.1 Education in the limelight

The twentieth century has been marked by the development of educational systems with as initial objectives the attainment of universal primary education. In a country where this is achieved the cry goes out for universal secondary education, followed by a growing demand for further and higher education. Two interrelated phenomena are largely responsible for this: the first is that the socio-economic advantages associated with the attainment of an educational level, will disappear as soon as one approaches the target of universal education at that level, and the second is that, because of this, the pressure to continue to the next higher level will gradually increase in order to benefit again from the socio-economic advantages that will now be associated with the next higher level. The pressure for more and more years of education will set in. (Emmerij, 1974, p 337) It follows that educational systems, in particular the formal sections, have to expand initially horizontally and later on vertically to meet the rising demand for education. Brembeck, on the strategic uses of formal and non-formal education, stresses the fact that the formal system has been stretched beyond its capacity with tasks it is not well suited to handle, while the non-formal system is underutilized in terms of its unique capacities. It is of paramount importance to realize the capabilities of the educational tools at one's disposal.

"Formal education has grown and is growing horizontally at a rapid

rate, which causes overloading of the system."

(Brembeck and Thompson, 1974, p 54)

This overloading can be seen particularly in the following areas of educational systems:

- Administratively,
- Too much emphasis on the academic side and too little on the vocational side, the former being less expensive.

In the RSA the situation concerning educational provision for all its inhabitants and manpower to secure acceptable economic growth is causing great concern. The flurry of activities referred to earlier and the legislation being passed concerning training are a case in point.

Dr K Hartshorne, chairman of one of the HSRC's 19 work committees was quoted as saying that the HSRC's investigation into education is the single most important event in South Africa's education history:

"Because after years of discounting what was being said by the organised profession, Government had in the end to appreciate that there was indeed a crisis which could be damaging to the whole of South Africa.."

(Daily News, 21 July 1981)

It is generally felt that the educational system in the RSA should be examined and a new deal planned for all the people towards a better quality of life. At the inception of the HSRC's investigation the Prime Minister Mr P.W. Botha was quoted as saying:

"My Government and I are prepared to accept a programme whereby the goal of equality in education for all population groups can be attained as soon as possible within South Africa's economic means."

(Daily News, 21 July 1981)

The crisis in education in the RSA is recognised and full use of all aspects of educational provision should be made. The present research is an attempt to analyse but one aspect of educational provision namely, non-formal education for the transition from school to work and in-service training. The research seems well timed in that it will be examining an essential part of educational provision at a time when great expectations are being cherished concerning the potential contribution of

non-formal education to "... compensate for the inherited inequalities of the present system ..."

(Daily News, 21 July 1981)

1.1.2 Non-formal education - panacea or myth.

On the surface, non-formal education shows various attractive possibilities, probably foremost amongst these are its distinguishing characteristics. Over and above formal education, according to Coombs:

"... non-formal education ... viewed as a whole (has the advantages of)* its much greater flexibility, versatility and adaptability than formal education for the diverse learning needs of virtually any kind of clientele, and for changing as the needs change."

(Coombs, 1976, p 282)

Non-formal education's attractive possibilities, integrated with the formal education system of a country with the latter catering for those aspects of a country's needs for which it is best suited, could serve as a basis to plan for the educational requirements of that country. Vermaak in a paper on the implications for the macro-structure of the educational system in the RSA, indicates that the macro-educational structure must be a combination of non-formal and formal education in the same educational programme pointing out the unique possibilities of non-formal education:

"Vanweë nie-formele onderwys se besondere toepassings-moontlikhede in 'n snel ontwikkelende onderwysstelsel van 'n ontwikkelende land met geen verpligte onderwys nie, kan hierdie vorm van onderwys met groter sukses as formele onderwys in sekere unieke onderwys-behoeftes van die ontwikkelende bevolkingsgroepe in Suid-Afrika voorsien."

(Vermaak, 1980, p 10)

What makes nfe so attractive as to warrant an investigation of this nature are the alternatives to schooling that it seems to offer. The Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts in a

* Contents in brackets by the author.

publication entitled: Alternatives to Schooling: a glossary of educational methods, sums up the various methods which could be used listing five strategies and about forty different methods ranging from the simple, i.e. peer learning to the highly sophisticated use of computers. Other appealing characteristics are its proximity to work and filling a specific need as is stated in the Center's definition of nfe. Nfe is generally seen as utilitarian and tied to some productive activity. The Center puts great emphasis on the adaptability required of nfe.

"Flexibility is another virtue. A programme which loses its usefulness also loses its subscribers, and mercifully vanishes."

(CIE University of Massachusetts, 1972, p 1)

Losing its subscribers, suggests that community participation in planning nfe might well be the essence, of the matter.

The most popular arguments in favour of nfe, which may be of value to South Africa, include the following: (as listed by Harbison)

- Formal education is becoming prohibitively more expensive.
- Large proportions of the school age population in many countries will have no access to formal education (RSA included).
- Non-formal education may be one means of counterbalancing some of the distortions created by formal education. The latter blocks access to those without proper credentials to positions of wealth, status and power.
- In the past because of its heterogeneity, disorganisation and lack of central control, non-formal education afforded greater opportunity for innovation.
- Without non-formal education the benefits of formal education will not be fully realized, i.e. extension and enrichment by post school non-formal educational activities.

(Brembeck and Thompson, 1974, p 139)

To this Hilliard adds that nfe is:

- Education designed to reach large numbers of people where they live;
- Education that can be highly diverse in organization, funding and management, and
- Designed to pay its own way through increased employment, productivity and social participation.

As stated earlier, nfe seems to have attractive possibilities. It can however only play its proper role in a system of educational provision if the relationship between it, formal education and private bodies is based on a sound foundation which allows each section to function in the sphere it is best suited to and have equal status.

1.1.3 A role for private bodies*

In the introduction to this chapter, reference was made to the South African Government's appeal to private bodies to support the Government's efforts in the field of training and development of workers. Tax incentives are used to exhort private bodies to set up training centres, make use of group training schemes, use public training centres and other acceptable forms of training to meet the manpower needs of the country. Introducing the Manpower Training Bill in parliament in August 1981 Mr Botha, Minister of Manpower said that the country was experiencing a serious shortage of trained workers and had large numbers of unskilled workers who did not work. "Besides this, it has been calculated that about 200 000 new workers a year are entering the labour market, some properly equipped but the majority not sufficiently equipped for the demands of a modern technological century," he said. (Daily News, 12 August 1981) The implications are that the Government expects private bodies to play a significant role in the training of their own manpower. The question is just how big a role can private bodies play and to what extent are they prepared to finance, or contribute to the financing of training. The NPI investigation referred to could be useful to determine

* The term 'private bodies' as used here includes the private sector and organisations offering nfe for the private sector.

to what extent in-service training is taking place in the private training system involving private bodies which is unregistered (therefore not qualifying for tax concessions). In-service training which is registered with the Department of Manpower, can be easily monitored as annual statistics must be filed with the Department referred to, from which one can establish to what extent private bodies are playing a role in non-formal education, registered with the Department of Manpower.

The private sector, because of their proximity to work, could play an important role in nfe for various reasons, thus Brembeck advocates that:

"Non-formal education's proximity to work, immediate action and the opportunity to put to use what is learned makes non-formal education a better mode where the object is to change immediate action to create new action."

(Brembeck and Thompson, 1974, p 54)

Hartshorne in the 1978 University of the Witwatersrand Senate lectures, indicated that in the field of technical education, industry can often do a more competent job and also more economically than the school or college and that we should seek more flexible arrangements between school and work, so that each does what it is equipped to do. (Witwatersrand University, 1978, p 150) In the research undertaken particular attention will be paid to the role private bodies could play in the development of manpower.

1.1.4 A system for the provision of education

A system for the provision of education embraces three interdependent, but clearly identifiable fields, namely informal, formal and non-formal education. In a system in equilibrium the fields referred to are in phase with one another. In the South African system too much emphasis is seemingly placed on formal education.

Within a system for the provision of education a number of constituent structures can be distinguished. These include

- * the educational structure;
- * the structure for supporting services;

- * the physical structure;
- * the training structure;
- * the structure for financing;
- * the control and administrative or management structure.

(HSRC Main Comm. Report, 1981, p 91)

In analysing a system for the provision of education no single structure can be seen as independent from any of the others, because of the inter-twinement of the structures. Although this study will be directed towards the analysis of some of the structures their inter-relatedness with the other structures and the whole of the system is acknowledged.

The interaction between the fields of education in a system for the provision of education in its particular format depends on the degree of sophistication and differentiation of both fields. The points of interface between the fields are the structures referred to, for example the educational structure makes provision for various educational possibilities as well as for the possibility of both vertical and horizontal flow of pupils through the system from formal to non-formal education and back.

(HSRC, Main Comm. Report, 1981, p 95)

The former and its degree of sophistication can influence the latter and vice versa.

1.1.5 The manpower shortage problem in the RSA

The manpower shortage problem in the RSA appears as a dichotomy. Manpower shortages occur in the skilled and higher occupations, yet there is high unemployment amongst the unskilled and semiskilled labour force. The educational structure of non-formal education and, in particular, the relationship between it and formal education are key elements in the supply and demand of trained manpower in any country. In the RSA the educational structure for non-formal education has to cope with a major inflow of uneducated unemployed as well as the normal flow from the formal educational structure. The manpower shortage is aggravated by the imbalance between the sources for manpower training and the trainability of the available manpower. At this stage the former exceeds the latter. The educational structure of non-formal education would have to be

developed in such a way that the output of manpower is maximized, taking cognisance of the input material which is of a diverse nature.

1.2 AIM OF THE STUDY AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This is a study in the field of Comparative Education and as such will deal with the patterns of provision which have evolved out of the local situation as influenced by the historical, social and geographical factors which affect communities. In particular it will include the relationships between the various providers, the legal, political and financial framework and the real centres of initiative and policy in a system of provision of education.

The problem to be investigated is to suggest guidelines for a relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector in the system for the provision of education in the RSA.

This problem is interpreted in the following context and restricted to:

- (a) The provision of nfe in the proficiency section of nfe defined by the Urban Foundation as '...the opportunity to acquire skills, knowledge and attitudes which are related to economic activities and employment and which are acquired within a non-formal framework' (Urban Foundation, 1982, p 49), but with awareness of the fact that basic, professional and community education are auxiliary components to a successful non-formal education strategy.
- (b) Nfe for transition from school or unemployment to work and in-service training in the organised commercial and industrial areas.
- (c) As the education system in the RSA developed within the British sphere of influence in Africa, particular reference is made to nfe in the United Kingdom and some Third World countries to establish the relationships between formal and non-formal education.
- (d) A cross section of the private sector (commercial and industrial) will be analysed to establish what relationships exist

between nfe, formal education and the private sector and to gauge the views of the private sector.

In an attempt at solution of this problem it is postulated that a distinguishable pattern of involvement of governments directs the relationships between nfe, formal education and the private sector through selective government

- (a) policy statements;
- (b) legislation; and
- (c) finance;

dependent on governments' interpretation of manpower and other requirements. Secondly, such policy statements, legislation and finance are influenced to varying degrees by private bodies, dependent on governments' views of private bodies.

1.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In the first instance the research is conducted through analysis of primary sources in the field of non-formal education, formal education and private bodies as well as literature on the fields stated.

Use will be made of the accepted methods of comparison in the field of Comparative Education.

Some use will be made of available statistics supplied by international, public and private bodies.

In some instances reliance is placed on personal experience in respect of short-term concentrated non-formal education programmes and visits to public and private bodies.

1.4 TERMINOLOGY

1.4.1 The term: relationship

Relationship is used here in the sense of what one thing (entity) has to do with another. In the study to be undertaken the term 'relationship'

would therefore mean what non-formal education has to do with formal education at the points of interaction, which appear to be the providers, the legal and political framework and the structures inherent in a system for the provision of education. This study is a search for meaningful connections of the educational, organisational and administrative, financial and training structures, established by Governments and the private sector. In the literature the term 'linkage' is used frequently instead of the term 'relationship'. In this study the two words will be taken as interchangeable. The available models of linkage which will be described later in the text will also be used in drawing comparisons.

1.4.2 Private bodies

As stated in paragraph 1.4.1 the term relationship would further imply that the research is aimed at what the private bodies have to do with non-formal education and formal education with reference to the educational, organisational and administrative, financial and training structures and with the providers through policy, legal and financial statements.

The term 'private bodies' includes a wide spectrum of individuals and organisations. In this research the interpretation of 'private bodies' will be restricted to refer only to Commerce and Industry and organisations and individuals involved in non-formal education which prepare people for involvement in Commerce and Industry. All semi-state undertakings are looked upon as part of the private sector.

1.4.3 A system for the provision of education

When the term 'system', is used it would be to indicate a complex whole, a set of connected things or parts or an organized body of material or immaterial things. Applied to education one would refer to identifiable parts, i.e. informal, formal, alternative and non-formal education in terms of the characteristics, objectives and forms these parts of education display in serving society. One would further have to establish whether the parts have relationships/structures to function, such as the educational, the physical, the training, the financing, control and administrative and the supporting services structures. With regard to a system for the provision of education one has to ask which

factors would play a role in determining the format of the parts and the structures. As Stone has indicated, education in a universal and particular format is an intertwinement of structures which involves non-educational structures such as the State (or ideology), the Church and the Community. According to Harris (1980, p 15) the term 'system' implies a hierarchy of responsibilities and of authority and a formal relationship of one activity to another, or of one agency to another..." A system for the provision of education is thus "a complex of elements in mutual interaction".

1.4.4 Further course of study

In undertaking this study it is imperative that a sound knowledge of the theoretical foundations of non-formal education will be acquired. This will be pursued in the first part of this thesis.

The second part will be devoted to establishing what determines the relationship between, firstly, nfe and formal education and, secondly, the relationship between these two and the private sector.

The third part of the study will be to explore the development of government policy through legislation and selective financing and its influence on the relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector in the RSA, United Kingdom and some Third World African countries.

The fourth part of this investigation will deal with the response from a cross section of commerce and industry to establish their varying degrees of influence on the relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector.

The final section will deal with the formulation of some guidelines for the relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector in the RSA.

Particular attention will be given to the development of the education patterns in both countries in response to the private sector's requirements through training initiatives and some comparison will be done. Harris, in 1980, expressed some thoughts on Comparative Adult Education, its practice, purpose and theory. (Harris, 1980, p 11 - 14). He out-

lined the different approaches to the study of comparative adult education listing as alternatives from the practice of comparative education the regional approach, the problem approach and the study by 'level' of education approach, approaches familiar to the student of comparative education. He further distinguishes the determination of the major factors which have shaped the system of adult education approach and the approach in which the institutional aspect of adult education, e.g. 'Universities and adult education' is emphasized. Finally he lists two further approaches to study in the field of Comparative Adult Education. The first is the continuing operation of drawing up some more precise taxonomy of adult education and the second is the comparison of patterns of provision, i.e. the relationship of providing agencies within any community. In the study undertaken here the last approach referred to will be pursued for the following reasons, as pointed out by Harris:

The term 'pattern of provision', defined by Harris, refers to the total system which serves a community with its institutions, organizations and activities for education. "In its most complete sense it will include the relationships between the various providers, the legal and financial framework and the real centres of initiative and policy," (Harris, 1980, p 13). The 'pattern' will have evolved out of the local situation, the historical, social and geographical factors influencing each national community. It is the opinion of the author that the study of the national pattern of provision, in the RSA the UK and some African Third World Countries, of non-formal education would be one of the most meaningful approaches to this problem. It is anticipated that broad trends will become visible in each of the countries and that meaningful, usable patterns which could benefit the RSA, could be derived.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

In order to practice a discipline it is necessary to know what the foundations or the body of knowledge essential to that discipline is. To speak then of nfe as part of education it must have a body of knowledge which makes it possible to classify it as education and a further part of its theory which makes it distinctive enough to be different from other sections of education to warrant its classification. In the first part to this study an attempt will be made to analyse nfe through the writings of those who have had experience of nfe over many years and have become acknowledged in this field. Such well known names as Grandstaff, Coombs, Ahmed, Papagiannis, Bhola, Harbison, La Belle and many others will be referred to.

2.1 INTRODUCTION - EARLY PERSPECTIVES ON NFE

In 1974 the Institute for International Studies in Education (ISSE) of Michigan State University (MSU) published a series of team reports, of the work conducted through the Programme of Studies in Non-formal Education. The programme had as one of its primary objectives to build a systematic knowledge base about nfe, the second being the distribution of useful materials obtained through the research in developing areas of the world. As indicated in these reports considerable time was spent on the history of non-formal education, its categories and strategies, economics and learning. Other reports dealt with comparisons of nfe programmes, designing nfe models, nfe administrative alternatives and plans for participant training in nfe. In the efforts to study the historical perspectives on nfe it was soon realized that it would not be possible to analyse educational practices over a wide variety of historical locations and times which could have displayed patterns of characteristic locations of similar educational functions. The reasons for this were firstly the difficulty to construct a typology of educational objectives and secondly devise a theoretically useful typology of educational locations. It was realized that at that time 'a general theory of non-formal education is not within our grasp'. (Grandstaff, 1974, p 7). The research programme to achieve its objective of building a systematic knowledge base about nfe based its efforts to develop a general theory on a limited

number of paradigms of location of function. This means that recommendations made as to what schooling would be appropriate to achieve certain educational objectives had to be qualified.

One basis selected to study nfe was to relate the concept of nfe to the concept of development and the reason for this was that the emphasis on nfe alternatives to formal schooling 'can be related to a major reconstruction of the concept of development now being carried out in international assistance agencies, such as AID, the World Bank and UNESCO, within the countries that are recipients of development assistance and within that portion of the academic community concerned with problems of development'. (Grandstaff, 1974,p 11). This choice proved very fortuitous as will be seen later in this chapter where the importance of the integration of nfe in development programmes is highlighted. Secondly as education is usually an instrument towards some general social goal, rather than an end-in-itself linking it with development to study it, seems justified. The researchers in nfe identified some dimensions of focus for nfe which are problem areas in development. Seven variables were suggested as indicated in the following table:

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Relevance</u>
Cost	A search for educational modes that couple effectiveness with low per capita unit cost.
Programme duration	A significant desideratum for nfe programmes, is that they be of as short as possible time duration and that they contain frequent completion points.
Basis in need	Primary emphasis on programmes with objectives that have a clear and immediate relationship to existing human need.

VariableRelevance

Aspirations of participants	Attention was focussed on cases that make the greatest provision for allowing the aspirations of the participants to function as powerful formative elements in programme planning.
Linkage to employment	Employment is considered a major imperative in any development effort and could provide an important focus for inquiry and planning in nfe.
Decentralized planning and alteration	Nfe provides an excellent conceptual rubric for educational approaches that maximize decentralization of design and planning and alteration-in-use.
Distribution	Nfe programmes and objectives that anticipate the widest possible distribution were focussed on.

(Grandstaff, 1974, p 12 - 14)

A development model which flows from emphasis on increased economic productivity and, by implication Gross National Product (GNP), was suggested for the research. It would involve capital formation, agricultural production, industrialization, institution building, education, modernization, manpower training and professional class. It was however necessary to extend the model as it did not incorporate some factors or variables which were emerging as important. These other variables proved, in later years, to be important for successful nfe as they affected developments which are closely linked and interdependent. Grandstaff and others on the research programme found that the following factors had to be considered in planning for development in the developing countries:

- '1. The need to deal with broadly humanitarian and survival needs, always an important part of development strategy, has taken on even greater urgency in recent years.

2. Increasingly, people in the LDCs are insisting on playing a central role in initiation and planning for development — on playing a more decisively proactive role than they have in the past.
3. As the life situations of the general population of the LDCs have begun to figure more importantly in planning, it has become clear that development efforts must give a central place to problems of distribution of wealth.
4. In primarily rural LDCs, it is becoming apparent that comprehensive plans of rural development are often preferable to approaches that build in urbanization.
5. We are coming to recognize that employment is a problem and a goal in its own right and not just a component of the general problem of economic growth.
6. Several factors converge to generate a major imperative for decentralization of planning in the development process.'

(Grandstaff, 1974, p 27)

In subsequent research in the importance of involvement of local communities in their development and this became more and more apparent. The recommendations from this study, by Grandstaff and others, were that for successful study of non-formal education, to establish a systematic knowledge basis for it, the programmes which exhibit as many as possible of the following characteristics would have to be analysed. These programmes tend to have the most tangible results:

- '1. Low per capita or per instructional unit costs.
2. Limited time duration, with frequent completion points at which students may terminate.
3. A clear base in immediate human needs — whether economic, political, social, health, nutritional, etc.
4. A recognition of, and responsive accommodation to, the aspirations of the participants.

5. A solid linkage to real employment opportunities, especially those such as labor-intensive agriculture and industry.
6. A working provision for decentralized planning and alteration at the level of use.
7. A high potential for distribution of whatever commodities are associated with the program — education, economic gain, improved health, better nutrition, etc.'

(Grandstaff, 1974, p 41)

It is pointed out by Grandstaff that nfe is no magical solution to problems. At best it is a somewhat more promising approach to some problems than formal schooling. Nfe should be thought of as a specific and not a general remedy for educational shortcomings.

In the second report in the Programme of Studies in Non-Formal Education of the ISSE particular attention was given to the historical patterns and problems of education to delineate nfe. Within the context of the report: '..."formal education" is, in general, intended as a name for education that is discrete and indirect and "non-formal education" is, in general, intended as a name for education that is integral and direct.' (Grandstaff, 1974, p 49 - 51). Firstly the distinction is drawn between education that is integral i.e. a consequence of participation in a milieu, that is "incidental", "non-deliberate" and "invisible" and that which is discrete, deliberate and visible as education. Secondly the difference between education which is direct - for this purpose - and education which is indirect - for some later purpose is clarified. Grandstaff points out that the definitions of formal and non-formal education are for purposes of identifying and discussing historical paradigms and may not be of much use for other purposes such as describing an educational arrangement. Furthermore there may be situations where a non-formal education programme may be discrete and direct or integral/indirect.

Grandstaff and others attempted further to establish some gross correlations between a posited movement along the axis of non-formal to formal education and several conventional historical dynamics.

(Grandstaff, 1974, p 52 - 53)

In general, formal education
has been associated with:

Geo-political units that are:

Large,
Volatile,
Culturally diverse,
Organized as states.

Societies in which there are
identifiable class systems or
some complexity.

Economies in which private owner-
ship is the pre-dominant mode
for the distribution of property.

Systems of production that utilize
large amounts of mechanical energy.

Societies in which there is
considerable differentiation
between individuals and between
groups in regard to economic,
social and political activities.

Societies in which linear and
analytic modes of thought are
the norm.

Societies in which fragmented
and encapsulated "roles" are the
modal form of personality
organization.

Literate societies.

Economies possessing substantial
amounts of surplus wealth.

In general, non-formal education
has been associated with:

Geo-political units that are:

Small,
Stable,
Culturally homogeneous,
Not organized as states.

Societies in which there are no
class systems, or class systems
having little complexity.

Economies that are communal,
or mixed, with communal owner-
ship as the predominant mode.

Systems of production that
utilize small amounts of
mechanical energy.

Societies in which there is
little differentiation between
individuals and between groups
in regard to economic, social
and political activities.

Societies in which global and
relational modes of thought are
the norm.

Societies in which integrated
and wholistic "selves" are the
modal form of personality
organization.

Non-literate societies.

Economies having little surplus
wealth (subsistence economies).

The practical significance of the correlation, according to Grandstaff, is of the following nature: if a particular developmental scheme involves, for example, the homogenization of culturally diverse sub-cultures, then on the basis of the historical patterns, formal education would seem to be the most effective though not the most efficient way of attacking the problem. On a more general level in subsistence economies non-formal modes of education are more appropriate than formal ones. Some further use of the correlations, according to Grandstaff, is that they are directly related to four recurrent problems characteristic of the study of educational history and he makes the following observations:

The problem of conservation and change - By his definitions of nfe and formal education, formal education seems to be associated with dynamic movements in societies while non-formal education seems to be associated with stasis.

The problem of differentiation - Roughly, formal education seems to be associated positively with the degree of differentiation, while nfe seems to be associated negatively with the degree of differentiation or, stated differently, the greater the degree of differentiation the greater the incidence, duration and frequency of formal education.

The problem of technology - As technologies increase in interconnectedness, education becomes increasingly formal.

The problem of formation of consciousness - When the formation of consciousness takes place at the techno-economic level it is most frequently within the domain of nfe, while the formation of consciousness at the level of personality is most frequently associated with formal education.

Although a large number of other approaches were used in the study of nfe only one further one will be discussed here. Grandstaff and his co-workers remarked upon the fact that in the historical movement of cultures there is a coincidence of formalization of educational provisions and such cultural phenomena as increasing differentiation, in political and economic affairs, the expansion and complexity of economic systems and so on. (Grandstaff, 1974, p 60). They remark upon the

following - that education is mostly reactive rather than proactive - the more complex a society is, the more prominent and extensive schooling is in that society - increased symbolization in a society expands the formalization of schooling and in almost all historical instances the emergence of the State as a mode of political organization has led to formalization of education.

From the studies by Grandstaff and his co-workers some valuable insight into the occurrence and manifestation of nfe was gained. Further insight can be obtained from the work by Bhola almost a decade later.

In 1983 Bhola in his efforts to put nfe into perspective attempted to group the issues surrounding nfe into four categories namely:

definitional and identity issues;
policy issues;
institutional issues; and
curricular issues

(Bhola, 1983 p 46)

In exploring the theoretical foundations further this basis will be used, augmented by other views.

2.2 NFE : DEFINITIONAL AND IDENTITY ISSUES

In this section definitional issues of nfe and how it is different from formal education and informal education will be dealt with.

To characterise non-formal education the World Bank (1980) definition used, is quoted here as it distinguishes between formal education, nfe and informal education. This definition distinguishes amongst these concepts along two dimensions - that of modes of delivery and instructional objectives:

'Modes of delivering education - formal, non-formal and informal - are conceived today not as alternatives but as complementary activities within a single system. Formal education - the institutionalized, graded and hierarchically structured education

system covering primary, secondary and tertiary levels - is the most prominent mode of delivery. Informal education - unorganized lifelong process by which everyone acquires knowledge, skills and attitudes through experience and through contact with others - provides an important foundation, but it cannot function as a substitute for formal or non-formal education and training. Non-formal education - organized and systematic learning activity carried on outside the formal system - is neither an alternative nor a shortcut to the rapid education of a population. Rather, non-formal education and training provides a second chance for learning to those who missed formal schooling; it enables the rural or urban poor, within programs of 'integrated development', to acquire useful knowledge, attitudes and skills, and affords a wide array of learning activities directly associated with work'.

(World Bank, 1980, p 16)

Regarding this definition Bhola points out that it should be noted how the three forms of education differ. It is presented here in table format:

	<u>Mode of delivery</u>	<u>Instructional objectives</u>
<u>Formal education</u>	Highly formalized institutions with established methods and forms of instruction and evaluation.	To prepare their students for future life through grading and certifying of graduates for jobs and status.
<u>Informal education</u>	Social institutions of family, peer groups, mass media and culture. The instruction is in the nature of a symbiosis between learner and the environment.	Intergenerational transfer of values and skills.
<u>Non-formal education</u>	Organized but not fully and formally institutionalized; it is systematic but not routinized. The context of its delivery is basically out-of-school. Not the sole property of 'educational' institutions.	Objectives are utilitarian and immediate.

Bhola points out further that, although this attempt clarifies the issues at conceptual level, in practice confusion remains as to where to draw the line between nfe, informal and formal education since nfe tends to be labelled as including everything that the formal education system does not do and the informal education cannot be depended upon to deliver. (Bhola, 1983, p 48). He however stresses that:

'The term non-formal education should be reserved for short-term classes, systematic problem - oriented training activities and teaching of social and political skills in the spirit of Coombs and Ahmed and World Bank.'

In many instances e.g. in India and Indonesia, accelerated, part-time systems of primary education have been established as alternatives to formal school systems. These are often, according to Bhola, misnamed non-formal education where it could be classified as alternative formal education (AFE). This would clarify the definitional issue to delimit non-formal education. Bhola's own definition falls largely in the category of attempts dealing with the two dimensions of modes and objectives. As early as 1974 Coombs and Ahmed formulated a useful and widely used definition of nfe: 'Non-formal educationis any organized, systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults as well as children' (Coombs and Ahmed, 1974 p 4). This definition refers to a third dimension of the definitional issue, namely the recipients of non-formal education. Coombs and Ahmed acknowledge that nfe has selected target groups.

Other attempts at defining non-formal education are done by drawing a comparison between non-formal education and formal education by delineating formal education.

Thus Paulston defines non-formal education follows:

'....non-formal education includes any structured, systematic, non-school, educational and training activities of relatively short duration, where sponsoring agencies seek concrete behavioral change in fairly distinct target populations.'

(Paulston in Brembeck and Thompson, 1974, p 65)

Harbison defines non-formal education as:

'....skill and knowledge generation taking place outside the formal schooling system...'

(Brembeck and Thompson, 1974, p 5)

Brembeck uses the same approach but includes

'....non-formal programs which are sponsored by formal educational institutions.' and '....purposeful attempts to educate towards some specific goals, under the sponsorship of an identifiable person, group, or organisation.'

(Brembeck and Thompson, 1974, p xvi)

La Belle places more emphasis on the target population when he says:

'Non-formal education refers to organized, systematic out-of-school activity designed to provide learning experiences for a selected population.'

(La Belle, 1975, p 278)

Shukla stresses the purposefulness of non-formal education:

'....non-formal education is education intentionally given outside the formal system.'

(Shukla, 1974, p 130)

Bowes and Fisher refer to non-formal education as:

'Education for which learners are not enrolled and registered'

(Lowe, 1975, p 24)

Coombs, in a further extended definition, says:

'....we define non-formal education as any organised educational activity outside the established formal system - whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity - that is intended to serve identifiable learning clientele and learning objectives,'

(Kidd, undated, p 23)

Hartshorne views non-formal education from the second chance point of view:

'Non-formal education out of the school is seen variously as dealing with "the unfinished business of the primary and secondary schools", as "recuperative action", a "rescue operation", the opportunity for a "second chance".' 'In the short term it is all this; in the long term it is much more. I believe - a permanent complement, supplement, support and sometimes alternative to the formal systems of education as we know them today.'

(University of Witwatersrand, 1978, p 150)

The Main Committee Report on the HSRC Investigation into Education states that non-formal education

'..is education that proceeds in a planned but highly adaptable way in institutions, organisations and situations, outside the spheres of formal and informal education, for example in-service training in the work situation.'

(HSRC, 1981, p 92)

By examining these definitions of non-formal education some common features of non-formal education emerge. In some cases reference is made to formal education without specifying what formal education entails but implying that in mode formal and non-formal education differ. In most systems of provision of education, there is no clear distinction in the educational structure as to where formal education ends. Often what is classified as non-formal education leads to the acquisition of a formal qualification and would, according to Bhola, fall under alternative formal education. Most definitions refer to the term structured, organized, objective, planned or a synonym of these terms which is in keeping with the fact that education is intentional. In most cases the recipients of the education are identified. Without recipients education cannot take place and it is therefore essential that this should be part of a definition. In the fourth instance school leaving age is not a criterion for defining non-formal education as in most countries people leave school before the required age. To refer to the adaptability of non-formal education as an essence unqualified, could imply that education in the formal sector of education does not have this characteristic. In the analysis so far it seems that the only aspects which could be used in defining non-formal education are firstly the fact that it is intentional, and secondly the requirement that to have education there must be

a recipient and thirdly that nfe has modal characteristics which may differ from formal education and informal education.

Without going into too many details it needs to be pointed out that non-formal education is by no means a term accepted by all. Marien finds the distinction between formal and non-formal education a misleading distinction. He proposes instead a model of the educational complex with "all organizations or parts of organizations involved with the formal instructional services that purportedly enhance the learning process of students".

(Brembeck and Thompson, 1974, p 66)

In describing non-formal education it seems acceptable not to attempt distinguishing it from formal education, but to rather see it as a partner to formal education in a system for the provision of education.

An aspect which is not mentioned in the definitions given above and is seldom used in the non-formal context of education is that the 'ties between the individual who is free to choose and the provision of non-formal education are direct' (HSRC, 1981, p 94). The individual chooses. This aspect is an essence which is particular to non-formal education. Non-formal education is then that section of a system for the provision of education from which an individual may choose what intentional revealing of reality (werklikheidsontsluiting) he wants to experience to satisfy a need(s), where and when he requires it. Whether he will be allowed to do so depends on a number of circumstances, e.g. policy, availability etc.

Further terms which are used in this field, include non-school education, continuing education, lifelong education, recurrent education and others. These distinctions will not be drawn here.

Having examined some definitions of nfe it seems appropriate to examine the identity issues surrounding nfe. Firstly, concerning the modes of non-formal education, the research undertaken by Brembeck and Thompson, in establishing the modal-defining characteristics of non-formal education provides insight into non-formal education at a glance. The range within each variable is apt to be rather wide. In table format:

Non-formal education

Variable

Relatively low degree of structure;
seldom graded in time and content;
little interrelatedness of components.

Structure

Usually task or skill centred;
dictated by functional needs of participants.

Content

Short-term, present-time orientation; time and gain
closely joined; often part-time and nocturnal study;
flexible timing of activities

Time

Unco-ordinated, fragmented and diffuse; voluntary
organisations predominate; decisions often made at
programme level.

Control

Low visibility, may be on the job, at home; partici-
pants bear fairly low costs; high efficiency of
locale utilization, i.e. functionally related to
learning.

Locale

Great variation but stress is on resocialization,
acculturation, and the learning of practical skills
and knowledge to be used in work or community situa-
tion. Terminal, closed-ended. Seeks to bring dis-
tinct groups of people into conformity with
principles and practices of another group- usually an
agency or employer. Seeks to supplement or comple-
ment formal schooling.

Functions

Payoffs tend to be tangible, immediate or short-term
gains related to work or daily life: i.e. increased
material well-being, productivity, self-awareness
and/or power to control environment.

Rewards

Teacher often helps student to interact with and
master the material to be learned and applied;
content centred; methods are relatively flexible and

Method

Non-formal educationVariable

related to application and performance- standard needs.

Learners are from all age groups, i.e. not age or place-defined. Job mobility concerns, predominate. Great variety of teacher qualifications and motivations.

Participants

Great variation in cost per programme and per student. On a cost/benefit basis there is little gained by non-formal education programmes.

Costs

In the non-formal section of provision of education it was noted that the educator in non-formal education helps a student interact with the material to be learned or applied. Instruction is often content centred. Methods are relatively flexible and related to application and performance - standard needs. To gain insight in the form non-formal alternatives to schooling take, a review of the research undertaken by the University of Massachusetts Center for International Education provides a comprehensive summary. This research divides non-formal education into the following modes with examples:

(Massachusetts, 1972, p 1 - 45)

ModesExamples

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 1. Individualisation strategies | Programmed learning, modularisation
mini courses, recurring education. |
| 2. Education and work | National training organisation work-
centred training and education |
| 3. Community based learning | Street academies, bush academies,
co-operative schools, penal education |
| 4. Technology centred | General media, radio, computers etc |
| 5. Attitude-change oriented | Leadership training, life and
survival skills, animation rurale |

The second definitional characteristic of nfe, namely instructional objectives and its diversity can be illustrated by referring to some wide ranging examples. To educational planners non-formal education seemed like an unexpected gift which could be relied upon to achieve what formal education could not or has not completed. Seriously though, it is often the case that non-formal education is looked upon as the panacea to the shortcomings of formal education. In his arguments for emphasis on non-formal education, Harbison states that non-formal education offers a second chance to sectors of the population as 'Large proportions of school age population in many countries will have no access to formal education'.

(Brembeck and Thompson, 1974, p 6 - 7)

La Belle, in an article on: Goals and strategies of non-formal education in Latin America states that:

'Non-formal education directed toward marginal and oppressed populations refers to organised out-of-school activities designed to enhance the participants' decision-making power and socio-economic status. These goals suggest that non-formal education programs must not only add to an individual's skills, knowledge and attitudes but also attend to the rules and structures in the wider social system enabling the new behaviour to be used and established. Hence non-formal programs must be as concerned with fostering learning as they are with creating opportunities to transfer and apply what is learned.'

(La Belle, 1976, p 328)

Non-formal education has a task therefore, not only restricted to acquiring knowledge, skills and attitudes but to their application as well.

Development, technological and other, is often credited to non-formal education as is explained by Brembeck when he refers to the development of American agriculture.

'Most breakthroughs in the plant and animal sciences came out of classrooms, laboratories and experimental stations. In themselves they would not have revolutionized American agriculture. Beyond this formal system and limited to it was the non-formal which operated through extension programs. It was this structure which

penetrated the infra-structure of agricultural production.'

(Brembeck and Thompson, 1974 p 60)

Rehabilitation is a further example of our objectives for non-formal education. When Bangladesh became independent some 300,000 women were left without families and without means of support. A government programme was launched to develop the secluded women of Bangladesh socially, mentally and educationally so that they could become more self reliant, independent and self-supportive.

(Hoque, 1973, p 16 - 17)

From the examples referred to, it can be gauged that the objectives (intentions) of non-formal education range over a wide spectrum from government inspired rehabilitation to individually derived needs.

The Urban Foundation developed a useful classification of the objectives of non-formal education:

Compensatory education - that area of knowledge education which is usually associated with a school system; not necessarily the identical subject matter which children study.

Proficiency education - the learning of those skills which will be of value in a work situation but not including tertiary levels of vocational training.

Community education - the learning of knowledge and skill important to the adult for his personal and organisational involvement but which is outside of academic education at the level of schools.

Professional education - continuing education in those areas of education normally met at tertiary level.

(Urban Foundation, 1981, p 1-2)

The following case concerned with nfe curriculum development in India, described by Moulton, illustrates the range of objectives of a nfe project rather well. In June 1973 India's Central Advisory Board of Education called for the development of a system of nfe for the 15 to 25 year age group which would include functional literacy and broader development.

The tentative goals for the project were to include: (1) to enable adults to gain a basic understanding of their environment, (2) to enable them to participate in the local economy and thus improve their way of life, (3) to equip them functionally and attitudinally to raise a family and operate a household, and (4) to encourage a positive set of attitudes towards themselves, their fellow-men and their society. (Moulton, 1978, p 307). The scheme would serve as compensatory, proficiency and community education. Moulton's research on the acceptability of such a scheme indicated that a curriculum has to be designed in two phases - the first to engender the need for self-fulfilment and the second for functional learning.

The third dimension of the definition of nfe which deals with the target populations of nfe will be illustrated through some examples from nfe programmes initiated through a variety of providers.

The target population is heterogeneous and includes a full spectrum of human beings. Illiterate adults, unemployed youths and prison inmates are but a few examples of the target populations for non-formal education. Planners of non-formal education programmes have to take into account the educational, philosophical, psychological (learning), social and cultural nature of the group of children, adolescents, adults and retired people they intend the programme for. To illustrate this Pyper quotes from the 1977 Botswana Report: nfe is

'....aimed at serving a great variety of learning needs of different groups in the population, both young and old,..' and 'aimed at benefitting particular groups of the local population such as farmers, craftsmen and entrepreneurs; also unemployed out-of-school youth.'

(Pyper, 1981, p 2 - 5)

The objectives of a non-formal education programme for the same group/population can shift emphasis as the needs change or if development has reached a certain level. Hiratsuka as quoted by Paulston, discussing non-formal education in Japan in 1971 pointed this out:

'As Japan moves toward a 'post-industrial society', non-formal education programs are beginning to shift from a skills-training focus to one on social adjustment and lifelong education.'

(Paulston, 1972, p 2 - 5)

Often target populations, seemingly ideal for non-formal education, for example out-of-school unemployed youths, often do not respond to training courses as it is employment they want rather than more training. Havelock, as quoted by Mietus, found that in further training a target group consisting of managers, therefore more homogeneous in their need, was highly motivated to undertake further training as they wished to know how to better their organisations. Furthermore the contents of non-formal education had a better chance of acceptance when it was similar to what the student had learned and been rewarded for in the past.

(Mietus, p 242 - 3)

The issues surrounding the question of who provides nfe and the freedom of choice of the individual will be looked at under the next section which deals with policy issues.

As working definitions for nfe and formal education in this thesis the following formulations will be used:

Non-formal education is generally defined as organized education programmes, not fully and formally institutionalized, systematic but not routinized in a context of delivery basically out-of school, chosen by an individual to meet his needs in collaboration with the organizers.

(Compare Vermaak, 1985, p 415)

Formal education is seen, as described by Coombs, as 'the highly institutionalized, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured 'education system', spanning lower primary school and the upper reaches of the university'.

(Coombs and Ahmed, 1974, p 8)

Informal and alternative formal education have already been described earlier in this paragraph.

2.3 POLICY ISSUES

Having dealt with the definitional issues, Bhola turned next to policy issues in an attempt to bring this rather thorny issue into perspective. Policy issues have also been raised by people such as Papagiannis in his well known article on the demystification of nfe. Modern day critics of nfe have labelled it in less flattering terms. Proponents of nfe see it

as a positive and useful aid in development while critics see it as restricting e.g. to class and preventing mobility. In this paragraph the policy issues on nfe will be analysed as they are important to this study where relationships between providers and recipients of nfe are effected by policy statements.

As early as 1975 Bhola made a strongly worded statement on policy issues when he said: 'The intent of all policy-making is essentially to obtain and maintain preferred distributions of power, status and economic goods in a society. Education plays an important part in bringing about and maintaining these preferred distributions'. (Bhola, 1983, p 48). He points out that in the developing countries at this point in history formal education cannot do it alone as it has failed both logistically and functionally. There seems to be a mismatch between what is learned in school and what is required outside in the world of work. Secondly the non-schooling gap - the difference between school-age populations and actual enrolments - is so large that up to one third of children in the primary age group never enrol in a school. Yet these people have to receive some development to find employment, subsist etc. Nfe is being seen as the obvious choice of an educational strategy to meet the clear and present needs of development - partly to deschool society. Bhola stresses the fact that the essential policy issue is whether nfe can bring about the preferred distribution of goods in a society and what consequences this new distribution of education will have, immediately and in the long run, on the economic, social and political structures of society. He provides the following views on these issues: (Bhola, 1983, p 49 - 51).

- (a) There appears to be in an immediate sense, a distributive justice in policies to promote nfe. Those who are educationally disadvantaged could acquire basic education and improve their situation. Nfe is institutionally and programmatically amenable to being put to use to help the landless, urban unemployed and many others.
- (b) In terms of economic returns indications are that nfe in Third World countries show better returns than formal education, both in training and development

towards a better quality of life.

- (c) Social and political advantages are also claimed in that learners sense of personal growth and greater control over their own lives - social mobility - is achieved.
- (d) Critics of nfe point out that there is a gap between the manifesto and the manifestation as most of the social and political advantages attributed to nfe i.e. a formal policy statement, pious intentions and perhaps possibilities of such education, seldom manifest.
- (e) Nfe in practice is often most successful when it takes the form of an extension of formal education and is used by those in power in this manner to neutralize pressure on formal education. Critics often point out that employers benefit more from nfe occupational training than the workers and keep workers happy but restricted to their employment and class. They point out further that not many social and political advantages accrue to the disadvantaged through nfe as most nfe programmes are based on the assumption that there is solidarity between the individual and the state. Nfe is often associated with a state agency with the objective of affiliating the masses to the purposes and will of the state. There seems little scope within nfe for politicization, empowerment, revitalization and liberation. (This is a view that Bholia shares with others such as Paulston).

In a more indirect way on the issues of policy and nfe Kindervatter who studied nfe as an empowering agency, where empowering is defined as: 'People gaining an understanding of and control over social, economic, and/or political forces in order to improve their standing in society' (Kindervatter, 1979, p 62), developed a model for nfe which would assist with the empowering of its target populations. The ideal model would include the following steps and would ensure reasonable success in gaining control over the factors and forces listed above:

(Empirical research on Indonesian and Thai programmes were used to test the model).

Programmatic dimensions of nfe as an empowering process

Structure	Emphasis on small group activity and autonomy. Members have a common background and interests, and become a team, with a sense of identity and pride.
Setting/Time	Decided upon by learners; informal meeting place in the learners' communities.
Role of learners	Collectively exercise decision-making power, in collaboration with the facilitator, on all aspects of the program. Share leadership, as well as other roles and responsibilities. Function as a semi-autonomous problem-solving group.
Relationship between learners and facilitator	"Teacher-student" status differences de-emphasized. Relationship changes as program progresses: learners become increasingly active and facilitator increasingly less active. Based on mutual respect.
Needs assessment	Needs arise out of learners' real life problems and interests. Identified through a dialogical process amongst learners, and between learners and facilitator. On-going.
Curriculum development	On-going, emergent, open-ended. General objectives established at the outset, but specific objectives and "lesson plans" developed from one session to the next.
Subject matter	Facilitators help learners develop and examine their problems. Based on this analysis, learners determine what they want to learn and identify the resources to do so. Thus, content includes two areas: 1) "process objectives" related to group problem-solving and 2) "content objectives" related

to the information, skills, or community action projects which the learners themselves decide to pursue.

Materials Usually not pre-packaged. Developed by the facilitator and/or learners as a means to stimulate problem identification/analysis; promote self-expression; and support group activities. Includes photos (if possible, Polaroid); audio tapes; stories; a group bulletin; charts; mini-lectures, etc. May use books/booklets as resources and packaged "tools" such as games or experiential learning exercises that are: open ended; promote interaction; and require little guidance.

Methods Structured small group activities; discussion; skills development sessions; project planning and implementation. Designed to promote peer group development and autonomy, as well as dialogue. "Fun" methods heighten learner motivation.

Evaluation Learners continually assess their own development and their effect on their communities, and make necessary programme revisions. Learners are not evaluated; they are evaluators, in collaboration with the facilitator. Simple tools are utilized, which the learners themselves can apply.

(Kindervatter, 1979, p 247 - 8)

The role of learners - as decisionmakers on all aspects of the programme and as autonomous problem solving groups were seen as the key to the success of the empowering objective. The curricular aspect of nfe could assist with countering policy from a state to use nfe to further its own interests.

Papagiannis, as mentioned earlier, also attempted to analyse and conceptualize nfe with particular reference to it as a socializing organization where socialization refers to the process by which individuals acquire the knowledge, skills and properties which society demands for its maintenance or change. If the labour market is viewed as

being segmented into two relatively distinct sectors: primary (white-collar, managerial, professional) and secondary (blue-collar labour and agricultural workers) there is very little mobility or 'cross over'. Education is often noted for its system support to maintain inequality and maldistribution of wealth. Nfe is often associated with the secondary labour market which according to Papagiannis makes it potentially an even more effective means for limiting cross-segment mobility.

(Papagiannis, 1977, p 89 - 90)

On policy issues further views in the RSA, UK and some Third World countries will be examined and the justification for policies analysed.

In the next paragraph the question of the institutionalization of nfe which has already been referred to, will be looked at.

2.4 INSTITUTIONAL ISSUES

In this research on the relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector the institutional issues are central to the research. Bhola sums this problem up in a very apt way by saying: 'Half of policymaking is projecting a national vision and establishing a national direction. The other half involves harnessing social power for preferred social outcomes. To harness social power means to create organizational mechanisms for the implementation of objectives or delivery of services and institutionalizing them for continuity.' (Bhola, 1983, p 51). Bhola identifies two issues of institutional character:

How does one institutionalize nfe? This involves the ways in which an effective and efficient delivery system of non-formal education to new clientele could be developed. The question of interdepartmental or interagency co-ordination is one aspect of the problem as often a number of government agencies are involved e.g. manpower, health and others have their own nfe programmes.

The second issue centres on what the effect or potential influence of nfe on existing institutions could be. The question Bhola raises is whether the

nature, function and performance of institutions in the social, economic and political sectors could actually be changed through nfe?

The relationship between nfe and formal education is the topic for chapter 3 of this research and therefore only some initial comments on the theoretical basis of nfe will be made here. Again Bhola has some views on this issue, which are supported by many others:

- (a) The paradoxical nature of talking about institutionalization of nfe is apparent since institutionalization generates pressures towards formalization. Yet what has to be done systematically and with some hope of continuity has to be more or less institutionalized.
- (b) Bhola proposes what he calls enabling organizations - organizations that do not monopolize action but enable others to undertake a variety of actions within a generally agreed framework. The enabling organisation exerts control merely through providing a vision, a general direction and not by day-to-day overseeing or monitoring of planning, action or evaluation of programmes of participating organizations and groups.
- (c) From the suggestion of the co-ordination function of enabling organizations follows the problem that such a function has to be located somewhere. Formal education is properly housed under one ministry/department. Nfe is different in that it is almost always a combination of 'living and learning' (Bhola, 1983, p 52) and is offered by a variety of departments and agencies. Bhola suggests a separate department or ministry as institutional home for nfe, but such a department or ministry must see itself as an enabling and co-ordinating institution. It should not try to take initiative and action away from the various governmental and non-governmental partners in nfe. India is an example of a country where a separate system for nfe has been developed. (Moulton, 1978, p 307).

Alternative formal education has in some cases been established parallel with the formal system to serve sections of a community with basic right up to university education. This is a form of institutionalized nfe which has been formalized.

A further issue on institutionalization of nfe is that through it people could be educated in relation to the institutions that surround them, which are supposed to serve the people to enable them to make appropriate demands on the institutions and make them accountable and responsive to the people.

2.5 CURRICULAR ISSUES

The issues at stake here are firstly the contents of curricula, pedagogy/andragogy and teaching methods. The crucial question in Bhola's opinion is 'How does one reconcile national needs with local community needs?' Two kinds of extremism exist in this regard:

Some educators plan nfe on the basis that the state knows best and that communities do not really matter.

Others are so carried away by their participative ideology that they pretend that the state does not exist.

Bhola proposes a dialectical model: 'to start with the people's needs as defined by the state and regional developmental elite, and then, through a process of needs negotiation to reinvest national needs within local community settings. This seems to be the right way to serve people's purposes within the framework of a national state.'

(Bhola, 1983, p 53).

Coombs in dealing with strategies for improving rural family life, stresses the importance of integration and the realities of integration where integration is defined as " 'combining naturally related parts into a more cohesive and unified whole in order to enhance their collective cost-effectiveness.' (Coombs, 1981, p 24). He lists five varieties of integration important for the success of a nfe programme:

- integrated national planning for rural development;

- integration of the essential components of a particular programme;
- integration of related activities conventionally dealt with in separate programmes;
- horizontal and vertical integration; and
- integration of efforts between separate organizations.

To test whether a nfe programme is properly integrated Coombs suggests that it should be analysed as a productive system designed to accomplish specific objectives in a particular setting. Any such system must have an appropriate process of suitable inter-acting mutually supportive components and sufficient resource input of the right kind. Furthermore attention should be focussed on the critical functional relationships between the components within any particular programme, or between two or more closely related programmes and between any programme and its intended beneficiaries and their socio-economic milieu. If any relationship malfunctions or any component is missing the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of the whole system is bound to suffer.

(Coombs, 1981, p 25)

On the five varieties of integration listed above one notes that integration of programmes at the local level can be greatly facilitated by integrated thinking at the national level especially if it leads to greater decentralization, detailed planning and decisionmaking to lower echelons. As an example a ministry of agriculture may be mainly concerned with maximizing production of selected commercial crops for urban and export markets resulting in the problems of the small commercial farmers getting short shrifted. To illustrate the need for integration of the components of a particular programme, Coombs refers to the well-intentioned skill training programmes in developing countries, where the results were poor because the programme provided only the skills without the essential complimentary system components such as access to credit, raw materials and a profitable market, needed for success. In this case only one item in the system, training, was provided and because the others were missing the training went to waste. It often happens that

programmes even in one department such as health are not integrated resulting in a variety of unco-ordinated assistance, information and preventative action being taken by different people in the same community leading to bewilderment amongst the recipients especially if the aid, advice etc have elements of conflict in them. This is a good example of separate though linked programmes not being integrated. Concerning horizontal and vertical integration, horizontal integration refers to programmes dealing with closely related activities in a community - an infant care programme must be linked with nutrition and nutrition with food preservation and ways of earning extra cash. Vertical integration is indispensable to community based programmes i.e. villagers cannot do everything on their own e.g. their efforts must be integrated with technical guidance and selective help to retain motivation, credibility etc. (Coombs, 1981, p 26 - 31)

2.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter an effort has been made to establish what foundations nfe may have or what theory has been built up. Some work has been done by Grandstaff, Bhola, and many others looking at nfe from a development, historical, cultural, definitional, policy, institutional and curricular point of view. As with education in general nfe could be said to lead to the self-fulfilment of the individual and his needs through the intervention of an educator (human and/or technological). It has been established that nfe seems to be able to do certain things better e.g. when learning and living are closely connected and under specific conditions. It is felt that in this chapter a global view of nfe, its providers, objectives, modes and recipients has been identified sufficiently to examine the relationships between nfe and formal education in the next chapter and between these two and the private sector as a basis for application to the study of these relationships in the RSA and the countries referred to.

CHAPTER 3

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NON-FORMAL EDUCATION AND FORMAL EDUCATION

In this chapter the relationship between nfe and formal education through government agencies will be analysed, whereas in Chapter 4 the emphasis will fall more on the relationship between formal education and nfe provided by non-government agencies in particular in the proficiency education section of nfe.

Extensive work has been done by researchers in nfe on the relationship between nfe and formal education and it would appear that the relationship in different countries ranges from nfe as replacement education for formal education to the other opposite of a continuum where nfe has been integrated with formal education in one central department or ministry.

Of the most recent work in this field Ahmed examined some critical educational issues and nfe and Van der Stoep in research on nfe provision paid some attention to the relationship between nfe and formal education. In introducing this problem of the relationship between nfe and formal education in the present study some cautionary notes by Ahmed are very relevant. He points out that the assessment made by the Faure Commission in 1968 that the significance of formal education was on the decline turned out to be premature, as although some progress has been made in developing countries towards reaching groups not normally served by formal schools there has not been a proliferation of nfe outside the formal system. Nor has there been significant changes in many countries' structures, methodology, administration and objectives of education systems. He points out however that there is a realization amongst educational policy-makers, planners and administrators that education and learning cannot be equated with schooling. He states that there is general recognition:

'(a) that the educational endeavours of a nation are not limited to what falls under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, (b) that the nationwide network of learning opportunities consists of diverse and numerous components which cannot be seen as constituting one system to be managed and controlled by any one central authority, and (c) that

learning resources are financial, material and human and they originate from many sources - the government budget accounting for only a fraction.'

(Ahmed, 1983, p 35)

The critical issues raised by Ahmed will be returned to later when dealing with the conditions for a successful relationship between nfe and formal education.

In order to describe the relationship between nfe and formal education a variety of approaches and more refined models are available. One such model is that of Evans as quoted by Van der Stoep. This and factors influencing it will be looked at in the next paragraphs.

3.1 MODELS FOR CLASSIFICATION OF THE NFE - FORMAL EDUCATION RELATIONSHIP

3.1.1 Evans-model based on categories

According to Van der Stoep Evans uses a model in which three categories are distinguished in which according to Evans the relationship between nfe and formal education is clearly formulated:

The categories are

The category of complementary educational provision, where the relationship lies in the fact that nfe extends and rounds off formal education.

The category of supplementary education, where nfe is an application of the formal education, but at a different place and time to what is normally linked with schooling.

The category of replacement education, i.e. where nfe replaces formal education.

(compare Van der Stoep, 1983, p 105 - 6)

The distinctions drawn here to classify the relationship referred to has been extended by Evans to include the category in which formal education and nfe are grouped together in one scheme where a combined vision of

educational provision for a country is used. This could be referred to as the incorporating category.

This four category classification is useful as a broad classification but does not serve much purpose other than to describe the broad educational relationships. Detailed analysis of the structures of education is not clear from these categories.

3.1.2 Refinement of the categories model of Evans

In order to describe/classify and plan the relationship between nfe and formal education in a particular educational system would require a more detailed analysis of the following structures of the system of provision of education under investigation:

- educational structure;
- financial structure;
- organisation and administrative structure;
- physical structure;
- support services structure
- training structure

If for example the relationship between formal education and non-formal education is classified as complimentary it would be useful to build a paradigm as to what could be expected concerning the educational, financial, organisational and administrative and other structures that could be expected in such a system that have, or would, make the system successful. An attempt will therefore be made to describe the characteristics of each structure and its relevance to Evans's category model.

a. The educational structure

In a system for the provision of education the educational structure is '...the framework within which different types of teaching and learning situations are arranged, including also their mutual relationships.'

(HSRC Main Committee, 1981, p 95)

Further concepts which are relevant here in terms of the

definition above are firstly the flow pattern of participants through an education system. Vertical flow refers to completion by the learner of a particular grouping of successive years of study in order to reach a specific scholastic withdrawal point in a particular field of study. Horizontal flow refers to a change of field of study or degree of difficulty. After horizontal flow has taken place the learner then moves vertically at a different degree of difficulty in his particular field, in another field of study or subject, or at another educational institution and reaches a withdrawal point with the minimum, if any, loss of years of study. (HSRC Main Committee, 1981 p 103 - 104). Finally the difference between a closed and open educational system is characterized by fixed vertical flow channels with few possibilities of horizontal flow and little interaction with non-formal education and the world of work. The opposite applies to an open structure. An open educational structure which allows horizontal flow possibilities has more potential for a complementary, supplementary or incorporating category of nfe than a closed structure. If the nfe - formal education relationship is supplementary, i.e. in terms of Evans's definition that nfe is an application of formal education re-entry to formal education seems less likely due to such problems as standards and certification. The incorporating approach seems most likely to offer easy horizontal flow as the system as a whole is controlled by the same department or ministry.

b. Financial structure

Another structure of an educational system namely finance is the one which is often linked with the conflict idea in the formal education - nfe relationship. In the incorporating nfe formal education category friction is less likely as the finance is then controlled by one department or ministry. When however nfe is the concern of other state departments the potential for conflict over finance is likely to increase.

As is often the case with nfe, it tends to be associated with sectors of the population poorly served by a formal education programme where poverty, social inequality and underdevelopment is rife. The impression is gained that nfe which often serves this

sector gets only a small proportion of the economical and financial resources of the country. Furthermore nfe is seen as designed to maintain social structures. The more sophisticated the formal education the more expensive it tends to become and the bigger the demand for formal education the less likely the flow of funds from government to nfe especially in countries with a large undeveloped population. Nfe has to rely more and more then on the private sector and foreign aid for its expansion and maintenance.

The involvement of a government in financing nfe will depend on its view of nfe at any particular time and the financing is often sporadic and particular for a certain type of nfe e.g. training in a particular field or utility is often used as a criterion to determine financial support. The relationship between formal education and nfe in the financial structure could be harmonious if both received sufficient funding but at the other end of the scale formal education and nfe could be in competition or even conflict for funding.

Morales on aspects of financing of nfe points out that the following features determine a different cost structure and different form of financing. The features are target clientele, organization, type of activity and backing. To illustrate his point on how these features affect the operation and financing he refers to the literacy campaign in Brazil (MOBRAL) which had as clientele the massive number of illiterate. This drive to provide literacy training was first financed by USAID but in 1971 the government increased its financial support to 7.5 percent of the nett proceeds of the national sports lottery. In addition MOBRAL was allocated 1 to 2 per cent of the total corporate income tax, corporate bodies being entitled to make voluntary deductions in support of MOBRAL. Many of Brazil's ablest planners, administrators and teachers were attracted to the programme. The scheme spread to 3 000 municipalities in Brazil and as the literacy programme has proceeded to attain its objectives, so emphasis has shifted to integral education and educational reinforcement programmes. The important issue here is that amongst a host of features and activities which contributed to the success of the programme from a financing point of view a variety of agencies

contributed. They were

1. the assignment of resources by the treasury for a nfe programme (of great significance);
2. the sharing of direct costs with state and municipal authorities who had to round off the fixed allowances for instructors as MOBREAL only provided part of the payment of the trainers.

(Morales, 1983, p 57 - 58)

c. Organisation and administrative structure

At the South African Association for the Advancement of Education Congress in 1984 Garbers attempted to provide guidelines for control measures and co-ordination in the implementation of nfe in a system of education. He proposes organisation and administrative measures firstly related to different types of nfe and secondly states some more general or comprehensive proposals. A short summary is given here as guidelines on how the management measures could influence the relationship between formal education and nfe. He favours the formal education incorporating nfe system: (Garbers, 1984, p 11 - 18).

1. Not all types of nfe should be formally integrated in the system of education provision. However nfe aimed at complying with learning requirements and compensatory education for formal education should relate directly to formal education in terms of management and the co-ordinator should be attached to a school functioning as a community learning centre.
2. Nfe aimed at manpower training and the acquisition of occupational skills should form an integral part of education provision and should be linked closely to formal education. Such an arrangement would facilitate movement of learners between formal education and nfe. It is implied further that the private sector will itself be responsible for ensuring that nfe falling within its ambit will be at the required level etc. This point will be returned to in Chapter 4.

3. Nfe aimed at improving the quality of life will according to Garbers logically fall under the jurisdiction of the departments currently concerned with education and the promotion of culture.
4. Nfe aimed at developmental objectives e.g. health improvement and agricultural guidance etc should remain under control of state departments whose main function lies in those fields - an integrated approach should be used.
5. Nfe aimed at reschooling of those trained in formal education falls within the community service domain of formal education institutions and their control.

As general guidelines Garbers poses the following: Firstly it has to be accepted that the development of formal education should be conservative and at the same time nfe should be kept as non-formalized as possible. Secondly the management infrastructure required for the control and co-ordination of a system of education provision in which nfe is integrated cannot and should not be too centralized as this would jeopardize the typical nature of nfe and could be counterproductive in terms of establishing education as a responsibility shared by society as a whole. Thirdly the financing mechanism used for nfe could be a useful control and co-ordination mechanism. A fourth guideline which applies particularly in an open ended education system with horizontal flow to commerce and industry is that if part of the compulsory schooling is spent in industry or commerce then the participating institutions will have to be accredited institutions.

On the issue of control and administration the work of Garbers reflects largely on the incorporating categorization of formal education and nfe but the other categorizations are also affected by the same guidelines depending on the extent of institutionization of nfe.

d. Physical structure and support services structure

There is evidence that in highly developed countries with well

established formal education programmes there is less tendency to share facilities and services as the nfe programmes are often developed with their own infrastructure of physical facilities and support services. At the same time in less developed countries with limited resources there is a greater tendency to share facilities and support services - often a community centre is developed around the only school facilities in an area. Due to the rising costs duplication of facilities and support services should be avoided and where needed the necessary relationships developed to share facilities.

e. Training structure

The degree of formalization or control exercised over nfe has a direct correlation with the standardization of criteria for employment of teachers/trainers in the field of nfe. The more formal the control the greater the equalization in criteria. In this regard a wide range of formal qualifications through to informal skills training for nfe workers exists. There is a tendency to require registration of nfe workers similar to the formal education teaching profession requirements. Such terms as adult educator, training manager, training officer, trainer and instructor are commonly used and the evidence is that the people in these jobs try amongst themselves to define criteria and obtain legislative powers to control the quality of workers in the field. These attempts could lead to the establishment of links or relationships between formal education training structures and nfe worker organisations.

In this paragraph an attempt has been made to refine the Evans-model by pointing out relationships which could be determined by analysing the structures of a system for the provision of education.

3.2 CONDITIONS FOR EFFECTIVE LINKS BETWEEN NFE AND FORMAL EDUCATION

Ahmed undertook some valuable research in this area and he stated the following as conditions for an effective relationship between nfe and formal education:

- Awarding of equal status to both formal education and nfe. This applies in particular to their financing, facilities, policy (certification status) and practice. The status problem is more readily overcome in an open-ended education system (horizontal flow).

- The establishment of an organizational (management) structure for nfe. Even though nfe is vast and not all of it government initiated even that undertaken by private bodies should be coordinated for the benefit of the simplification of planning integrated nfe programmes.

- Decentralization of control. Control should as far as possible be a community affair with some direction from control bodies.

- Balance between the provision of education and the national political structure. Education functions within a particular socio-economic structure, through which the aims of education are determined and strategies and priorities formulated.

(Ahmed as quoted by Van der Stoep, 1983, p 111 - 112)

Van der Stoep points out further that there are other factors which influence the relationship between formal education and nfe positively. (Van der Stoep, 1983, p 113) Amongst these are the growing demand for education. In spite of large amounts spent on formal education the demand still exceeds the supply especially in developing countries. Nfe therefore is used more and moves closer to formal education in the areas of basic education and alternative formal education. A second positive development in the formal education nfe relationship is the amount of criticism levelled against formal education. This has led to research on formal education nfe links and especially positive has been the influence of nfe on formal education. There has been a noticeable movement in formal education to become more open and recognition has been given to nfe programmes. Even the role of the teacher as community educator has gained some acceptance. A third factor which has had a positive effect on the formal education nfe relationship is the extension of concepts currently used in connection with development. Nfe and development are

two concepts which have been linked more closely and nfe could be used to create a better distribution of wealth, power and even employment. Nfe is therefore seen as a practical way of promoting development where development is no longer associated only with formal schooling. A fourth factor which promotes the positive development of the relationship lies in the combination of means and objectives in an overarching educational structure. It has in many instances been realized that coupling of the nfe and formal education sectors has become imperative and inevitable. The most important areas are initiation and implementation of educational changes; preparation in education for the world of work (to be dealt with in Chapters 4 to 6) and the career directed character of education. According to Van der Stoep (Van der Stoep, 1983, p 117) the planning and implementation of change are two different matters. Planning is served best through formal education and nfe has the change agents inherent in itself for example teacher training, curriculum development and research as well as the ability to apply decisions more readily. If development includes the planning and implementation aspect then it is logical to have nfe linked to formal education more closely. Agricultural development often planned by university researchers is best implemented through nfe.

In summarizing his work on the relationship issue Van der Stoep sketches three scenarios typifying the relationship largely at the technical and socio-political levels. These are:

- The basic education approach - interpreted as alternative primary education for pupils who cannot be incorporated in the formal schooling, who at nfe level follow a more flexible curriculum of functional literacy, functional numeracy and community involvement.
- The second possibility is a combination of formal and nfe in one system. This is typified by careful functional analysis and learning objectives. This often leads to the extension of formal education to include a lot of what is normally nfe.
- A third approach is the so-called non-competitive nfe. Nfe here plays a complimentary role without competing with formal education for funds, facilities etc.

In a recent article (1983) Ahmed mentioned a number of important issues which affect the links between formal education and nfe which are critical to educational development policy planning, particularly in developing countries. The first issue is the universalization of primary education and the persistence of the problem of non-participation in primary education in the form of high drop-out, repetition, very poor learning achievement and non-attendance after enrolment which indicate that universal and equitable participation in primary education cannot simply be achieved by expansion of the facilities. Apart from other pre-conditions such as teachers etc - ways have to be found to overcome the economic and socio-cultural barriers to participation in education. Even if primary education is provided free of charge there are direct and indirect costs such as clothes, food etc which cannot be afforded by families in subsistence circumstances. Experiences in diverse situations in different regions of the developing world suggest that three types of measures have to be contemplated in any serious effort to reach the marginal groups. First the opportunity cost for the child's family must be reduced by making the educational programme conform to the daily and seasonal cycle of for example the subsistence production to allow children to continue their economic role. Secondly the social and cultural impediments need to be overcome by making appropriate changes in the educational content etc. Thirdly there is the need to make the educational programme an instrument for improving the living conditions of the people in more direct and immediate ways than is the case with conventional primary schools.

The second issue is the question of expanding post-primary learning opportunities. In developing countries there is a movement to open up post-primary educational opportunities other than the regular secondary school. The objectives of the post-primary programmes are:

- '(a) to facilitate the process of adjustment to adult economic and social roles, and (b) to offer opportunities for continuing education at least to those who have the motivation and the drive.'

(Ahmed, 1983, p 38).

The third issue raised by Ahmed is the relevance and practicality of school experience. He points out that it has been an old ploy to inject

a practical bias or include elements of vocational training into curricula. This issue has more recently been considered as a way to combine productive work with learning. The term productive work is seen as an essential part of the educational experience rather than incidental to the training - true participation in real-life production experiences. A second aim is to augment the resources for education from the production activities. Projects that have been relatively successful in achieving either or both of these goals have shown many of the following features:

'Parents and community members are associated with productive activities and skill training in various capacities.

Arrangements are made with industrial and other productive enterprises for mutually advantageous support to the school's productive activities, such as sub-contracts to the school or student participation in factory work.

Flexible school timetables, including shifts for study and work and time-release arrangements, permit students to participate in productive work at school and outside.

The curricular content, teaching methods and evaluation and examination procedures take into account student participation in productive work.

The preparation of teaching personnel and the evaluation of their performance reflect the importance attached to productive work in the educational programme.

Parents and community members participate in policy-making, planning and management of the educational institution in respect of both the academic aspects and the productive activities resulting in substantial autonomy for the institution.

The resources for the educational programme, both financial and human, are at least partially mobilized locally and managed in a decentralized manner in each institution.

The education and productive activities are related and adapted to local economic development needs, opportunities and programmes.'

(Ahmed, 1983, p 40)

A further issue raised by Ahmed is the use of scarce resources. Due to the inhibiting costs of expansion of formal education which relies very heavily on personal communication between full-time professional teachers and students it has become increasingly necessary to use variable mixes of personal communication with such approaches as distance-teaching, self-study and recorded materials and apprenticeship more extensively than in the past. Finally both Ahmed and Morales stress the fact that the educational development experiences of the past two decades suggest that major structural changes in educational systems that will significantly alter the roles performed respectively by formal and nfe are unlikely. Primary-level education for children and secondary education for youth will continue to be the main responsibility of formal schools. Similarly, objectives and groups not traditionally served by the formal school - education and care of the young child, skill training etc will remain the strength of nfe. The projected deschooling of the late sixties and early seventies for developing countries did not happen. Deschooling in developed countries have taken on new dimensions as will be seen on the study in the United Kingdom in Chapter 5.

3.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter the attention has been on the relationship between nfe and formal education. It has been established that this relationship can be described in general as complimentary, supplementary, replacement education or incorporating. It seems possible to refine this broad classification by analysing the structures of a system of education. From empirical work it appears that there are certain factors which are a prerequisite for a successful relationship and that some factors are more positive in promoting nfe. In the next chapter attention will be given to the relationship between the private sector and the system for the provision of education which includes nfe and formal education. The emphasis will therefore be on nfe not necessarily initiated by or connected with government.

CHAPTER 4

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PRIVATE SECTOR AND THE SYSTEM

FOR THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION

As was the case with the previous two chapters in this part of the study, the attention in this one will be on models (theory-building) of relationships between the private sector (and private bodies) and the system for the provision of education. It is believed that this relationship is the transition from education or unemployment to the world of work as the first stage in the relationship building, with the second and final stage a continuous process of work followed by (or integrated with) training in a lifelong process. There are a number of models describing the linkage between school to work and also from unemployment to work. Similarly there are a number of attempts to describe different phases of training between school and work. The lifelong process of education is furthermore a well-researched area. The participants in this relationship are often government departments and the private sector or non-government agencies (private bodies), such as training boards, trade unions etc, who train for the private sector. This chapter deals with approaches to linkage and roles played by government departments, private bodies and the private sector. Linkage is an alternative term for relationship favoured by some authors in the field.

4.1 POSSIBLE POINTS OF GOVERNMENT INTERVENTION IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

In setting the problem for this research it was postulated that in the relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector the government could have a strong influence on this relationship. Ferrin and Arbeiter investigated possible points at which a government could intervene in the relationship between education and occupation. They listed eight such points in a chart which starts with the individual's characteristics, through educational characteristics, occupational characteristics and institutional links, to links for students. They point out that to improve the relationship a government might act

directly upon segments of a system at certain points or all of them to become a giant linking mechanism acting legislatively, administratively and judicially to adjust the parts of a system or it might mandate, encourage or subsidize other linking mechanisms, processes, or products to do so. They illustrate the ways of government intervention, which is summarized here, as follows:

<u>Points of intervention</u>	<u>Examples</u>
1. Modify education entry requirements.	Order non-discriminatory admissions practices; finance proficiency testing for admissions.
2. Modify education process.	Finance vocational training.
3. Modify education exit requirements.	Lower compulsory attendance ages; raise graduation requirements.
4. Modify occupation entry requirements.	Legislate fair employment practices; modify child labour laws.
5. Modify occupation process.	Legislate on safety requirements; use examinations for promotion in civil service system.
6. Modify occupation exit requirements.	Legislate periodic education leaves and require periodic promotion.
7a. Modify school-based institutional links.	Mandate advisory councils of employers and workers.
7b. Modify 'independent' institutional links.	Stimulate creation of career entry councils; subsidize exchange programmes for school placement officers.

- | | | |
|-----|--|---|
| 7c. | Modify employer-based institutional links. | Sponsor meetings of employer recruiters to learn school exit requirements. |
| 8a. | Modify school-based individual links. | Finance counsellor training. |
| 8b. | Modify independent individual links. | Operate placement services; publish newsletter reporting labour-shortage areas. |

(Compare Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975, p 14 - 16)

The variation or degree of involvement of government will depend on what government policy and priority at any particular time is.

4.2 LINKAGE APPROACHES - ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES TO FORGING RELATIONSHIPS

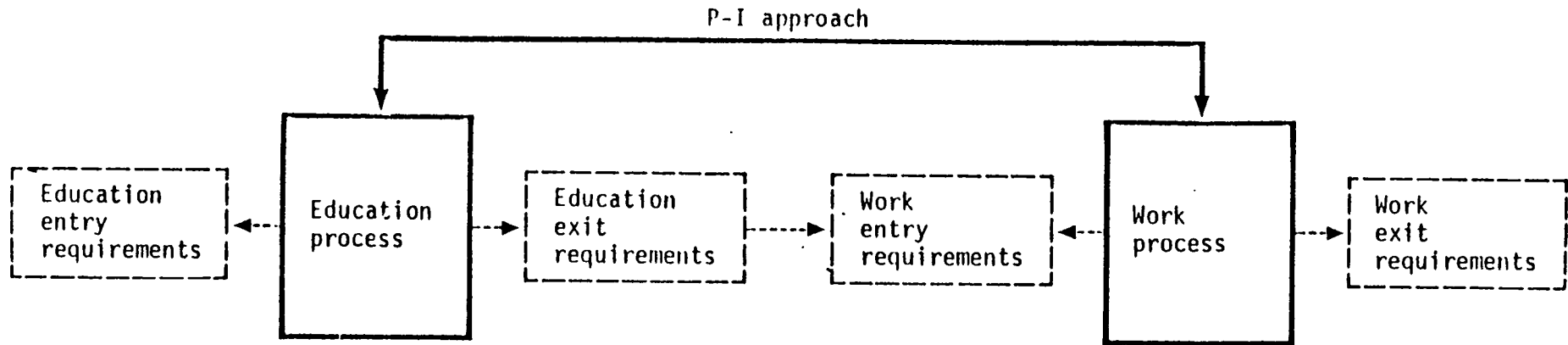
4.2.1 The Process-intensive and requirements-intensive approaches of Ferrin and Arbeiter

In some research on alternative linkage approaches, as part of their work on bridging the gap between school and employment Ferrin and Arbeiter found that the majority of the participants saw linking mechanisms as those devices that bring together more closely the processes of education. Only a few identified linking mechanisms which address the interface between the education system and the occupation system designed to align education exit requirements and occupation entry requirements. They observed further that amongst the participating schools and colleges there was an attempt to bypass the problem of specifying exit requirements in terms of what knowledges, skills and values graduates would need to have in order to enter jobs and succeed in them. Instead these institutions tried to adopt some or all of the characteristics of the workplace as their means of producing the unspecified knowledges, skills, attitudes and values. (Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975, p 81). These observations led Ferrin and Arbeiter to focus on two approaches to the linkage between education and work. The first was labelled process-intensive because its primary emphasis is on the processes of education

and work and concentrates on developing ways that individuals in the education sector can participate more fully and more satisfactorily in the work-sector. The second approach was labelled requirements intensive because its primary emphasis is on the outcomes of the educational process and concentrates on developing ways to change education exit requirements (or characteristics), if needed, to match more closely with work entry requirements and vice versa. (Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975, p 82 - 83). In the two sketches which follow they illustrate firstly the process-intensive mechanism which concentrates primarily on the school/college process and the work process. Here the solid lines outlining Education Process and Work Process indicate the important elements in the process-intensive approach to linkage. In this approach the respective sets of entry and exit requirements are of minor concern as indicated by the dotted lines, and changes occur indirectly. In the second sketch they illustrate the requirements - intensive approach. Linkage of this type concentrates on the problem of aligning education exit and work entry requirements. Furthermore in this sketch each of the middle three arrows is two-directional, implying that each box affects the other.

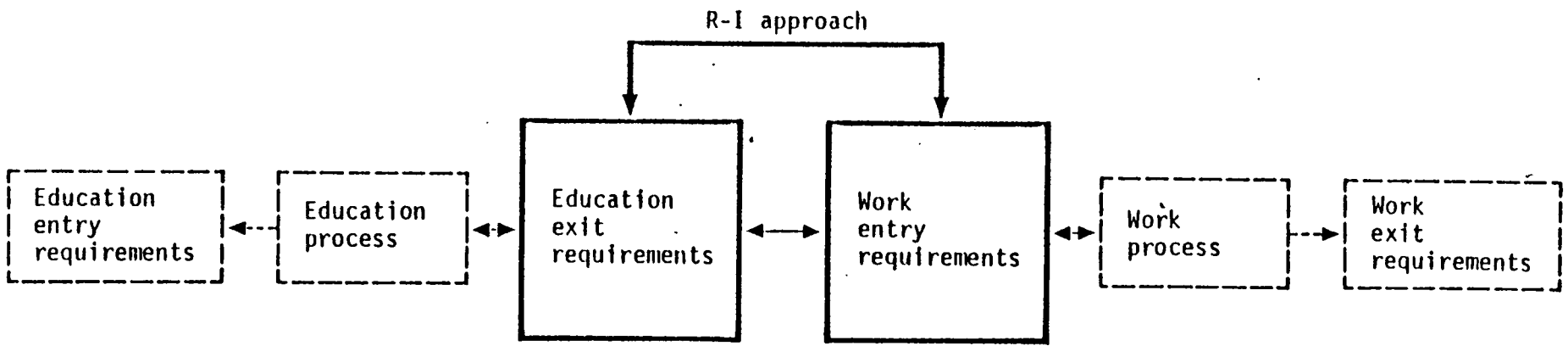
Ferrin and Arbeiter point out that the difference between the process-intensive and the requirements-intensive approach to linkage, is essentially one of emphasis. One changes the educational system, including the exit requirements, by developing links between the education work processes, while the other changes the system, including the educational process, by aligning education exit and work entry requirements. The former strategy is far more typical than the latter, however these distinctions are not always maintained in practice. Programmes indicative of both approaches are often found. Further work on these two approaches included degree of linkage, service functions along an authority continuum, local and state initiative and strengths and weaknesses of each approach. These findings are summarized briefly as they are relevant to this study in defining the role of government and private sector input into the transition from education to work.

Process-Intensive (P-I) Approach to Linking Education and Work



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Requirements-Intensive (R-I) Approach to Linking Education and Work



Reproduced from: Bridging the gap by Ferrin, R.I. and Arbeiter, S., appended to page 82.

a. Degrees of linkage

1. Separation: No contact between education and work.
2. Communication: Those in education being informed about the nature of the work world through such devices as advisory councils, informational brochures, placement and follow-up studies, site visits etc and the reverse - informing the work world about the nature of the education process.
3. Participation: Those in education actually engaging in activities, in the work setting for some period of time through such devices as workstudy programmes, job simulation, and short-term work experience arrangements. At the planning level, participation linkages involve joint activity between those in education and work in curriculum development, programmes evaluation, and the like. Again, although the reference point in this project is the education sector, similar activities may be uncovered that have reference to the work setting.
4. Substitution: This degree of linkage is operative when students actually use the work setting and procedures as the primary avenue for their learning, with activities in the education setting secondary in both time and importance (e.g. co-operative education, long-term internships), and/or when workers/supervisors are used as part-time teachers in their areas of expertise. Once again, the reverse situation for those in the work world is possible.
5. Integration: This is characterized by one system performing the functions of both education and work. If

the student/worker element were integrated, the individual would be simultaneously and continuously learning knowledge and skills (typically a function of the school) and producing goods and/or services (typically a function of the job).

(Compare Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975, p 83 - 84)

b. Service functions along an authority continuum

According to Ferrin and Arbeiter linkage mechanisms could operate in a number of ways and at a number of levels, public or private, created by legislation, or arising in a voluntary association of interested individuals. One way would be to analyse the mechanisms by looking at the service functions and to lay these functions along an authority continuum - authority operationally seen as 'the power to accomplish the function' (Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975, p 85 - 94). It does not imply that, for example, a government could not operate at a low authority level but more the reverse, that it becomes increasingly more difficult for individuals or private bodies to operate at a high authority level as will be seen from the following: (Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975, p 85 and 92).

<u>Process-intensive</u> <u>linkage : Service</u> <u>functions</u>	<u>Necessary level of</u> <u>authority</u>	<u>Requirements-intensive</u> <u>linkage : Service</u> <u>functions</u>
	Low	
1. Provide written information		Provide written information
2. Bring constituents together		Bring constituents together
3. Organize community resources		Develop common language
4. Establish work experience programmes		Develop requirements measures
5. Develop alternating learning programmes		Set standards
6. Set programme standards		Certify standards
7. Develop single learning earning programme		Grant licenses
	High	

To illustrate the service functions further Ferrin and Arbeiter provided useful, though brief statements on each one. The emphasis is mostly on modifications in the educational process. They pointed out that these concepts are more difficult to implement due to restrictions from particularly the private sector. The service function areas refer to the process intensive mechanism:

(Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975, p 86)

Provide Written Information Individuals and agencies have developed extensive occupational information on "What it's like to be a ..." or "A day in the life of a...". Much of this information is aimed at the individual student, but some would be quite suitable for programme planning. Information on new machines, apparatus, and techniques is also important.

Bring Constituents Together Of more value than written information is the opportunity for business and labour officials to talk to educators about new developments and establish practices in the work world. They also meet to review plans and to give advice on existing curriculums and new educational program directions. These face-to-face encounters typically not only benefit educators but the industrial representatives as well. Both return to their respective institutions with a better understanding of what is taking place in the other. The key is to have individuals meeting together who have the authority to stimulate change.

Organize Community Resources An increasingly common practice are the development of lists of people in industry willing to speak in the schools, the recruitment of businesses to make work exploration sites available, the development and operation of job-fair days at school, the development of a resource center of information on local industries, and even training of

faculty to be aware of and use community resources.

Establish Work
Experience
Programs

It is somewhat more difficult to recruit businesses to make work sites available to long-term (minimum of one school term) hands-on work experiences. Those in charge need to work with faculty to obtain their acceptance of the work experience concept and to assist them in determining the academic benefits of the experience.

Develop
Alternating
Learning-Earning
Programs

This is an extension of the previous function. The most common form of this alternating arrangement is called co-operative education and requires a major institutional commitment to this form of education as well as the discovery and maintenance of available work stations.

Set Programme

Whereas the previous two functions were concerned with developing work experience that would complement the academic programme, the linking agency conducting this function has direct impact on the learning programme. The standards it would set presumably would reflect an awareness of activities in the work sector. For example, if a practising architect typically spends one-third of his/her working time preparing cost estimates, the linking agency--having determined that--would require significant learning activities in this area.

Develop Single
Learning-Earning
Programme

Rather than simply set programme standards, this linking agency would actually establish an integrated programme. Obviously a very high level of authority is required to perform this function.

In the foregoing functional descriptions the focus was consistently on the educational process. However the work process needs to change as well as the education process. Businessmen, on the whole, seemed convinced that the educational system should change to be more attuned to the world of work, but that the latter should continue unchanged. Ferrin and Arbeiter recognize the difficulty of effecting modifications in the world of work, but to stress the fact that unless changes take place to humanize the work process, the linkages that might be created will have little effect on improving the quality of life in the country.

On the requirements intensive approach the service function areas differ considerably from that of the process intensive approach. Ferrin and Arbeiter identified the following as examples in each area.

Provide Written Information	To some degree work institutions would profit from more extensive information on what graduates are like, particularly those who will be working for them. And likewise, educational institutions would profit from knowing more about work entry requirements as they now exist.
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Bring Constituents Together	Of more value than written information is the constituents' opportunity for business and labour officials to talk with educators about the misalignment problem. Testimony comes from all quarters to the benefit of these face-to-face encounters. The key is to have individuals meeting together who can stimulate change in their respective institutions.
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Develop a Common Language	So long as work entry requirements are couched in terms of age, degrees, and job experience, educational systems are engaged in an interesting but perhaps frivolous activity by undertaking to state exit requirements in terms of competency. The current fervour attached to competency-based education and degree
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requirements is not without considerable merit, of course, because the results will: (1) lead to a more solid index of educational productivity and therefore will respond to the call for accountability, and (2) represent groundwork in the education sector that should speed progress toward alignment. Without development of a common language, however, actual alignment may never occur. Project advisers stressed the importance of this function.

Develop Require-
ments Measures

Once a common language is determined the problem changes to one of measurement. The complexity of the task is largely dependent upon the language chosen. To date most efforts at new education exit measures (and there are many) have been developed with less than full participation from the work sector.

Set Standards

At this point the linking mechanism moves into the area of control, making policy for aligned exit-entry requirements. To carry out this and succeeding functions the mechanism would appear to have to be either a public agency or a powerful private one.

Certify Standards

A linking agency performing this function moves beyond simply policy-making to regulation. It assumes responsibility for seeing that standards it has set for exit-entry requirements are maintained in both worlds. The agency would have the authority to determine which educational institutions and programmes and which work institutions were operating in accordance with established standards and the power to cite institutions for noncompliance.

Grant Licenses The agency would have the authority to grant operating licenses to both educational and work institutions and to bring legal action against unlicensed institutions and corporations.

It follows from the descriptions of the functional areas that the transition from school to work in any particular system could be readily classified as employing one of the two mechanisms and occurs at one or more of the stages of the service functions.

c. Local and state initiative

Ferrin and Arbeiter point out that, from their study, it appears that the process-intensive approach can be largely implemented through local initiative - the local educational system can set up mechanisms to use community resources effectively e.g. industry - education councils are set up on a local basis and play a useful role in matters such as curriculum revision. (Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975, p 89 and 94). They found further that implementation of the requirements-intensive approach depended largely on state initiatives, particular in the higher level service functions, such as granting licenses.

d. Strengths and weaknesses of each

Process-intensive approach

Its essential strength is that it employs strategies familiar to most educators.

Secondly it may lead to encouraging recurrent education.

A weakness is that taken alone it may be difficult to evaluate its effectiveness.

It assumes that certain outcomes are generated by the very act of

Requirements-intensive approach

Its strength lies in the fact that if this type of linkage is accomplished, it presents a well-articulated system in which transition from education to work should be almost automatic.

Its weaknesses lie in the fact that it assumes that industry is not only willing to co-operate but will participate in an effort to state work entry requirements in terms of actual

bridging the education and work processes together, but it does not assess these outcomes directly.

job performances and will apply these indices to its learning practices and secondly it is assumed that clusters of skill competencies and attitude characteristics can be identified and measured. (Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975, p 88 and 95).

It is important to note that in attempting to align the world of work and education, it should be realized that both are continually shifting variables and therefore continuous alignment is needed. Secondly, neither should dominate the other. Thirdly, in the current mounting world unemployment situation it is becoming a permanent facet of life. There is, therefore, a greater tendency to align education-exit requirements with job-entry requirements to make the transition more smooth.

4.2.2 Manpower development in the urban-modern sector

A further approach to the problem of solving the relationship between the system of education and the private sector is the so-called manpower-development approach, or as Mietus states it: '(when it has been decided that further development of modern-urban sector employment (for example) is desirable, ..., the question is "What are the various alternative means, and which seem to work better in certain situations?" (Mietus, 197-, p 220). Mietus analysed a number of case studies and drew some conclusions on each category of nfe in the transition from school or unemployment to work in a number of manpower development programmes. He distinguishes the following categories that often involve or has a link with government and the private sector:

(Mietus, 197-, p 220 - 221)

- a. The first is pre-vocational training in which the objective is to produce trainable individuals, i.e. to establish in the trainee the general and basic information, skills, attitudes and habitual behaviours needed for specific vocational training and/or low level employment in the modern sector. From the case studies he makes the following important observations:

(Mietus, 197-, p 224 - 5)

1. The most severely disadvantaged youths are not being reached by a great number of nfe programmes. Many are eliminated during screening as they react badly to traditional selection. He advises that the severely disadvantaged ones could be placed quickly in actual or simulated work situations and tested later for training.
2. Recruiting of the severely disadvantaged must be actively pursued.
3. Successful recruitment seems to depend on immediate and visible rewards for participants - increase in status, or a job or monetary benefits.
4. Even after pre-vocational training problems of communication skills and dialect preclude the wage employment of some severely disadvantaged youths.

(Mietus, 197-, p 224 - 225)

- b. The second category is called job-entry training which seeks to instill specific information and skills needed for a particular job or class of jobs. This training usually takes place on entering or shortly before, or after entering specific employment. Job-entry training involves orientation, specific job instruction, work experience and further education. He remarks that job-entry training programmes for non-disadvantaged i.e. well-educated youth were very diverse as job characteristics and student characteristics are extremely broad.
- c. Career-long further training has its goals in the advancement of job-competence, the renewal and updating of job skills or preparation for transfer to other skills.

The sponsors for the categories of training range from governments, especially labour, employment or manpower departments, private and public co-operations, training boards (government or privately initiated unions, international agencies (such as the International Labor Organizations), private foundations, interest groups or private citizens. A problem with sponsors often is inadequate training competence - but this varies as some very competently staffed schemes are available. The

incompetence is often met by establishing a vocational training centre with the help of other employers. Assistance is often provided through some training institute or board. Organized training within an industry often solves this problem. Funding of training is often a problem for small businesses. Incentives to large industries to train more than for their own needs seem to overcome this problem.

The successful innovations in programmes for pre-vocational training and job-entry training are endless. Again the involved parties range from government manpower departments to private trusts. Some examples described by Mietus are the following:

- Work crews of about 10 trainees with an adult who supervises due to his technical competence, etc.
- Dispersed work sites condition work attitudes and behaviours in the trainee. Youths work alongside regular production workers for half the day and receive basic education during the other half.
- Contract services are set up by some projects to provide work experience negotiated with private employers.
- Work samples are experience on parts of jobs, involving actual job material and equipment, usually in a simulated industrial environment.
- Vestibule training is short-term real-work experience designed to provide minimum work skills and job adjustment on the premises of a future employer.
- Sheltered workshops are sometimes used for pre-vocational training.

(Mietus, 197-, p 229)

More directly skill building schemes are coupled with on-the-job training which meets several important motivational criteria; a skill center which is a centralized facility which provides training as well as guidance and counselling and multi-occupational training in which the trainee receives broad exposure to several

occupations initially and then selects intensive training in specific skills.

A further aspect of the manpower approach to the relationship between education and work is the attempts at manpower estimates undertaken by governments, the results of which often influence their policy on manpower development and selective stimulation of training. Various techniques are employed. Planners determine projections of manpower needs by sector, by occupational category and by educational level. The final manpower demand is then expressed in terms of educational targets. (UNESCO, 1971, p 19). This, together with the financial resources the economy can afford to allocate to education, permits the integration of educational planning with economic planning. This is, however, long term planning since it is only over a long period that the educational system can modify the structure of the labour force. It is pointed out further that these methods implicitly assume that any given production target has a corresponding occupational structure which itself corresponds to more or less fixed types and levels of education. However, '...empirical studies reveal that in no country is there a rigid relationship between occupations and levels or types of education ...' (UNESCO, 1971, p 19). It is pointed out by Burt that surveys of manpower needs and skills in demand have specific objectives and the more accurate the surveys the more useful and relevant the information. He lists the following objectives of surveys:

- The number of people in a geographic area currently employed in a given occupation and the additional numbers currently needed and through the next five years could be determined.
- The occupations in greatest demand could be identified.
- The jobs within an occupation in which training is needed could be determined.
- The number of graduates from school occupational education programmes who might be accepted for employment in a community could be assessed.
- The interest of young people and adults in training for selected occupations could be assessed.

- The need for supplemental training for people already employed could be determined.
- New areas in which school preparatory or upgrading education and training is needed could be identified.

(Burt, 1967, p 81 - 2)

An important issue concerning a manpower programme implementation is the issue of pre-conditions for implementation. If surveys have been done then, according to a UNESCO survey on manpower aspects of educational planning especially in developing countries, the following conditions are essential for the successful implementation of a manpower programme:

- The highest political leaders and government administrators must understand and support the manpower programme.
- The manpower programme should be related to a plan for economic development - it should cover the same timespan and be in harmony with the main features of the plan in its scope, priorities and dimensions of elements related to skill requirements.
- The manpower planning function should be an integral part of the total planning organization.
- The right climate of public opinion conducive to the implementation of the plan must be created. (UNESCO, 1971, p 214).

Fapohunda illustrates the problem of education in manpower planning in developing countries where the pre-conditions for manpower development fall short by pointing out that many African countries promise mass education without adequate preparation for it. Resources are, especially in the initial stages of independence, spent on education and once spent cannot be spent again on economic development projects and vice versa. The result is that if people are educated, there will be no jobs for them, if industries are started, there will not be trained personnel to man them. (Fapohunda, 1974, p 317). This type of policy was fairly common of the first decade of independence in Africa. The changes in policy in Africa were well stated by Nyerere when he said that to reach selfsufficiency in trained manpower by 1980 would need '... carefully

planned expansion of education. This expansion is an economic function; the purpose of government expenditure on education in the coming years must be to equip Tanzanians with the skills and knowledge which are needed if the development of this country is to be achieved.' 'we cannot use our small resources on education for its own sake; we cannot even use them to make primary education available for all...'

(UNESCO, 1971, p 214)

Under the manpower approach the types of training which cover the transition from school to work, as well as some specific types of facilities have been examined. In the first part of this chapter the point has been that the world of work and education are both continually shifting variables and therefore continuous alignment is needed. This important and dominating factor in the relationship between the system of education and the private sector will be analysed further before other aspects such as training boards, private bodies and unions are examined.

4.3 THE CHANGING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

The process of bringing education and work together remains difficult, partly because requirements are continually shifting. Ducray, on vocational training in 1979, made some very significant observations on the changing relationship between training and employment. He firstly pointed out the limitations of traditional vocational training policies, secondly he gave some views on the relationship between training and employment, thirdly on changes in skills and the effects of structural factors on the employment situation and finally he gave some views on a modern vocational training policy. Each of these aspects will be described here as these observations are of great value to manpower planners.

4.3.1 Limitations of traditional vocational training policies

Ducray states the opinion that during the 70s there had been a fundamental reappraisal of many of the axioms which underpin the remarkable development of technical education. Vocational education had taken its place in education systems and was seen as a means for promoting economic progress, social advancement and equality of

opportunity as well - the accent was on improving the preparation of young people for working life. Since 1972 three new factors have inclined governments to adopt a more cautious approach to vocational training. These new factors were:

a. The spread of education.

The greater numbers of pupils staying on through to secondary education raised the problem of what level of educational development is compatible with the proper functioning of the economy and, secondly, because pupils were kept from the constraints of working life for much longer before entering it gave rise to negative results of adjustment etc. A further result of the spread of education was that educational reform was aimed more and more at the preparation of young people for diversified levels and types of training. The responsibility on planners therefore increased because as the link between training and development is strengthened, the consequences of any misdirection of educational policy becomes more serious. Vocational training had shifted to be a major part of development planning.

b. The reduced role of the schools

It has been established that in times of economic slowdown governments' attitude to training changes. A common occurrence is that to promote fuller employment of young people, countries have generally stepped up out-of-school training. Various forms of on-the-job training have been encouraged and individual employment relations have been made more flexible so as to expand the opportunities for training outside the school. As a result the role of undertakings in vocational training has been confirmed or strengthened.

c. Doubts about the effectiveness of vocational training

Ducray in the third place states that despite efforts devoted to training young people and adults, the smooth working of the employment market is frequently upset by persistent shortages

and/or surpluses of particular skills. The effectiveness of vocational training in achieving qualitative renewal of the labour force is being questioned. Before the spread of education this renewal was achieved through early employment.

(Compare Ducray, 1979, p 265 - 267)

4.3.2 The relationship between training and employment

In analysing the relationship between training and employment Ducray found that in the traditional view, training was an instrument of manpower policy as e.g. early trade guilds ensured the supply of new labour for the trades. This link has however been strained considerably due to the radical changes in the pace and nature of industrial development. Findings in a number of Western and African countries have indicated that the firmly held assumptions on which vocational education has been based are a long way off the mark. These assumptions include the fact that the training provided is put to direct use in a job in the same field and that the employment market ensures that workers find jobs requiring the skills they possess. (Ducray, 1979, p 268 - 9). Employment structures for example, vary from one undertaking to another in the same industry because undertakings choose a growth model in which technology, the division of labour and human resource management are all variables. As the direct link between training and employment, due to e.g. oversupply of available manpower, is weakened people with differing skills and training compete for the same job. Or stated differently, various jobs can be filled by persons with the same type of specialised training - this allows for greater interoccupational mobility. Workers are also playing a more significant role in the relationship between training and employment. Other factors such as benefits associated with the work are considered and can influence selection of a job. Employers also adjust their learning practices according to extremely varying criteria. The factors referred to above have reduced the link between training and employment, but the inadequacy of employment forecasts as a basis for training policy has worsened that link. The weaknesses have already been pointed out under the manpower approach but, due to these inadequacies in times of economic uncertainty in the absence of reliable information on future trends, governments are in danger of erring in two ways. Firstly they attach excessive importance to academic instruction and rely on the development of personal qualities as preparation for the

future. A system of general education is used to avoid the problem of being able to forecast the occupational opportunities for specialized trainees. The second and no less dangerous development is that the centralized educational system will become totally divorced from the highly decentralized measures taken by undertakings in the employment market.

4.3.3 Changes in skills and the effects of structural factors on the employment situation

Ducray introduces the idea of the skills complex. In its most usual sense skill is used to describe the form and content of human labour i.e. a worker's occupational qualification. In a less traditional way industrial sociologists have applied the concept of skill to job analysis and have classified posts according to skill levels. However, whether seen as the former or latter, the concept is not really useful to determine vocational training policy. According to Ducray what concerns the vocational training authorities most is the qualitative change in jobs for which the adjustment of training programmes can effectively prepare young people and in the event of rapid and major change, adults as well. Hence the idea that information has to be obtained from the point of view of the individual in a work situation referred to as the skills complex. This approach highlights the difficulties of planning training for an entire industry (Ducray, 1979, p 273).

Identifying changes in the skills complex is important to the planner. These changes according to Ducray take place in the sectoral composition of the economy, the level of skills required of the labour force, job content and working conditions. It has for example, become necessary to look at what Ducray calls occupational functions, by which is meant a worker's ability to co-operate with other members of a production team and to understand how his own work fits into a more complex manufacturing process. To understand how skills are changing it will be necessary to obtain, apart from economical and statistical data, a breakdown of training by skill on the completion of schooling, satisfactory job descriptions as situated in their economic, technical and social context and thirdly, there should be more systematic research on the transition from school to working life, as well as into workers initial employment experiences and their subsequent careers. One further concept used by

Ducray is the job network. According to him at any given moment the balance - or imbalance - in the relationship between training and the economy is revealed in the state of a country's job network. (Ducray, 1979, p 275).

Analysis of the skills complex, which often shows the results of certain factors at work, could lead to a factual description of the job network. Two structural effects on the job network, respectively called the 'educational effect' of the 1960's and secondly, the 'undertaking effect' are worth noting. The first had a lot to do with e.g. geographical mobility of the labour force which increases with the level of education, and the latter affected such things as, for example, that an open system of grading is more favourable to on-the-job training.

4.3.4 Towards a modern vocational training policy

Ducray lists the following as essential to a modern vocational training policy: The rational use of forecasts, which filled in with the skills complex and the job network, could be used to do short-term analysis of the employment market most common to adult education. Medium term forecasting is useful for the development of programmes as it provides insights into the effects, in 3 to 5 years time, of demographic factors, schooling, etc. Long term forecasting is useful to make governments aware of slow-acting but important factors which have a decisive influence on national development e.g. population changes. Information on the skills complex, regularly updated, could be used as a diagnostic tool which makes it possible to locate the points at which vocational training action is desirable. A modern training policy has to tackle the question of the transferability of qualifications from job to job.

(Ducray, 1979, p 279)

Current research is attempting to identify the skills used in specific work situations and to group together various techniques into work systems comprising activities with the same characteristics. In this way it should be possible to both identify common cores of basic training and to diversify further training according to the circumstances. A final point for a successful vocational training policy is to ensure the support and commitment of the parties principally concerned.

4.4 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE FOR INTERVENTION IN THE TRANSITION FROM SCHOOLING TO THE WORLD OF WORK

In the first part of this chapter attention has been given to the points of intervention, by governments, in the transition from schooling to the world of work. In this section particular attention will be given to the structures and means that governments may use to intervene. From the previous section on a manpower policy has become obvious that government will intervene when the state of an economy, or other factors, necessitates such a move. It has already been stated that the means of intervention vary in degree and form, e.g. legislation or policy statement or selective financing. What requires further attention is the structures involved.

As mentioned earlier, government's firm and long term means of intervention is usually through a Department of Labour or Manpower or Employment which may create some national manpower planning and training device in the form of a national training board or a manpower commission which has a number of functions such as to:

- Advise a manpower policy;
- Recommend measures to finance training;
- Undertake manpower need surveys;
- Encourage and/or enforce the development of regional, sectoral, industry or a host of other forms of training boards, agencies, institutes etc;
- Regulate the powers of training boards and certification mechanisms;
- Establish and maintain its own training facilities.

An example quoted by Muller describes the establishment of Industrial Training Boards in the United Kingdom. According to him the Industrial Training Boards were established to provide a variety of courses to meet all kinds of training needs of workers and employees. The boards are empowered by law to raise a sufficient income by imposing a levy on every firm commensurate with the number of employees. This income is spent on reimbursing firms with training schemes of their own up to the level of their proven expenditure, arranging courses under their own auspices and paying the fees of employees in attendance at courses.

(Müller, 1975, p 118)

Not all training boards or associations are established by government efforts. Often the organised industries create their own training mechanism in the form of a board or association, to which members pay a levy by agreement and from which training is then financed. Furthermore some large industries recruit and train employees and issue certificates of their own to employees independently, i.e. without government aid or intervention. It should also be noted that the private sector cannot be looked at as a single structure or entity with unity of interest. In fact members of the same industry who are in competition with one another for resources, finance and markets are not easily represented on decision-making bodies. (URBAN FOUNDATION, 1982, p 5 - 6). It follows further that, due to their skills complex, the interpretation of needs may be different even in the same vocation. In Chapter 5 particular attention will be given to a highly structured network of training establishments in the United Kingdom.

The main point to be made here is that the degrees of intervention by Government will be particular at any time depending on the circumstances applicable at that time. It follows that the state of development of training in a particular sector of the private sector will similarly depend on prevailing circumstances.

It needs to be pointed out further that the relationship between the private sector and the world of work is influenced by private bodies, neither governmentally influenced or connected, nor industry related. Again the range of such bodies is endless - from church groups to foundations and trusts. An example of this type of organisation and its characteristics is found in the British Association for Industrial and Commercial Education. (Perry, 197-, p 46). It is a non-political educational charity with the task to establish closer links between employers and employees on the one hand and education on the other. As will be seen in Chapter 5 this body has become very influential. Other examples of such agencies are numerous. The scope of involvement of these agencies or bodies is wide open - from focussing attention on issues to undertaking training and development projects which they finance.

A major force in the field which is neither government nor industry based, is the organised employee organisations (unions and associations)

which through their own efforts, backed by such large organisations as the International Labour Organisation (ILO), play a definite role on the type, suitability and entitlements of their members to training. Whitehouse in an article, Workers' Participation for Development, spells out the role of unions (workers' organisations) in workers' education. He lists the following as the objectives of the ILO Workers' Education Programme:

- '(i) strengthening the educational services of workers' organisations, particularly through the training of labour educators;
- (ii) promoting and strengthening trade union research and documentation services;
- (iii) strengthening other union services through the training of workers, e.g. co-operative undertakings and economic and social services sponsored or supported by workers' organizations;
- (iv) promoting workers' participation in development through information and education;
- (v) dissemination of information, and extension of education on labour matters through workers' education associations, universities, schools, etc.;
- (vi) developing and promoting the development, at country level, of study materials, audio-visual aids and methods and techniques of workers' education. '

(Whitehouse, 1978, p 230 - 231)

Again the more developed the unions are, the more influence they will try and exert.

An emerging influence on the relationship between training and work is that of the organized training profession. In many instances associations of trainers, training officers and practitioners have been

formed to exercise control over the training staff in terms of standards for qualifications, conduct etc. This sector may have a strong influence on the curriculum planning for training, the development of training aids, centres, facilities etc. The improvement in the quality of training is often attributed to these people and training schemes often weigh up well with, or are even better than some formal education programmes.

To end this chapter a case study on the role of large private industry in Brazil described by Edfelt will be used. He did an analysis on the nature of the involvement of large private industrial firms in carrying out and/or supporting occupational education and training. It is a good example to illustrate a wide spectrum of involvement of private industries on schooling and the world of work. Edfelt used Staley's four phase model which traces a continuing interdependent relationship between general education and job- and career-oriented education and training. (Edfelt, 1975 p 397 - 411). The phases are:

- (i) General education, i.e. instruction directed towards acquiring knowledge and skills widely applicable to a number of occupations.
- (ii) General education in conjunction with some introduction to specific occupations and actual work experience.
- (iii) Job-entry training, plus further education, normally occurring, at or near the start of a regular job.
- (iv) Career-long further training and retraining and education.

Edfelt illustrated the involvement of large private industry using this model. He reports that although Brazil has established compulsory primary education, its financial resources are such that it cannot do more than keep up with the school-age population. A large dropout rate in this section complicates matters. Therefore private industry is obliged both legally and from a personal interest, to support general education efforts. Thus firms must enrol 12 - 14 year olds in their corresponding grade of first-level education and provide supplementary education for 15 to 18 year old employees.

These classes are available through public schools or the Service Social da Industria (SESI) which conduct classes on the premises during non-working hours. SESI was founded by private firms in 1946 to help families of workers. It is financed by a charge of 1,5 per cent of the total labour bill of every industrial firm. A further programme is the already mentioned basic literacy programme MOBREAL. Firms in Brazil are also taxed a further 1,4 per cent for supplementary instruction programmes but can be exempted from this if they maintain elementary school facilities for children of employees or establish a scholarship programme approved by the Secretary of Education. Involvement in the second phase of the model in the case of Brazillian private industry, is their use of the SENAI apprenticeship programme. By federal law in Brazil firms have to hire a number of under-eighteen year old apprentices in a proportion of five to ten per cent of the work force and enrol them in a SENAI programme. Such a programme could be offered privately as in-company training or at a private or state controlled training centre. In the third phase or job-entry training plus further education most Brazillian industrial firms meet job-entry requirements by using (1) SENAI programmes, (2) programmes initiated by their own training departments, (3) supervised programmes of on-the-job training supervised by co-workers etc, (4) joint training efforts, (5) imported manpower, or (6) a combination of these. Specific projects appear from time to time to meet specific needs. Thus FORMO (Project for Rapid Manpower Formation) is a unit with the Secretary of Social Welfare, with its objective to finance and promote job-entry training and retraining for un- and underdeveloped persons in the city, working in conjunction with firms. At a different level PIPMO (Intensive Manpower Preparation Program) was founded to provide job-entry training, retraining and upgrading for industrial workers in short intensive courses. PIPMO will finance 50% of the training costs and firms using it have to provide the balance. In the fourth phase, that of continuing education, SENAI provides some programmes but firms often use outside consultants to do, for example, management development training.

Through this illustration Edfelt shows that large private industries could play a significant role in general through to advanced continuing education - partly government enforced and partly on own initiative. It is wrong, in his opinion, to categorize industrial firms as purely economic institutions as this leads to an underestimation of their involvement in education and training aspects of human resources.

5. SUMMARY

In this chapter particular attention has been given to the relationship between the private sector and the system for the provision of education. It has been established that there are a number of points of intervention for government, industry and other bodies in the link between schooling and the world of work. Different approaches to this linkage were established and emphasis placed on the changing nature of this relationship. In Chapters 5 and 6 the theoretical foundation established thus far will be used to analyse the historical development of linkage in the UK and RSA.

CHAPTER 5

THE INFLUENCE OF GOVERNMENT POLICY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NFE, FORMAL EDUCATION AND THE PRIVATE SECTOR IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

In this section of the thesis attention will be directed to non-formal education, in particular the transfer from schooling to employment and training in the United Kingdom. Education in the United Kingdom is divided into three control areas, England, Scotland and Wales and emphasis here will be on England, realizing that similar, though sometimes different, arrangements occur in Scotland and Wales. The term non-formal education is not as widely used as further education, transition from school to work etc, which appear in the literature most often, but in essence reflects that part of education not normally included in schooling. The study of the situation in the United Kingdom was selected because of the vast number of varying initiatives taken especially since 1977. It is the intention to trace government involvement, initiatives, legislation and policy on the transition from school to the world of work with the main emphasis on the last decade. It is realized that these initiatives would be of most value to the well developed sector of South African Education, but it is nevertheless important to analyse how the South African Government's actions compare. The literature available on the United Kingdom is vast and some reliance has to be put on the views of acknowledged authors in the field. Of particular value here are the views of people and organisations neither government connected nor industry related - people who can distance themselves from either points of view or interests. One such source, which is regarded as an authoritative case study, by Perry, is called The Evolution of British Manpower Policy and a further useful source is the journal series published by the British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education (BACIE). BACIE is acknowledged by the British Manpower Services Commission as a major critic of its policies and programmes.

It is the intention to trace the development of nfe UK government policy largely during the second half of the twentieth century to determine its influence on the transition from school to work. The second aim with this chapter is to give a description of non-formal education initiatives by the UK Government in co-operation with the private sector, during the last decade.

In order to establish the influence of the UK Government during this period an analysis of the major reports, policy statements and legislation, as well as reaction to these will be analysed. The period can be divided chronologically into the following:

1945 - 1963 - Gradual Government awakening - leading up to the Industrial Training Act of 1964.

1964 - 1973 - Under the Industrial Training Act 1964 - Pressure to change the 64 Act - Employment and Training Act 1973.

1973 - 1985 - The era of the MSC; The Employment and Training Act 1981.

Although the manpower policy development is analysed from the Government's angle, by implication the development is in response to the state of manpower requirements in the economy and reflects the activities or inactivity in the private sector to deal with the manpower problems. It is further obvious that although this section deals with manpower policy development, it is its effect on non-formal education (training) which is the centre of attention. Each period stated above will be analysed with most attention on the last decade.

5.1 GRADUAL GOVERNMENT INVOLVEMENT - UK : 1945 - 1963

In 1960 Perry, in examining the progress in adult education in the UK over the last hundred and fifty years, maintained that it reflected the changing character of the UK society. Quoting Peers, he said that:

'It began as an attack on illiteracy; it developed as an effort to understand the forces shaping the new society in a period of industrial and economic change; it continued as an attempt to achieve greater political understanding, part of the struggle to secure political rights of ordinary working people; finally it became the visible expression of the demand for higher education on the part of those for whom other opportunities had been lacking'

(Peers, 1980, p 118)

In looking at Government and private sector efforts at nfe the social mobility value of their efforts to the people was one of the great achievements of nfe.

Before analysing the period from 1945 to 1963 the observations by Perry on the 1917 - 1945 period may prove interesting. He identifies six major causes for failure of the manpower planning during this period. He points out that enquiries into training for manpower needs were adhoc and piecemeal. Statistics were unreliable. Unexpected shifts in Government policy often invalidated the basis on which assumptions were made or on which recommendations were based. Shortages and surpluses in some fields tended to be the result of marginal imbalances. Technological and scientific advances created their own unpredictable momentum which made extrapolation difficult. Effective manpower planning needed some direction of labour which would be resisted in a democratic society. (Perry, 1975, p 37). In this statement of his lies a lot of truth in that governments tend to be reluctant to become involved with training which is too directional as it could affect their popularity at the polls.

An important sign of some Government involvement in UK industrial/vocational training came in 1944 when an 'Employment policy' was stated to right the alignment of training of workers dislodged from previous positions due to the war. The Government statement indicated that no matter how little skill was involved in a job, instruction should be given and Government would provide grants to employers who undertook training for jobs with greater skill. Technical colleges would provide retraining. (Perry, 1975, p 48).

In 1950 the Weeks Report on close liaison with industry recommended new advanced courses in technology and the establishment of a 'Royal College of Technologists' with powers to grant degrees. Here we have intervention in the educational structure. Post Second World War manpower planning in the UK was strongly influenced by the Percy Report which advocated that a limited number of technical colleges should develop technological courses of university standard and the establishment of a National Advisory Council on Education for Industry and Commerce to co-ordinate technological studies. This was the beginning of regional councils under a national body on Education for Industry and Commerce. However it must be kept in mind that apprenticeship training had already been in existence under the Guilds for years.

(Perry, 1975, p 40)

In 1956 the UK Government White Paper on Technical Education indicated a massive injection of public funds into the further education sector. The Government however made it clear that it accepted responsibility for vocational training, but that training was strictly the responsibility of industry and should continue to remain so.

(Perry, 1975, p 41)

The Carr Report led to the recommendation for establishment of the National Apprenticeship Council on which representatives of appropriate industrial organisations, who would be selected because of their knowledge of and interest in the training of young people, would serve. This Council would have no executive powers and its function would be to help, encourage and exhort, but the responsibility for training in each industry would rest on the industry concerned. The Willis Jackson Report which appeared in 1957, dealt with the mobility of staff from industry to education and industry involvement in college education, i.e. the supply of staff and training of teachers for technical colleges. This Report recommended mobility between the worlds of work and education and recognition of status of staff who periodically worked in both sectors. The National Apprenticeship Council proposed by the Carr Report received strong criticism from trade unions saying that it would only deal with craft training, when what was needed was a global review of the entire spectrum of vocational training at all levels. As a result an Industrial Training Council was formed to keep under review the recruitment and training of workers, to provide encouragement and help industry in dealing with their training, collect and disseminate information about aspects of training common to more than one industry, including information about training practices in other countries.

(Perry, 1975, p 75 - 78)

From the survey undertaken by the Council to make a quantitative assessment of the training needs for young workers the results showed that most training schemes were done by employers' organisations and some by joint arrangements with trade unions. The Council circulated pamphlets to industry and commerce and committees were set up to identify problems which needed attention. The 1959 Crowther Report on the education of boys and girls age 15 - 18 showed some flaws in the training of the time. It was indicated that the smaller the firm, the less likely it was to be able to offer modern training facilities and it showed that damage was inflicted on the trainee through the lack of adequate co-ordination

between further education and training. Part time release to attend colleges was advocated. This serves as an example of a case where recommendations were made that would alter/influence the educational structure.

(Corbett, 1978, p 1 - 7)

If the industrial section had a diversity of training needs, commercial education had an even greater multiplicity of associations and different needs as often the same subjects had different syllabuses, as was found by the McMeeling group who reported on further education for commerce.

(Perry, 1975, p 154)

The gradual involvement of the UK Government in training gave rise to caution by members of industry such as Beaver, who warned that industry had a new role to play ... 'to initiate, to sponsor, to finance research and education Each industry must accept this or we must hand over our whole life and being to the care of the State.'

(Beaver, 1959, as quoted by Perry from BACIE Memoranda)

In 1960 the 'Great Debate' on the role of further education developed and the Ministry of Education entered the debate by stating its views on who should be responsible for industrial training. Technical colleges could make a greater contribution by assuming, on behalf of industry, responsibility for training, as well as education during the first year of apprenticeship, with the co-operation of industry to assist with equipment and with the agreement of trade unions. This step is an example of the establishment of a process-intensive model where training in practical skills at school would be simulated according to what the students would have learnt in industry. The Ministry of Labour indicated that financial incentives or training grants to industry were being considered. The expense could be met through some form of compulsory levy.

(Perry, 1975, p 79 - 82)

The UK Government also, for the first time, set up off-the-job apprenticeship training by establishing Government Training Centres especially for the smaller firms. The issue of a levy for financing

training was discussed in the UK Parliament in 1961 and a differential levy system was proposed. Firms which did their share of training, would break even on the grant they got from the Government; firms that did more than their share would receive subsidy and firms that did less than their share would be subject to punitive tax as a result of their policy. Pressure for greater compulsory training came from the unions which stressed that training for industry could no longer be done on a voluntary basis - exhortation to train was no longer adequate.

(Perry, 1975, p 95)

In February 1962 the National Joint Advisory Council considered the report on the manpower situation. The final recommendation suggested that to alleviate the shortage of craftsman, the country's training efforts should be examined. 'While the primary responsibility must remain with industry the Government may need in future to play a larger role in industrial training. If this principle is accepted, it will be necessary to examine more closely, the form which the Government's contribution might take' 'and the conditions under which more training of adults might be undertaken' (Perry, 1975 as quoted from the Ministry of Labour Gazette, Feb 62 p 46).

This statement heralded the industrial training turning point for Government involvement. Up to this time training had been the responsibility of industry alone. In order to start the ball rolling the UK Government started negotiations with employer organisations and unions on training.

In spite of the UK Government's efforts to defend the Carr Report and policy, criticism was building up and the Government, in December 1962, announced an evolutionery, but also revolutionery new training policy in the White Paper: Industrial Training: Government Proposals. The following proposals indicated the greater role of the Government in training:

- The Minister of Labour would be given statutory power to set up Boards, which would be responsible for all aspects of training in individual industries, in consultation with organisations concerned with industry. (The powers of these

boards will be given when the Industrial Training Act of 1964 is discussed).

- A levy on firms in the industry was proposed and a rebate system suggested.
- The boards should be based on existing structure of industry.
- Boards would be empowered to appoint qualified officers to report on quality of training and the Minister of Labour would be empowered to appoint officers to satisfy him that the standards of training adopted by the Boards were sufficient to justify payment of grants to the Boards.

(Perry, 1975, p 101 - 103)

From a number of quarters, individual and union comments and criticism flowed. A need for end-of-apprenticeship tests was stressed and the absence of a central co-ordinating body for training was pointed out, as well as that industrial training needs to be flexible. In answer to a request to clarify the term industry it was later explained that it meant all types of employment. What was important was the statement by Government that the time had come to strengthen and improve the existing partnership between industry, the Government and the education authorities regarding the provision of industrial training. The Industrial Training Bill, with some changes as to what had been in the White Paper, passed through Parliament in November 1963 and became the Industrial Training Act of 1964 - a Central Training Council had been included. The following parts of this Act are important for this study:

- The establishment of industrial training boards (ITB) with powers to
 - (i) provide and secure required courses;
 - (ii) raise money through a levy on employers (with exemption of some);
 - (iii) obtain information from employers;
- The Minister shall appoint a Central Training Council to advise him on the exercise of his functions.

(United Kingdom Act 1964, 1964, p 1 - 11)

Criticisms of the 1964 Act came from academics, unions and industrial training boards.

5.2 UNDER THE INDUSTRIAL TRAINING ACT OF 1964

By 1969 there were twenty-seven statutory training boards and three voluntary boards covering 15 1/2 million employees. Levy was, in most cases, on a percentage of total wages bill. Problems experienced were, for example, from small industries with good training records which insisted on forming smaller boards and wanted to avoid being grouped with 'backward' establishments in large boards. A shortage of good trainers was experienced. The Central Training Council although it got underway immediately, had no real power as it merely advised the Minister. It could not prevent overlapping between ITBs. The levy grant system became a controversial subject. Some ITBs, such as that for Agricultural, Horticultural and Forestry Training, timed their introduction of a levy badly and experienced a revolt amongst their participants. Differential levy scales had to be introduced to cover the range of occupations and levels under a particular ITB. (Perry, 1975, p 175 - 201). Small firms complained about communication problems with ITBs, in-company training for small firms was difficult and group training schemes were proposed. Some organisations won court cases against inclusion in an ITB. The bureaucracy which accompanied the work of the ITBs was criticized. In 1971 the ITBs, however, did though help considerably with sharing the cost of training unemployed. In February 1972 a Green Paper called, Training for the Future - A Plan for Discussion, was published by the Government: The following points emerged:

- The importance of the work by the ITBs was praised.
- The problems surrounding the levy-grant system were discussed and problems highlighted.

The main recommendations were as follows: (compare Perry, 1975, p 286 - 8).

- Training should meet the needs of individuals.
- Training should meet the needs of industry.
- A National Training Agency was proposed. This was a new direction in the Government involvement in the transition from school to work.

'The government propose the setting up of a National Training Agency which would run the Training Opportunities Scheme; co-ordinate the work of the Boards on matters of general concern and carry out standard-setting and similar functions in fields of employment not covered by Boards and for occupations which cut across industrial boundaries (including management training to which the Agency would pay special attention); meet the cost of 'Boards' approved programmes of work; develop a national training advisory service, and itself operate this in parts of industry not covered by Boards; and run selective schemes for financial incentives to key training activities in consultation with Boards. In order to provide the best possible career structure, staff working for the Boards would become employees of the Agency as well as those working directly for the Agency itself.'

The government propose that the Agency should be a hived-off body outside the civil service. It would be run by a chief executive and a board of full-time executive directors responsible to the Secretary of State for Employment and would be financed by the government through the Department of Employment. The Agency would take full account of education considerations.'

(Perry, 1975, p 286 - 7)

This proposal changed the role of the private sector in nfe and its relationship to the Government considerably.

- A Central Advisory Body was proposed. A Council of Manpower Services was hinted at.
- The levy-grant system was to be reviewed and the proposed National Training Agency would be heavily financed. There was strong support for the retention of the levy-grant system.

When the White Paper emerged in 1973 some changes had been made. The levy-grant system remained, but now it was a levy-grant exemption system under which the criterion for exemption was a firm's training activity measured in terms of its own needs and only if these needs were deemed not to have been met would a liability for levy arise. The Training

Boards would remain, with some streamlining. The most far-reaching innovation was the transformation of the original concept of a National Training Agency into the fully-fledged Manpower Services Commission.

(Perry, 1975, p 30 1 - 2)

The Employment and Training Act of 1973 became law on 25 July 1973. The following are important issues:

- a. The Manpower Services Commission (MSC) is to be established as a statutory body responsible to the Secretary of State for Employment. It will have two arms the Employment Services Agency (ESA) and the Training Services Agency (TSA).

The structure of the MSC appears in figure 5.1.

- b. Finance. The MSC is to be financed by an annual grant from Treasury, calculated on the basis of an agreed programme of work based on a five year rolling programme.
- c. The Employment Services Agency is responsible for planning, developing and operating the public employment services excluding the careers services which is provided by the local education authority.
- d. The Training Services Agency operates in 3 divisions:
 1. The Industry Division is responsible for the promotion of training in industry.
 2. The TOPS Division is responsible for the Training Opportunities Schemes.
 3. The Training Directorate is responsible for maintaining the TSA's professional training competence.

(UK Employment and Training Act, 1973, p 1 - 18)

5.3 THE ERA OF THE MSC (1973 TO THE PRESENT)

For the purpose of this research this period is the most important and will therefore be dealt with in greater detail and from a wide range of

Manpower Services Commission Headquarters and regional organisation.†

MSC COMMITTEE FOR WALES

Chairman - SIR MELVYN ROSSER

Members

R. J. Bull MBE	D. Gregory	P. J. Summers
Dr J. D. Davies	J. A. J. Harries CBE	T. D. Williams
D. M. Evans	I. M. Kelsall	G. H. Wright MBE

Chairman - Sir RICHARD O'BRIEN †

Members

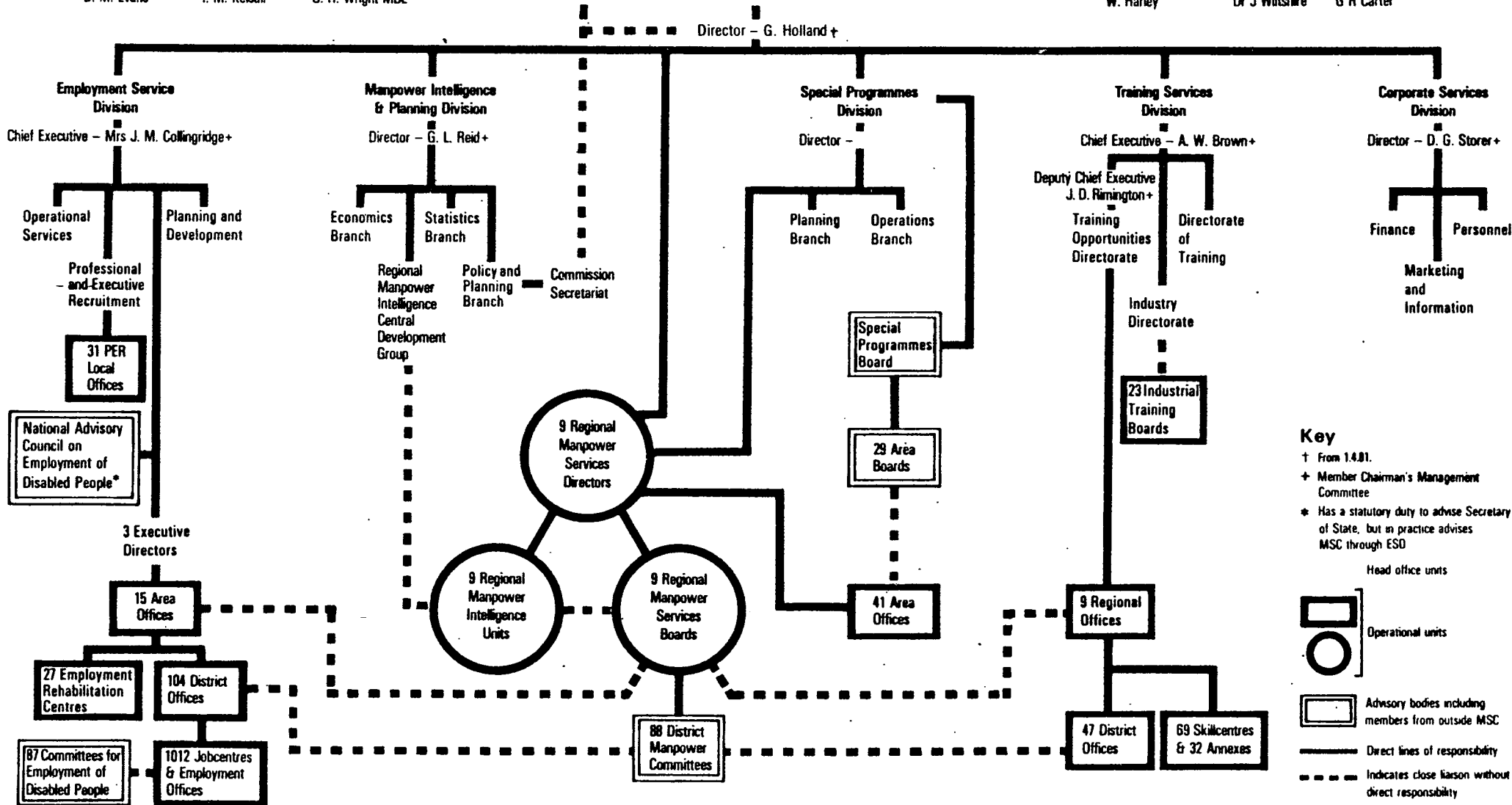
F. A. Baker CBE	K. Graham OBE	T P Lyons
M. O. Bury OBE	R. L. Helmore CBE	O. G. Stradling
Miss E. Carnegie	W. H. Keys	R. Thwaites

MSC COMMITTEE FOR SCOTLAND

Chairman - MISS E. CARNEGIE

Members

J. C. Campbell	A. Inglis	J. Morrell
J. Davidson	J. Milne	J. D. Pollock
W. Harley	Dr J. Wiltshire	G R Carter



Key

- † From 1.4.81.
- ‡ Member Chairman's Management Committee
- * Has a statutory duty to advise Secretary of State, but in practice advises MSC through ESO
- Head office units
- Operational units
- ▭ Advisory bodies including members from outside MSC
- Direct lines of responsibility
- - - Indicates close liaison without direct responsibility

sources. It illustrates a large number of interventions by the UK Government both regarding the training in industry and the formal education programme.

In 1978 the Council of Europe observed that the UK Manpower Services Commission was fulfilling the task of helping people choose, train and obtain self-fulfilling work and assisting employers to fill their vacancies with precision. It therefore played an important role in the relationship between schooling and the world of work. (Council of Europe, 1977 p 128). This role is all the more important as Mann found, in 1973, that there were significant differences between the school social structure and most work places and that the school did not prepare pupils for the world of work. He found that parents and their children in the UK were keen that the school should enable the children to secure the best jobs and careers of which they are capable but that teachers generally rejected vocational success as a major objective of education.

(Mann, 1979, p 3 - 5)

The Manpower Services Commission's main aims, as formulated by the Commission include: (i) To contribute to efforts to increase employment opportunities and to reduce unemployment, (ii) to assist the development of manpower resources and contribute fully to economic well-being, (iii) to help secure for each worker the opportunities and services he or she needs in order to lead a satisfying working life, (iv) to improve the quality affecting manpower. (MSC, 1979, p 8). Its Training Services Division (TSD) is concerned with 3 main operational programmes:

- To meet the training needs of industry - In 1979 this accounted for 30% of the Division's financial resources.
- To meet the training needs of individuals - In 1979 these through TOPS programmes accounted for 65% of its financial resources.
- To promote effectiveness and efficiency of the National Training System. The long-term purpose is to improve training methods and knowledge and the utilisation of scarce resources, as a contribution to national economic recovery.

(MSC, 1979, p 8 - 9)

The relationship with industries is important for this study. In 1979 the MSC relationship with industry was divided into two:

- Relationships with Industries in the ITB Sector

The aim here is to help industry meet its training needs, to fulfil its co-ordinating role and to help maintain and improve the Board system and it is achieved through dialogue with firms and industry.

ITBs prepare their own annual budgets on 5 year rolling plans on which their operations are based. These are reviewed annually with their Dialogue Teams. The role of the TSD is to assist towards progressive improvement of training provided by firms to meet their own needs and develop industry-wide and also national training priorities. A further aspect is that ITBs are encouraged to take strategic views of industries' training requirements and to go beyond firms' short term needs. In turn ITBs have encouraged firms to plan ahead in line with industrial strategy and to retrain their own workers to accommodate the restructuring of industry.

(MSC, 1979, p 9 - 10)

- Relationships with industries in the non-ITB sector

TSD's Industry Directorate also helps to promote adequate training in the public sector and those sectors of industry and commerce that are not covered by statutory Industry Training Boards. The objectives in the non-ITB sector are:

- setting up Joint Industry Training Bodies;
- establishing partnerships with existing training bodies;
- improving the planning of training, where appropriate;

- identifying key training needs;
- aligning the various training schemes with those of the national training system.

Dialogue teams from the TSD adopt more flexible methods in working with this sector as the training bodies vary in the amount of influence they have with their industries.

(MSC, 1979, p 10 - 11)

The TSD also fulfils the very valuable task of building up a data bank on systematically identified skills and knowledge which are needed to do specific jobs and secondly contributes to improving occupational mobility by:

- enabling individuals to identify the skills and knowledge needed to perform any new job;
- showing employers that vacancies can be filled from a wider population than they might anticipate;
- providing a basis from which to develop modular training programmes suited to the requirements of individuals and employers in specific circumstances.

(Council of Europe, 1978, p 128);

The important initiating role of the MSC and its agencies in developing a whole new drive in manpower training and re-training when particular circumstances require it, will be returned to later in this chapter. With these few remarks the remainder of this chapter will be used to:

- illustrate the role of the UK MSC in training initiatives and schemes and attempts to promote industry and education co-operation;
- the role of organised industry (ITBs) in nfe programmes for manpower training to meet their needs and the influence of the MSC on their role in the UK - an industry by industry survey of training needs;
- the role of certification boards on the issue of standards and training;

- further changes in the Training Act of 1981 which again changed the relationship between the Government and organised industry;
 - some present day initiatives by the MSC;
 - the role of an organisation such as BACIE and the organised employee organisations;
- (vii) a summary of the findings of this chapter.

The first of these, namely the role of the MSC in training initiatives and schemes, will be illustrated throughout the text.

5.3.1 The role of organised commerce and industry in nfe programmes : UK

As was stated at the beginning of this research the emphasis is on proficiency nfe by government, commerce and industry and private bodies training on behalf of industry.

The philosophy of who is responsible for training in the UK has been that industry has the primary responsibility for meeting its training needs. The Act of 1964 and again of 1973 on training led to the establishment of the ITBs. As was stated earlier the first Act saw to the establishment of ITBs and the second made changes in the levy system. The ITBs ensure that sufficient training is provided for their industries; they make recommendations about the length, nature, standard and content of training for different occupations, and about the associated further education with that training and impose levies or (levy exemption systems) of not more than 1% on payrolls of employers except if a higher percentage is approved by Parliament. Up to 1981 the ITBs operating expenses were met by the Exchequer (MSC, 1978, p 5 - 6). An example of how a training board such as the Engineering Industry Training Board sees its role is quoted from a report by the Council of Europe.

'The Board sees its role as a catalyst for work with the industry and other organisations towards an effective preparation and deployment of people who work in engineering. Thus it is not the Board's job to do training but rather help others to help themselves and to effect this the Board looks at the problem from several points of view.

First from the overall position of the industry for which it must try and secure those aspects of training which are key to the industry. Here it is concerned with people whose skills are transferable from one company to another.

Second the Board serves the needs of individual companies in helping to identify, plan and make the most effective provision for the training necessary to achieve their corporate aims. Third the Board must have regard for the aspirations of industrial people who work in industry. This means ensuring the release of potential through the provision of proper opportunities and giving support for an appropriate balance of training and education.'

(Council of Europe, 1978, p 141)

The same ITB's courses often have a first year of basic training followed by a number of vertical modules. Normally one module corresponds to a study year, however another module may be added to broaden the real vocational training. The common first year of all craft trainees enables them to adopt their skills after they have completed their initial training in two modules. E.g. a trainee can obtain modules in mechanical fitting skills and be certificated, following this he may then take mechanical maintenance modules as an adult and move into maintenance work. This ensures adults horizontal mobility throughout their working life to satisfy both the changing skill requirement in the firm and the industry and wider opportunity for the individual's development.

(Council of Europe, 1978, p 130)

The interaction between organised training and the MSC TSA in the field of school leavers, unemployed youths and generally unemployed workers is an interesting one. Thus TSA* operates five kinds of industrial training courses for the young unemployed, often in conjunction with industries and commerce. Industry and commerce make 'training places' available and receive subsidy from the MSC for each place. Enrolment numbers in 1976 were 10000. The types of courses operated by the TSA* in Britain are:

* TSA later became TSD.

- a. Short individual courses i.e. vocational training to enable participants to reach the level of semi-skilled operator, or junior clerical level. Also included are life and social skills.
- b. Occupational selection courses. These start with a period of assessment, following which participants then undergo training within an occupational area indicated by the assessment.
- c. Wider opportunity courses. These are experimental courses where no attempt is made to provide training for a specific skill. The aim is rather to widen employment opportunities by giving participants the opportunity of job related tasks.
- d. Preparatory courses which are not vocational, but intended primarily to provide basic skills for young people sufficient for the purposes of a job, or to pass the selection test for a TOPS training centre.
- e. The TOPS programme. This programme offers free training, to both men and women and with pay, irrespective of whether they are in full employment. Courses are open to all over 19 year olds. (Magnussen, 1977, p 79 - 81). Graham also points out the advantage of TOPS programmes in that it is often for adults in vital skills retraining and useful for young people who are trying to cope with the stresses of unemployment at the same time as they are coming to terms with their transition into adult life - TOPS helps as they are paid while training.

(Graham, 1978, p 83)

An important aspect of ITB activities is their reliance on organized further education to provide parts of their training. The development of both further education and adult education is of great importance to the ITBs. In 1976 the Committee on Continuing Education under Venables made far reaching recommendations on the future of continuing education. The target group was adults who resumed education after a break often involving a period of employment. The recommendations urged greater Government support in finance, paid leave, etc. to enable people to

attend (Venables, 1976, p 8). A further concern of the Committee was that the Open University should expand in the area of what the committee called 'adult concern' courses, that is, courses for which there is a social community or personal need. The Committee was, however, against the idea of an Open College which would provide distance learning. (Gibb, 1976, p 1). A few years later the MSC launched what became known as Open Tech to meet the needs for retraining of workers and it became a very successful undertaking. The point made here is that the training needs of industry are often catered for by special programmes accommodated in the further and higher education system.

The unemployment amongst 16 - 19 year olds in the UK is a major problem for the MSC, in spite of MSC efforts and the opportunities offered in the further education system in co-operation with commerce and industry. Thus, in 1980, Gleeson and Mardle estimated that 500,000 in this age range were unemployable or unemployed. They stated that a large number currently employed are in unskilled or semiskilled work where the opportunities for training or day release were minimal. (Gleeson and Mardle, 1980, p 12). They expressed the view that colleges knew what the manpower requirements of local industry were and that courses tended to be structured accordingly. Working relationships with local industry were therefore good. This is more than what was said by the UK Prime Minister at Ruskin-College in 1976 - it had been found through research that the schools serving the area rendered young people at the point of transition into the adult world of work immaturely dependent, rather than at equipping them to be autonomous and responsible for themselves as citizens - '...the educational system was out of touch with the fundamental need to survive economically in a highly competitive world ...' (Bazalgate, 1978, p xiii).

A further important aspect of the relationship between industry and education in the UK is the work experience or school-industry interface. Here the MSC, together with industry and commerce, play an important role. The work experience projects of the MSC include the following main elements: Induction; a planned programme of experience; opportunity for an element of training and counselling. The objectives are to provide a useful temporary alternative to unemployment and to find out the possibilities and develop the role of work experience in assisting the transition from school to work.

(Bayly, 1977, p 80)

The areas in which young people are placed are research, engineering, design and commercial. The benefits to people are: direct experience of industry; career aspirations could change, and it encourages the emergence of skills which have remained latent throughout school life. It has the benefit for industry that it is the most thorough interviewing process for new recruits.

(Stewart, 1977, p 82)

Oakes in an article on industry and education co-operation in the UK, as the Minister of Education and Science in 1977, pointed out that industry-education co-operation was shared by three departments, that of Education, Employment and Industry. Co-operation between education and industry depended on - '...agreement on aims, and willingness to work together to achieve them'. (Oakes, 1977, p 77). He illustrated this co-operation with a number of measures recently taken to develop it, e.g. setting up of the very important Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit which would co-operate with Local Education Authorities, teachers, examining bodies, training services, both sides of industry and commerce to re-design and review curriculums. A further example was the setting up of the Training and FE Consultative Group (MSC and Department of Education and Science together) to strengthen education and training links. A further feature of this interface was to attempt breaking down the barriers between education and work (training) by seconding teachers to industry for a few days of work experience in industry and to second people from industry to schools for short periods to acquaint themselves with school leavers problems and recruit people.

(BACIE editorial, 1977, p 139)

The extent of the role that ITBs play in the nfe in the United Kingdom can be gauged from the fact that in 1981 there were 42 Training Boards of which 24 were statutory. The industry and commerce are covered by the following ITBs.

(MSC, 1981, a p 1)

Air Transport and Travel
British Rail
Carpet Industry
Ceramics, Glass and Mineral Products

Chemical and Allied Products
Clothing and Allied Products
Coal Mining
Construction
Cotton and Allied Textiles
Distributive
Electricity Supply
Engineering
Finance
Fishing
Food, Drink and Tobacco
Footwear, Leather and Fur Skin
Forestry
Foundry
Freight Forwarding
Furniture and Timber
Gas Supply
Hairdressing
Hotel and Catering
Insurance
Iron and Steel
Knitting, Lace and Net
Local Government (England and Wales)
Local Government (Scotland)
London Transport Executive (Rail)
Man-Made Fibres Producing
Paper and Paper Products
Petroleum
Ports Transport
Post Office
Printing and Publishing
Road Transport
Rubber and Plastics Processing
Shipbuilding
Shipping
Telecommunications
Water Supply
Wool, Jute and Flax

In the non-ITB sector there were 10 million people employed in 1981. This area consists of the following and training is undertaken by employers or agencies associated with employers:

Central Government
National Health Service
Agriculture
Broadcasting
Cleaning
Laundry and Dry Cleaners
Professional Services

As has been pointed out earlier the MSC through its Directorate for Training Services, encourages training in this sector.

5.3.2 The Technician Education Council (TEC) and the Business Education Council (BEC) - Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC)

The growing awareness of the importance of vocationally based and technical courses in further education resulted in a considerable expansion of courses of this type. To help improve the system the TEC was set up by the Government in 1973 and the BEC in 1974. These councils had a common objective: to plan, administer and keep under review unified patterns of courses for people at technician and equivalent levels in industry, business and elsewhere. The two councils were later amalgamated to form BTEC. (DES, 1980, p 39).

a. BEC

Dealing first with the BEC, the Council must ensure that the courses leading to its awards provide the student with a sound educational foundation for business and administration. The underlying philosophy of a council course as determined by the Council is an interesting one. The Council identified a number of fundamental concepts which it believes should be major integrative factors in the learning process which are expressed as themes that permeate all business activity. These themes must be introduced through its courses. They are:

- that money is the essential lifeblood of any business;

- that students should be made aware of this when dealing with management, resources etc;
- that students must be trained to work with people;
- that they must be able to write English well and be numerate to deal with business matters which arise in an advanced technological society.

(BEC, 1976, p ii to iv)

Colleges and BEC officials go to great lengths to involve employers in their courses. For example in the Poole Centre of BEC a project was launched whereby groups of students were given assignments they had to complete with the aid of their employers and at the same time explain BEC Courses to their employers. The project was a success and employers responded very favourable.

(Jackson, 1981, p 10)

A wide range of courses are available at polytechnics and some 600 further education colleges. Courses vary in duration and cater for both advanced and non-advanced further education.

(British Information Services, 1979, p 16)

b. TEC

The Technician Education Council was formed in 1973 to gain control over certification of courses for technician training which is done in conjunction with industry. While the courses are recognised as advanced, they are not of degree level. Colleges and Polytechnics which offer these courses have to submit the syllabuses to the TEC for approval.

(Committee of Directors of Polytechnics, 1983, p x)

In 1983 the TEC and BEC were merged to form the Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC) which would control both business and technician courses and qualifications. BTEC courses are designed to suit the national and local needs. They also work in the fields of computing pre-vocational and post-experience education. BTEC Council's views, as expressed in 1983, were that employers expect something different from their employees. The employers want:

- people who have a much broader knowledge of business and industry;
- people who can show a wide range of skills, such as engineers who can understand budgetting and accountants who know about machinery.

(BTEC, 1983,p 1-2)

The merger was undertaken to provide a unified and more cost-effective service to students, institutions and employers. BTEC is concerned with three aspects of vocational education:

providing through courses for young people, a foundation on which they can build during their working life;

providing sensible, though simple and flexible, courses and units of study for continuing education and training support throughout people's working lives;

and providing light, but robust quality-control mechanisms to ensure that programmes of study leading to BTEC qualifications achieve the intended results.

(BTEC, 1983,p 2)

Apart from BEC, TEC and BTEC there are further certification bodies such as the Guilds courses and the Council for National Academic Awards. The first deals with lower level qualifications and the latter with degree qualifications in the public sector of higher education.

5.3.3 Initiatives to promote understanding of industry through the formal education system and private bodies

Some mention has been made of attempts through industry experience placement programmes to promote understanding of industry. It is, however, an aspect of preparation for work through induction nfe which is approached from several angles which warrant further investigation.

The most formalized attempts came from the Department of Education and Science which has introduced a subject called Industrial Studies into the school curriculum. It is intended for pupils in their sixth year of secondary school. It is a factual syllabus under the headings:

Industry and Society;

Structure and management of a mixed economy;

Industrial relations and understanding and managing an industrial organisation.

The examination procedure is designed to encourage a good measure of direct liaison with industry.

Further attempts are made to introduce into the school curriculum materials which are meant to develop the pupils' awareness and understanding of the industrial society. These include:

- Industry projects funded by the Schools Council in conjunction with the Trade Union Council and the Confederation of British Industry (CBI) aim to provide young people with a realistic awareness of the way in which a modern industrial society works.

- Production of Industry Directories - lists of companies which have facilities which they are prepared to extend to schools.
(Council of Europe, 1978, p 82 - 3)

- The Department of Industry in 1979 published a booklet 'Schools and Industry' describing the activities of various organisations in the field. (DES, 1981, p 6). The list of organisations stretch over several pages. Some examples are: The Banking Information Service which provides free resources material on bank activities and specimens for secondary school teachers to explain banks in a modern society and to simulate actions. A second example is the Careers Research and Advisory Centre which arranges activities and courses to help six formers to understand and better the creative and challenging demands of management and to make more informed career decisions. A third example is the CBI Introduction to Industry Scheme for Teachers to spend up to 3 weeks in an industrial or commercial concern. (Dept of Industry, 1981 a, p 1 - 6). A further direct experience and participation scheme in the same booklet is called "Young Enterprise" Children 15 - 19 years of age are allowed to operate

numerative industrial enterprises run as scale-model companies on strictly commercial lines.

- Procedures for organising a work experience scheme is also available through such organisations as 'Project Trident'. Details on the role of the co-ordinator of a scheme, and the procedures for organising a work experience scheme are provided. Samples of agreements between employers and Local Education Authorities and how to secure support for a scheme, how to write a job description and a course manual are given.
(Trident Trust, 1980, p 1 - 10)

- Publications as textbooks for school and teachers have been written on understanding industry. The text provides a sector-by-sector analysis of industry and commerce with class group and individual activities.
(Baddeley, 1980 a and b, p 1 - 4)

The information exchange between schools and industry in the UK is extensive and indicates a point of intervention by the Government and industry to improve communication.

5.3.4 Initiatives with which the Department of Industry (UK) is associated to promote industry/education liaison

During the course of 1977 - 1980 the Industry/Education Unit (IEU) of the Department of Industry supported a great variety of initiatives to promote industry/education liaison. The philosophy behind this Department's support was the concern about the decline of Britain's industrial performance. One of the major causes of the decline is the attitude prevailing in society, which does not attribute to the manufacturing industry the recognition and support it deserves as the basis on which the nation's standard of living depends. The British Society is largely ignorant of the role the manufacturing industry plays as a major provider of the economic wealth of Britain. In 1978 manufacturing provided employment for one-third of Britain's total workforce, i.e. over 7 million jobs; it accounted for 55 per cent of all its exports in addition to creating directly about one-third of the Gross Domestic Product, i.e. 40,7 billion pounds. Seen in perspective, the total picture for wealth

creation indicates that there is no other sector which contributes anywhere near as much wealth as the manufacturing sector.

(Industry/Education Unit, 1980, p 1 and 72)

Wealth Creation

£ billion in 1978

Goods

Agriculture, Fishing, Forestry	3,7
Mining and Quarrying	4,5
Manufacturing	40,7
Construction	8,6
Utilities	4,8

Services

Transport	7,7
Communication	4,0
Distribution	14,7
Insurance etc	5,2
Housing Services	8,6
Other (holiday, catering etc)	18,7

Total Wealth created £121,2 billion

The problem however is to get young people interested in the manufacturing industry. Hence the creation of the IEU to support the education/industry liaison initiatives. It is stated in their review of initiatives during this period that there is no better way of informing young people about industry and its role in society than by giving them experience of the way industry operates and how this is related to their studies in schools and colleges. At the same time there is no better way of helping teachers to introduce more relevance into their subjects than the offer of assistance and guidance by industry. This, it was thought, would create the partnership that would lead to a greater understanding of each others' problems and the means open to them for assisting each other in the interest of helping young people to make the transition from the school to working life.

(Industry/Education Unit, 1980 p 8)

Within the Department of Industry the IEU exists to:

- improve attitudes towards manufacturing industry among all young people, irrespective of their choice of career;

- encourage more people, including the more able, to develop an interest in manufacturing careers and in the subjects and courses at all levels of education, which can lead to them.

(Industry Education Unit, 1980, p 5)

In this instance, this Unit is a good illustration of direct Government involvement on behalf of a particular sector of industry to improve the manpower flow to a sector which has an important contribution to make towards wealth creation.

The main task of the Units is to promote closer co-operation between industry and education and to encourage initiatives by others which contribute directly to the objectives listed above. Local commitment and practicable activity is essential but schemes by national bodies and further and higher education authorities are welcomed. The scope of the activities supported are:

<u>Type</u>	<u>Example</u>
Careers guidance	- British Association for the Advancement of Science
Study groups	- 'Shaping tomorrow conference'
Curriculum development	- Working Mathematics Group
Educational Development Information	- Paper and Board Sector Working Party - 3 day course for A-level pupils.
Education/Course Development activities	- 'Technology and man' project.
In-service teacher training	- University of Surrey : 'Science in the Oil Industries' - 2 day conference
Primary aspects	- The Molecule Club - actors visiting schools for 5 - 12 year olds presenting plays on scientific principles.
Project Work Competitions	- Industry/Education Liaison Scheme - monitor successful industry/education liaison schemes

- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| Resource Directories | - To promote resource sharing and co-operation between schools, industry etc. |
| Schools/Industry links | - County of Cornwall Schools Technology Project-production of teaching packs through industry to explain how industry works. |
| Understanding Industry | - ICFC-Numas 'Understanding Industry' - lectures by industrialists and trade unionists. |

(and a host of others - 120 listed)

(Industry/Education Unit, 1980, p 6 - 71)

The IEU also publishes from time to time case studies of Industry/Education links to encourage a better understanding of industry. Case studies such as: Project Link up between Hellermann Deutsch and Imberhorne Comprehensive School, are described in detail setting out the project, the nature of the activities for the pupils, recommendations and what the pupils gained from it. (Industry/Education Unit, 197-, p 28 - 31). A further useful type of publication from the IEU are guides to industry/education links in which all the activities in this field are listed alphabetically with references to whom to contact to join a scheme.

(Industry/Education Unit, 197-, p 2 -)

5.3.5 Direct MSC involvement in training and preparation for the world of work

a. Unified Vocational Preparation (UVP)

In July 1976 the Government published a statement entitled Unified Vocational Preparation: a Pilot Approach. The Unified Vocational Preparation would be a joint venture between the Department of Education and Science and Employment. This, in itself, is significant as collaboration of this nature between different departments on the scale envisaged, had not occurred before. It also signified the start of the strong influence that the MSC would have on education in future. The UVP is concerned with young

people who have left school and are entering work, and especially with those very large numbers who go into jobs where they receive no further education and little or no systematic training. It is to be aimed at the 16 to 19 year olds. (Department of Education and Science, 1976, p 1). The UVP schemes were outlined in the Government announcement:

1. The Government's interpretation of the research by DES and the Department of Employment on 'getting ready for work', is that the development of new kinds of vocational preparation is an essential preliminary to expanding opportunities for young people.
2. The transition from education to work is a crucial turning point and there is a clear obligation on the education and training services to help young people cope with the changes.
3. The separate development of education and training is partly responsible for the problem faced by school leavers in that, what is available in further education is often not linked with skills in industry and commerce. What is needed therefore, is a new unified approach which would engage young people's interests and win the support of their employers. The essentials of a unified approach are:

' (i) that vocational preparation should be jointly planned and provided by the education and training services, and should combine education and training elements inseparately.

(ii) relevance and realism. The provision made should be clearly seen by young people entering work and by employers to be relevant to their needs and should be focused on the working situation'

(Department of Education and Science, 1976, p 3)

4. A new relationship is to be created between the education and training services. Pilot schemes would, with the co-operation

of both, be undertaken and assessed over 2 to 3 years before a full implementation was envisaged.

5. Roughly 300 000 school leavers annually fall in this category. Although the economic gain from improved vocational preparation is not precisely quantifiable, if potential is not developed the competence of the workforce is likely to be lower and effect efficiency.
6. The reasons for low participation in further education and training are summed up as:
 - (a) the education and training needs of young people often escape identification;
 - (b) employers need to be convinced of the long-term value of off-the-job training if they are to accept the loss of production involved in the release of young employees.
7. There were already a number of kinds of provision which combined education and training elements to encourage further UVP.
8. The aims and objectives of vocational preparation to give young people a fair start in working life are:
 - (a) to assess their potential and think realistically about careers and jobs;
 - (b) to develop the basic skills which will be needed in adult life generally;
 - (c) to understand their society and how it works;
 - (d) to strengthen the foundation of skill and knowledge on which further training and education can be built.
9. Pilot schemes are undertaken and the cost of schemes would be met from central Government funds.

10. Teaching and learning methods appropriate for young adults need to be adapted.

11. The Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit (FECRDU) is to be established to:
 - (a) maintain a review of the range of curricula within the further education system;
 - (b) identify gaps in the coverage and seek to fill them, in co-operation with existing bodies;
 - (c) encourage the development, and monitor progress, of experimental curricula to meet particular needs;
 - (d) assist in the general development and evaluation of curricula within further education through specific studies, assistance with in-service training of teachers and general advice and dissemination of information on the curriculum development process.

(Department of Education and Science, 1976, p 4 - 14)

The basis which was established here, gave rise to a number of MSC initiatives across the spectrum from schooling to continuing nfe in industry. Some of these initiatives will be discussed in the following section of this thesis.

The initial UVP programmes were studied as pilot programmes and an evaluation given of the 1977 - 79 period after 1979. UVPs were organised by ITBs or Colleges for Further Education and differed considerably as a result. The pilot programme began in Autumn 1976 and an Interdepartmental Group (IDG) consisting of DES and MSC staff monitored the programmes.

<u>Year</u>	<u>Schemes</u>	<u>Trainees</u>	<u>Organizing bodies/employer</u>
1976	13	120	11 + employers
1977	40	650	150 employers
1978 - 9	145	1400	550

Details of trainee and employers were collated and the outcomes of the first three years of UVP pilot programmes were given as follows:

(Wray, 1980, p 34 - 46)

- For employers:

Seventy-seven per cent of the employers thought the schemes successful both from their view, as well as the trainees' view. They thought their main gain had been a more committed and interested workforce and the young people's increased social and life skills were emphasized.

- For organisers and tutors

Most scheme organisers (ITBs and Colleges) staff considered their schemes successful in that they had achieved a synthesis of education and training. Three major factors were seen to influence this synthesis:

(i) the co-operation of employers;

(ii) the integration of the different learning activities; and

(iii) effective liaison between those involved.

- For trainees:

The feelings were that they recognized that a UVP scheme was intended to achieve several ends, such as that they had increased their self-confidence and a greater knowledge of their jobs, work and industry.

The report on the pilot programme was concluded with the following remarks.

- Although UVP schemes had brought ITB and College staff together it had not united them and it would have to be realized that co-operation was needed not competition.

- Financial reimbursement - ITB schemes were more attractive than college ones as employers realized that ITB schemes had more 'fundable UVP' days than College ones, in that the days in ITB ones for in-service training were also fundable. This imbalance would have to be corrected.

- Several organizing bodies consolidated their UVP schemes experiences into models most appropriate for the training in that industry.
- Many UVP schemes launched were very specific but a core curriculum could serve a wider variety of related occupations.
- Time for liaison between tutors would be essential as UVP schemes involved more than one tutor.
- To extend the scope, field workers of UVP would be needed and the country divided into regions.

An important aspect of UVP which became almost a characteristic, was the residential component to house participants away from home on programmes to develop their self-confidence, initiative, team work, communication skills, their motivation and broaden their horizons.

(UVP, 1981, p 1)

As with any scheme, there were many proponents but also critics. Defending the slow start of the scheme, Richards pointed out that qualitatively the schemes underway in 1976-7 were good. (Richards, 1977, p 79 - 80). Many critics still felt that the school itself was to blame for the problems of young people and that that was where the changes would have to come. Prest and Smith who did research into the school curriculum and the needs of industry, recommended that schools should provide education about industry so that people should be able to deal with conditions as they are which includes coping with work in industry; knowledge of mathematics and science should also provide the basic numeracy skills needed for work; practical skills should be taught, but with a change in attitude - more as craft, design and technology; communication skills need to be improved and skills and attitudes, across the curriculum, such as problem solving, planning and organising should be taught.

(Council of Europe, 1978)

b. Education for 16 - 19 year olds - Youth Opportunities Programme
(YOP)

One of Britain's main problems in the manpower field is the 16 - 19 year old school leavers who remain unemployed. Various efforts have been initiated by the Local Education Authorities and the MSC. In some instances these pupils are enticed back to school and are paid on an Education Mandatory Award scheme to stay in formal education. Others who have been unemployed for six months, are drawn into a Youth Opportunities Programme operated by the Special Programmes Division of the MSC. YOP was started in 1978 to provide a comprehensive national scheme for over 200 000 unemployed school leavers and stemmed from the Holland Report Young People and Work. YOP is essentially an endeavour to prepare young people for work by means of job creation projects, work experience schemes and specially prepared programmes of further education. The latter now had to cater for programmes for youths often with no qualifications and limited background.

(Cantor and Roberts, 1979, p 5 - 13)

The Council of Local Education Authorities (CLEA) whose members are responsible for the further education system's financing and control approached the Government with a suggestion that a joint group should be formed to consider problems faced by local education authorities in catering for the 16 - 19 year olds. A group was formed and they investigated the problems.

(UK Government and Local Authority Associations, 1980, p 13)

The 16 - 19 year olds were divided into four groups : unemployed, employed with little or no training, employed with opportunity for systematic training and those staying in school. The CLEA group found that many authorities would not be in a position to cater for such a wide range and additional assistance was needed.

(Hamilton, 1982, p 63 - 64)

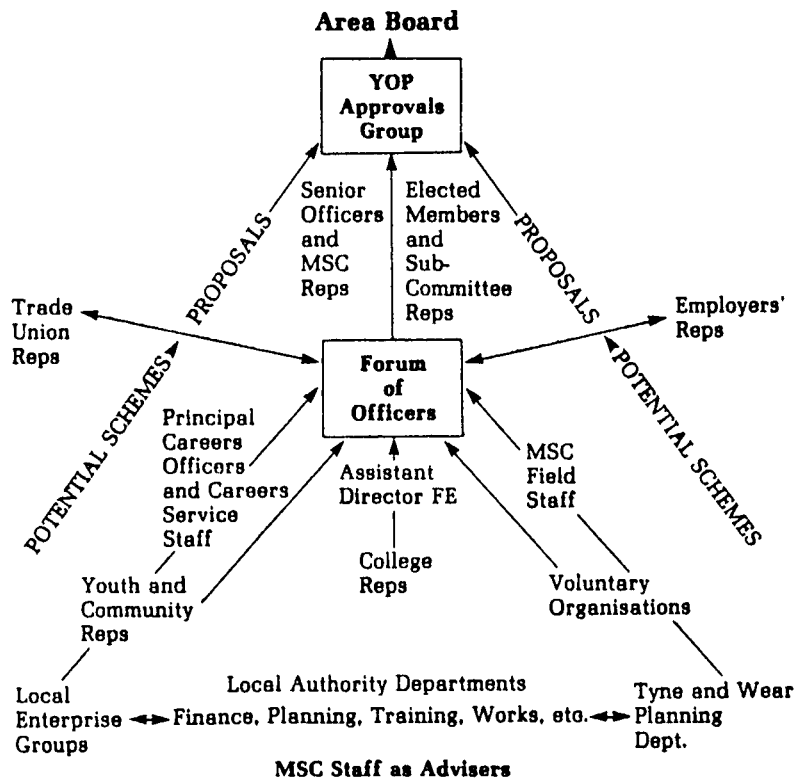
The MSC provided the support for YOP and they set two aims for 1980 - 81. Firstly to meet the undertakings to unemployed people that

they would provide a suitable place on the Programme before Easter 1981 to every unemployed 1980 school leaver and to make places available for young people under 19 who had been unemployed for 12 months or more. Secondly to increase the size of the Programme to provide for around 250,000 young people during the year. In actual fact 360,000 were accommodated during that year.

(BACIE, 1982,p 53)

The National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education (NATFHE) undertook a study of the YOP programmes offered by six colleges for further education to determine what contribution the colleges were making. A typical arrangement for YOP is the one at South Shields Marine and Technical College. The College supported the YOP initiative, and created a well balanced forum of officers to represent different interests. The committee structure of their YOP planning shows the wide representation.

Committee Structure: YOP Planning



(Reproduced from the MSC Youth Opportunities programme, 1982b, p 8)

In 1981 this College already had 1500 young people on special measures. Important though was that the schemes also included social and life skills (SLS) training. Other types of programmes designed included Work Experience on Employer's Premises (WEPP). This type of project was amongst the most important in the College.

(MSC, 1982 b, p 10)

Criticism of the Government's initiatives for 16 - 19 year olds came from many quarters. Short, in an article The right to employment (THES August 1982), criticizes the Government for making the promise that the scheme would abolish unemployment when the fact of the matter was that after 6 months on a training course, only about half found employment with fifty percent back in unemployment. A Times Higher Education Editorial of 23 January 1983 saw the MSC YOP as a first effort in Britain's history for a planned programme of education and training which might secure employment, in an increasingly technological society, to a group of young people who could easily be described as underprivileged in comparison to their European counterparts. The completion rate by participants in YOP was criticized by Gold in 1982 stating that in one scheme 400 youngsters enrolled, but only 259 attended and 90 finished the course (Gold, 1982, p 5). In defence, the MSC review of YOP indicated that in 1981/82, 553,000 were better qualified than before and 70 per cent had passed the examination for the Certificate of Secondary Education or achieved higher qualifications. A further step in the YOP was the development of Business Education Council awards for YOP trainees as the BEC created links with YOP schemes. The cost of YOP, believed to be between £1,800 million and £2,700 million in 1982, was criticized and it was suggested that the MSC should consider a loans scheme to ease the cost.

(Gold and Santinelli, 1982, p 1)

A major criticism of YOP was that staff training was not up to standard. Santinelli stated that if the YOP was to be a success staff training would have to be revised. Furthermore, to improve YOP quality, staff would have to be trained, especially as the programmes were so diverse and involved such a wide spectrum of

employees assisting with the schemes. (Santinelli, 1983 b, p 5). The issue of training of teachers for 16 to 19 year olds was analysed by Stark in 1977 and it was suggested that it was not so much a matter of what methods etc to use, but rather insight into the life styles to be adopted by these young people which had to be assessed and built into the training of 16 - 19 year olds (Peck, 1977, p 73 - 87). In this way the education for this group in particular should not be seen as a thing apart, but rather as a means of assisting human beings to cope with the demands of their life styles. In a much more structured way Perry had commented on the Training of Trainers in 1977. He pointed out that the success of the attempt to bring about the desired increase in the country's vocational training effort hinged on the availability of a body of experienced trainers - from the instructor to the training director. BACIE had made some of the first formal attempts to establish training facilities for the training of trainers. In 1954 Letchworth College was started for that purpose - initially confined to training of craft instructors. Further courses followed in 1956 and in 1961 the BACIE Executive Council appointed a Working Party to develop a course and system for trainers. The movement gained momentum in 1972 when a sub-committee published their Report on: Training for the Management of Human Resources. Some hints at standards and knowledge of psychology and sociology required for training were made. Since that time a very large number of training schemes and packages have flooded the market and training of trainers plays a major role in the development of effective training.

(Perry, 1979, p 60 - 64)

c. MSC : Outlook on Training

In July 1980 the MSC received a report it had commissioned in 1979 to have the effectiveness with which it discharges its principal functions reviewed. The study had been undertaken by obtaining views of employers organisations and trade associations, trade unions, industry training organisations and other specialists. The Report contained the following recommendations:

1. Public policy towards training should in future concentrate on:

ensuring there is an effective training contribution to the profitable exploitation of new technology, increased productivity, and faster economic growth;

extending vocational preparation for young people;

increasing opportunities for adults to enter skilled occupations, or to update or upgrade their skills through retraining;

introducing efficient training methods more widely, and ensuring that appropriate standards are set and attained.

2. The following principles should guide the MSC and Government when determining the nature and extent of their support for training:

full consultations with both sides of industry about public involvement in training;

public involvement should supplement (rather than substitute for) industry's own training efforts;

public involvement in training should enhance the flexibility of training response;

investments of money and other resources in training must be directed to problems which have training solutions, and in respect of which a training response is the most economic solution.

3. There should be a clearer definition of roles and responsibilities between the MSC and industry training organisations.
4. The MSC should exercise stronger leadership and more effective co-ordination in the achievement of national training priorities: the industry training organisations must be prepared to accept that leadership.

5. The MSC should consider seriously the need for further or revised initiatives in relation to:
 - securing training for unemployed people and vulnerable groups;
 - training in cross-sector occupations where efforts by individual industries seem likely to lead to shortfalls;
 - meeting key training needs in particular localities;
 - reforming training systems to meet contemporary needs;
 - conducting research into, and development of, training methodology;
 - securing the provision of reliable and consistent manpower intelligence;
 - promoting training during times of recession.
6. The MSC should accept the obligation to develop better ways of consulting interested groups in relation to training policies, and should set work in hand on devising the most appropriate ways of achieving this.
7. The funding of ITBs' operating costs should be returned to industry. (The CBI representatives reserved their position on this recommendation).
8. ITBs should continue to have powers to raise levy. If the recommendation above is adopted, the amending legislation which will be necessary should enable this to cover their operating costs as well as other training activities. It would also be necessary for each ITB to consider with its industry how operating costs should be distributed among employers.
9. The provisions of the 1973 Act relating to the exclusion of

small firms should continue. The distinctive training needs of the smallest firms should be tackled through a range of special facilities and services, e.g. group training schemes.

10. There should be no statutory limit on the size of the levy which can be introduced by ITBs. (The CBI representatives reserved their position on this recommendation).
11. In future, ITBs should have discretion as to whether or not to introduce levy exemption schemes.
12. Boards should continue to be reconstituted every three years.
13. In order to improve ITBs' accountability to their industries, there should be statutory power for the Secretary of State to specify, with the advice of the MSC, the information which ITBs should publish, particularly in their annual reports.
14. There should be no change in the existing provisions for approval of ITBs' levy exemption and grant proposals.
15. ITBs should no longer require Government's approval of the terms and conditions of employment of their own staff.
16. The MSC should undertake an examination of the scope of existing ITBs, and the boundary between industries in scope and those not in scope to Boards. This should be done in full consultation with both sides of industry.
17. If recommendation (vii) is adopted, there should be adequate transitional arrangements to cover the change from Exchequer to industry funding of ITB operating costs. These should not include a period of shared funding of ITBs' operating costs, but should give industry time to adapt to the revised arrangements.
18. The TSD and industry training organisations must do more to establish contacts at local level between educationalists and employers on training matters. The MSC should in particular

ensure that educationalists are more closely involved in training policy and programmes, especially at the local level.

19. The MSC should be ready to use its powers under the Employment and Training Act to ensure that information is collected on a common or compatible basis where a number of different industries are involved with training problems.
20. The MSC should develop, as a matter of priority and in close co-operation with ITBs and other industry training organisations, a better information system relevant to its responsibilities for the national training effort. The MSC's Manpower Intelligence and Planning Division should draw up a detailed specification of the MSC's information requirements and discuss with ITBs and others how best the required information can be collected, processed and disseminated.
21. In the early stages of TSD's annual operational plans for TOPS and Direct Training Services, there should be structured discussions with senior staff in industry training organisations about the respective contributions from industry and MSC towards training in skills recognised as of major importance to a locality or region. Consideration should be given to the need to establish authoritative steering bodies in localities to bring together the various interests concerned to ensure a thorough and structured approach is followed in tackling local problems.
22. The MSC should take a more active lead in formulating training programmes to meet future demands for manpower in newly emerging and expanding occupations.
23. The principles laid down in 'Training for Skills: A Programme for Action' should be applied more rigorously. In particular, MSC financial support for key skills training should be conditional on the implementation of 'Training for Skills' strategic guidelines.
24. The Government and the MSC should continue to support and

expand the UVP developmental programme until its benefits have become well established and recognised.

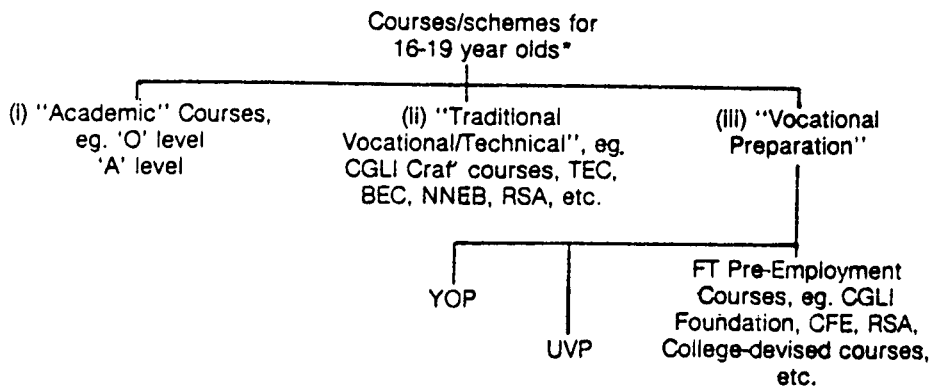
25. In order to extend vocational preparation for young people, the MSC should pay key training grants to employers who participate in UVP-type schemes. Such schemes should be devised in co-operation with local colleges of further education, and in accordance with national guidelines. They should be monitored thoroughly.
26. A strategy on adult training and retraining involving four elements should be given high priority by the MSC under the 'Training for Skills' programme.
27. The MSC and industry training organisations should give increased attention to improving further the quality and effectiveness of training.

(Compare MSC, 1980, p 5)

This report paved the way for new action, further legislation on training and a rethink on finance by the MSC all of which followed about a year later.

Soon after this Report on the review of how the MSC was faring in terms of the Employment and Training Act of 1973, a further publication on vocational education by the Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit was published, partly in response to the MSC Review of the Education and Training Act and partly in response to the new MSC initiatives which were to follow. (Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit, 1981, p 7). The Vocational Preparation Report attempted to put Vocational Preparation in context (viewed from the formal education angle): The sketch below indicates the 1981 education and training provision for the 16 - 19 year age group which can be divided into three categories not necessarily related to conventional intelligence or capability.

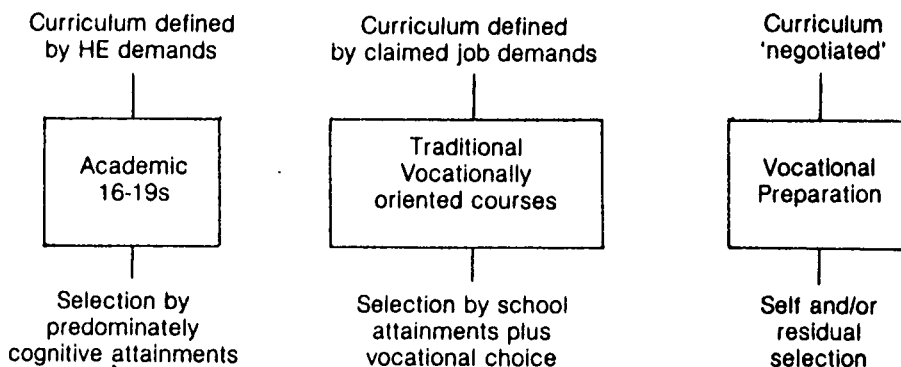
EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROVISION FOR 16 - 19 YEAR AGE GROUP : 1981



(Reproduced from: Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit, 1981, p 7).

The Report also drew the attention to the difference in curriculum design for the three categories and indicated how selection takes place:

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION : DIFFERENCE IN CURRICULUM DESIGN AND SELECTION OF STUDENTS



(Reproduced from: Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit, 1981, p 9)

In the third instance the Report provided a summary of who controls what, and what administrative and curricular modes are followed:

UK: CONTROL OF CURRICULAR MODES 1981

Administrative mode	UVP	Full-time Pre-Employment	YOP
Curricular mode	employment-based	Institution (usually college)-based	mainly work-experience-based. Some college-based
Responsible Bodies	DES + MSC(TSD) ↓ IDG + ITBS	Colleges/LEAs Examining Bodies	MSC(SPD)

(Reproduced from the Further Education, Curriculum Review and Development Unit, 1981, p 10)

The table above also shows the involvement of Government and the private sector. The rest of the Report dealt with the participants, the provisions and the needs, the aims and components of vocational preparation and staff development support. What is of great significance, as was brought out by this Report, was the influence the MSC was having on the further education sector to align it with what was needed in industry and commerce.

In defining the process of vocational preparation in the Report, it was reiterated that such a process should be available to all school leavers. The main aims would be to give to young people basic skills, experience and knowledge; to help them assess their potential, to think realistically about jobs and employment prospects and to optimize their employability; to develop their understanding of the working and social environment, both nationally and locally, so that they may understand the variety of roles possible for them to play as an adult member of society; to encourage them to become progressively responsible for their own personal development.

In the summary to this report the following were highlighted:

Vocational preparation is at the moment unco-ordinated, uneven and of low status. The report maintains that whilst the experience of vocational preparation should be available to all young people,

there is a particularly urgent need to provide it for the less academic young people. The document aims to create a curriculum framework capable of bridging the gaps that exist between the education and training sectors, thus providing for young people a coherent system having essential common components.

Vocational preparation needs to be seen as an essential process of personal development, requiring a programme based as much on the self-perceived needs of each young person as on requirements defined by professional adults in education and training, and employers. It should be available to all school-leavers irrespective of their level and mode of study, training, and employment. The short-term priority however must be to provide it for those school-leavers not at present able to benefit from the more conventional academic or vocational training schemes. It must be recognised and accredited as a legitimate and valuable educational process.

Vocational preparation requires a combination of education and training designed both to assist the smooth transition from school to work and to support a young person in the early stages of working life. The achievement of its aims requires the inclusion of certain components: Negotiation; the Acquisition of Basic Skills; Guidance and Assessment; Relevance and Experience. By establishing curriculum criteria which should be common to all modes of provision we may help to reduce the fragmentation and duplication of effort which currently characterise curriculum development for this growing group of young people. The recognition of the profile form of certification by education, employers and the public at large is vital to the success of this concept.

Vocational preparation is demanding and, as yet, undervalued work. The complexity and importance of the teaching and learning strategies to be adopted need to be recognised by a fully supportive programme of staff development. Some re-appraisal of the way this area of work is graded and rewarded appears to be an essential factor in any revaluation.

Any form of national traineeship proposed for all young people must involve the process of vocational preparation. Within any such national training plan there needs to be a compatible and unified curriculum philosophy, capable of development of a young person's employability and personal development to the fullest possible extent. The document is a contribution to the formulation of that curriculum philosophy.

(Compare FEU, 1981, p 17)

A host of other voices about the status of training came at this time. O'Brien Chairman of the MSC sketched the problems of training in the UK. On skill shortages he said there was a need to revise or regrade skills during periods of unemployment. Secondly, by 1985 there would be more white collar workers in the UK than normal jobs. Young people must receive a formal introduction to work, a programme of a year or more of planned work experience, basic training and work-related education. Their initial preparation for work should aim to assist young people to grasp essential knowledge about employment and acquire life skills that have a general applicability to work.

(O'Brien, 1981, p 35)

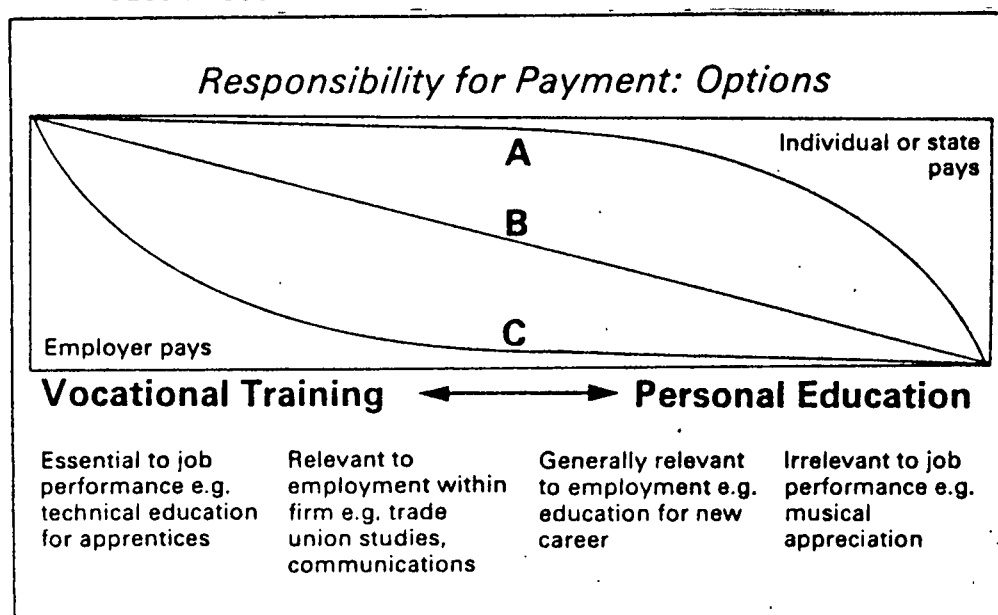
Gowrie, Minister of State for Employment, in 1981, gave the Government's view on revision. He said that the role of statutory industry training boards had to be reviewed. The Government intended reducing its funding of the ITBs operating costs, which it felt should be met by employers - a policy had to be found to ensure that the needs of industry and individuals were met in a cost-effective way. He also stated that the MSC would do a sector by sector analysis of training arrangements and needs to make recommendations to the Government about the need for ITBs.

(Gowrie, 1981, p 33)

At the same time strong opposition to the Government's intentions were voiced. Everard criticized the Government and in particular the MSC, for not criticizing more strongly the inadequacies of the education and training of young people for work. He agreed that the training boards could be rationalised but a sectorally based

training board system should continue; there should be fewer ITBs, employing fewer staff; cross-sectoral problems should be tackled by better integration across board boundaries using a 'lead' board to make the running; ITBs should generate an increasing proportion of income by marketing their services to those firms prepared to pay for them and State funding should correspondingly diminish but not be withdrawn altogether. He was opposed to the view that training is worth doing simply for its own sake. He illustrated industry's views on funding of training and its relationship to effective organisational performance measured by profitability as given in below.

FIGURE 5.6 UK: RESPONSIBILITY FOR PAYMENT



(Everard, 1981, p 38 - 41)

Lindop gave some views from the education angle on the review of the MSC achievements since 1973. He emphasized that current social conditions and attitudes in society influence education. He referred to the strong academic tradition in the British education system, placing a high value on analysis and abstraction and deliberately devaluing creativity and construction. Open entry tertiary colleges seem to provide, in his opinion, the best institutional basis for full-time and part-time vocational studies for the 16 - 19 year age group. (Lindop, 1981, p 42 - 3). He proposed a national strategy for education and training in the UK for the long term. It included.

- A curriculum response - provide basic cross sector skills.
- A modular approach to training - individuals can opt in and out of the training system.
- Adult retraining - adult education guidance scheme.
- A national body to provide central input and drive.
- Greater co-ordination and compatability between ITBs themselves and the further education system are needed.
- Financial arrangements - the proposal to transfer Board running costs to the industries might lead to a deterioration in training.
- Higher education and further education should work together in the vocational areas and not allow hierarchical considerations to get in the way.
- The development of sandwich courses is indebted to commerce and industry for its success. This type of training should be extended during recession periods under a clear policy.
- There should be an exchange of expertise not only in training and skills transfer but also in research, development and consultancy between industry and higher and further education.

(Lindop, 1981, p 43)

The MSC review and the comments by industry, education and training were followed by a report from the MSC which heralded a new era in training in the UK - it was called A New Training Initiative and appeared in May 1981 to be followed by the 1981 Training Act.

d. A New Training Initiative : May 1981

In a joint statement by the Secretary of State for Employment and the Secretary of State for Education and Science the MSC's new training initiative was announced and comments from all interested parties in training invited. The document spelled out the problems in training, evaluated what had been achieved, what needed doing, how to achieve the objectives and who would have to be responsible. (MSC, 1981 c,p 1). The problems were seen as follows:

'For prosperity and growth we need to invent, to innovate, to

invest in and to exploit new technologies. We must have products and services people want at prices they will pay. We must exploit new and growing markets to replace those that are declining. All that we do must be at least as well done as it is by our competitors and there are more and stronger competitors now than there used to be. There are and will be great opportunities in the 1980s for both industry and commerce. To take advantage of them we need to adopt the new technologies - microelectronics, biotechnology, advanced chemicals, new materials, computer applications, energy and communications systems together with a host of lesser innovations affecting individual sectors, products and markets. Our standards of production and services must be every bit as competent, efficient and reliable as those of our competitors.'

(MSC, 1981 c,p 2)

It was indicated that significant development had been achieved since 1973. Many companies, supported by their ITBs had been moving towards a more systematic appraisal of their training needs. The quality of skill training had improved. Many firms allowed substantial off-the-job training time. The 'modular' approach to training had gained ground. On the negative side the MSC had had to give financial support to no fewer than 165 000 apprentices and other young people training. It paid tribute further to the success of further education - industry co-operation in YOP, UVP etc. The targets for the future were set to be:

- '1. We must develop skill training including apprenticeship in such a way as to enable young people entering at different ages and with different educational attainments to acquire agreed standards of skill appropriate to the jobs available and to provide them with a basis for progression through further learning;
2. We must move towards a position where all young people under the age of 18 have the opportunity either of continuing in full time education or of entering training or a period of planned work experience combining work-related training and education;

'3. We must open up widespread opportunities for adults, whether employed, unemployed or returning to work, to acquire, increase or update their skills and knowledge during the course of their working lives.'

(MSC, 1981 c, p 4)

On how to achieve these objectives it would have to be decided who would bear the cost, what organisation was required and by what means would progress be made. The MSC felt that the beneficiaries should bear the costs - employers would have to bear some of the costs and, as the public benefit from the training Government would support (and was supporting) training financially in various ways. On the issue of organisation the key requirements were for machinery to secure agreement on standards; some means of planning developments and securing progress at industrial sector level between sectors; and some means of measuring progress and quality. Some proposals were put forward. On the last issue of who does should take action the Government and MSC were prepared to play their role; employers would remain the main providers of training and their employees the main beneficiaries. Each firm and ITB would have to be part of the new initiative and the MSC would engage in discussion with them to stimulate action. The Government YOP, TOPS and UVP activities would be expanded. Comments were invited and were forthcoming from a large number of people involved in training. Parker pointed out the disparity between those who are employed (the haves) and those who are unemployed (the have nots) and the fact that the employed would progress in wealth further and further away from the unemployed. By 1990 as many as two million people, then aged between 16 and 24, would go into their thirties without stable and continuous work experience of more than a few months, two million surviving on 'stop gap', a 'non-job' or manufactured employment. He pleaded for a national body (industrial council) independent of government and distinct from planning, to be consulted on national economic policy to reduce unemployment meaningfully. (Parker, 1981, p 125 - 129). In its 1980/81 Report the MSC showed its concern about the deterioration in the labour market where unemployment had risen to above 10%. This had a bad effect on school leavers seeking employment and gave rise to the MSC's announcement of the New Training Initiative, which it felt would reduce unemployment.

(MSC, 1981 b, p 4 and 20)

The status of The New Training Initiative was queried by the Institute for Careers Education and Counselling which said that it was not clear from the document whether young people would have a choice between entering a programme of vocational preparation or seeking a job. (Santinelli, 1981b, p 5). The MSC scheme from its New Training Initiative for all school leavers drew the attention and an estimate was made that it would cost £1,325 million to train 500,000 of whom 50,000 could probably end up in permanent jobs. BACIE submitted comments to the MSC on their 'New Training Initiative'. It welcomed the document but expressed regret that, apart from stating the truths, the MSC had not gone further. BACIE agreed with the needs and objectives stated in the MSC documents but felt that the Government had to accept responsibility for funding that proportion of the training of young people which is not specific to their jobs and for 16 - 19 year olds. It also indicated roles for employers etc, but thought that educational institutions should change to student-centred learning.

(BACIE 1981 a, p 166 - 67)

In 1984 the MSC made a position statement on their New Training Initiative with particular emphasis on modernisation of occupational training. Objective number one of the 1981 New Training Initiative would be carried forward in a new format to secure the modernisation of occupational training arrangements. It should be ensured that:

- Young people receive adequate and proper initial occupational training, particularly in occupations requiring more extended periods of education and training, to meet likely future demands from industry;
- Initial occupational training is appropriately comprehensive in coverage and systematic in application, and gives a sound basis - skills, knowledge, understanding and experience - on which future learning can be built;

- Occupational training, initial or otherwise, is based on achievement of agreed standards of competence; is open to people of all ages; results in general recognition by industry and commerce of competence achieved; and helps individuals to progress to jobs or to further training and education.

The second objective of the 1981 initiatives had been brought closer by further actions such as the Technical and Vocational Education Initiatives and the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (see later in this chapter). Regarding the third objective i.e. widespread opportunities for adults for training and retraining it had been promoted by means of the 'Open Tech' programme and the Professional Industrial and Commercial Updating (PICKUP) activities. The MSC called again for action from industry and stated that the MSC would continue to play its role.

(MSC, 1984, p 1 - 3)

e. MSC : An 'Open Tech' Programme

One of the most far-reaching steps taken by the MSC to influence the role of further and also higher education in relation to training and retraining of adults came when the 'Open Tech' Programme was announced in May 1981. It was launched under the banner of adult training and re-training needs at technician and related levels. It signified an attempt by the MSC to bridge the gap between formal education and industrial/commercial training needs and to gain status for the quality training in the private sector with the further and higher education sector. It indicated all the traditional barriers which people experience when they want to enter or re-enter further and higher education and it indicated a mechanism to overcome these problems. The potential for this type of approach in the RSA to solve some of the high level manpower training problems is very high and the essence of the MSC document is given in detail.

This undertaking by the MSC is one of the rare examples where further and higher education are affected across their mode of education, admission requirements, locale and where special

consideration for the specific needs of individuals would be met in relation to their job retraining requirements.

The request from the Secretary of State for Employment for the introduction of 'Open Tech, it would seem, stemmed from a need for wider opportunities for training and retraining of adults at broadly technician and related levels. There was a growing awareness of the crucial importance of properly qualified and updated technical support staff to the future development of many industries and a wide range of commercial business and service sectors where the administrative or business skills of staff were inadequate. The rapid growth of more complex business, information and production processes would only accentuate existing deficiencies. There was a great need to extend the opportunities for training and retraining (or, more broadly, personal career development) available to adults. To adapt the labour force to changing demands and to release the country's manpower potential, there was need for a much more positive approach to adult training opportunities: not least for those already in employment. There was already a great range of training facilities available, or potentially available, to adults. Sometimes what was lacking was the motivation (on the part of employer or employee), to use these facilities; or adequate information about them. Sometimes, however, there were real barriers to their relevant availability in practice.

(MSC, 1981 e, p 3)

The document on 'Open Tech' dealt with the following. The range of occupations and levels were vast as such terms as technician were used differently in different industries. A large amount of supervisory and management training was needed. Secondly the reasons why a positive training initiative at this level was needed were given as:

(MSC, 1981 e, p 4)

- 'to help prevent the widespread re-appearance, when the economic up-turn takes place, of the persistent shortages that have not been entirely absent during the current recession. There was debate about how real some of these

shortages have been and also how much the provision of training would itself provide the solution. Nevertheless, more training would be needed, and response time could well be critical;

- because existing and new technologies have to be exploited and the labour force adapted to changing demands for skill. On the one hand there would be a declining proportion of people in traditional craft, skilled and semi-skilled jobs, and all occupational forecasts suggest that more managers, professional people, technologists and technicians would be needed by the mid-1980s. On the other hand, new technologies could easily "creep into" existing jobs, changing them and their demands a little at a time. In whatever way it emerged, technician-type work, where people need to understand the technology and systems they would be using in order to analyse problems and make decisions, presented a considerable education and training challenge, particularly in developing the knowledge and skills of those whose lower level jobs were disappearing and who needed to be able to regain and retain employment;
- because technological changes require continual and rapid up-dating and retraining of existing technician level staff and of their teachers or trainers. It could be the case that relatively few people possess expertise or experience in a new field and that their 'know-how' needed to be made available to many;
- to respond to the aspirations of the potentially large number of people who want to improve and develop their employability and career prospects.

(MSC, 1981 e, p 4 -)

The document also outlined the opportunities for an 'Open Tech' programme:

Three categories of adults could be identified who might benefit from an expansion of education and training at these levels. The greatest number would be individuals and groups who have training, re-training or career development needs recognised and identified within their organisation. In some cases the training might be directed towards nationally recognised qualifications, but often what was wanted was a learning "package" tailored to the specific requirements of the individual or his organisation. There would also be people who, while continuing in their employment, would respond to the opportunity to develop or change their own career, gain qualifications, or simply to acquire enhanced skills and knowledge; and they might be looking for opportunities which could be pursued outside working hours. Their employing organisations might, or might not support such initiatives on their part. The third group would be people who have become unemployed or who (like many married women with families) wish to re-enter the labour market and need to improve their employability. All three categories could include young adults who have missed the chance, initially, of acquiring relevant skills or qualifications, as well as women who have the potential to switch to those occupations or grades which have traditionally been the preserve of men. They are also likely to include many for whom a variety of "bridging" or "learning to study" programmes might be necessary to enable them to exploit their potential to train at technician levels.

Open learning embraces a wide range of approaches which have a common aim: that of freeing courses of study and training from the constraints that prevent their effective availability. For many adults common constraints are:

- fixed locations, course starting dates, durations and time of attendance which do not fit in with employment patterns (e.g. shift work or overtime) or personal circumstances (e.g. family responsibilities or the handicapped);
- limited availability of courses in a locality (e.g. in

order to secure a viable class size, it is sometimes possible for a specialised course to be provided only in a major centre serving a wide catchment area);

- restrictive entry criteria (e.g. age, sex, educational attainment);
- inappropriate learning methods, arrangements or pacing (e.g. the manager who does not want to sit in with 'youngsters', individual styles and rates of learning, the kinds of methods needed for the skills or subject matter being learnt);
- overt and hidden costs and inconveniences (e.g. travel, babysitters, tiredness after a day's work);
- willingness or ability of employers to release people.

(Compare MSC, 1981 c, p 6)

Three features distinguish an "open" approach:

- Open learning systems are centred on the needs and circumstances of students or trainees rather than those of educational or training institutions and their administrative systems. This can pose many problems within such systems and institutions when they begin acting in an open learning mode, but experience already shows that solutions can be found and imaginative initiatives taken;
- Open learning is problem-centred: its aim is to identify the particular barriers to access and learning which are present in any one case and then to incorporate whatever blend of administrative support; subject matter elements or modules; learning methods, materials and arrangements; entry criteria or types of assessment which will best overcome these barriers;
- Open learning is not only concerned with structures and

arrangements but also with how people learn and with what things it is possible appropriate or cost-effective for people to learn in certain ways. Open learning is still a relatively uncharted field for technician-level skill and practical knowledge training. Thus it cannot be assumed that we know how people at this level will respond to self-learning and what other support is needed.

The Report also highlighted the requirements for an 'Open Tech' programme : how to determine needs, design courses etc. For it to succeed would require collaboration from colleges and other higher education institutions; industry and commerce, identification of critical training needs and development of programmes which met the learning needs of participants. The initial objectives of the programme would be to plan a range of offerings, market them and develop support services as well as information services. The mechanism would be in the form of 'Open Tech' Agencies and an 'Open Tech' Unit at the MSC. The finance would be provided through public funding part of which could be recouped through sales of developed programmes. The MSC then asked for comments on its proposals.

(MSC, 1981 e, p 9 - 12)

Barry responded with some comments. She pointed out that people without formal qualifications, would have the opportunity to study where and when they wish, using a variety of written and broadcast materials as well as face-to-face teaching. 'Open Tech' was given a neutral welcome. (Barry, 1981, p 4). The Council for Educational Technology indicated that the success of Open Tech would depend on harnessing existing skills, knowledge and resources into a strong national identity. Basic courses in the whole field of business and technical training would be needed. The MSC would also have to eradicate barriers which prevent the development of more flexible approaches to learning and provide guidance to adults. In the article which appeared in the Times Higher Education Supplement of 4 of September 1981 : Open Tech should be geared to people in employment they stressed the need for sufficient funds to be given to the MSC to lead rather than just respond to initiatives. Surridge remarked upon what was said

earlier in this thesis that further education would face a challenge to its whole style of teaching with the advent of Open Tech and its use of open learning methods. (Surridge, 1983 p 5). The initial projects were approved by the steering group for Open Tech in January 1983 and ranged from computer assisted learning centres in British Leyland plants to developing micro-electronics and advanced engineering distance learning courses through a consortium of colleges and companies.

(Gold, 1983, p 3)

Upton, in 1984, remarked that Open Tech could make an important contribution to promoting the whole field of open access learning which held tremendous potential for employers and employees alike. (Upton, 1984 p 138). Tolley endorsed the statement by the MSC in its new initiatives objectives on adult education, that Open Tech would help provide the answer. He also indicated that the Open Tech Unit would commission its own projects. (Tolley, 1983, p 1). In an earlier article he had made a plea for mid-career education and stated that polytechnics also had a role to play in this area of need.

(Tolley, 1982, p 343 - 5)

f. The Employment and Training Act of 1981

The review on the work of the MSC contained in Outlook on Training had some indications that changes should be made to the Education and Training Act of 1973. The MSC had also undertaken to do a sector by sector analysis of training and to make recommendations to the Government. Several other organisations and individuals were also calling for a review of the 73 Act. As early as 1977 BACIE had raised the question as to whether this Act was working. Perry, as editor of the BACIE journal, asked whether the objectives of the Act of 73 had been fulfilled; how had long term planning of training been affected by the economic crisis; whether the ITBs had suffered a crippling loss in their influence and whether the new system of funding was meeting the need. (Perry, 1977 , p 151). In January 1981 BACIE responded to the Outlook on Training report and made the following comments:

- The Report tended to be inward looking, i.e. dealing with the MSC, rather than outward-looking - the private sector did not have adequate representation nor was justice done to its activities.
- Although proposals in the Report did not have the required impact on industry to change their deeply entrenched traditions and practices there was response.
- It was felt that the Government should accept responsibility for the induction of the school leaver into the world of work by regarding the 16 - 18 year olds as 'citizens in training' as this being the period of their lives devoted to vocational development. Training which is not specific to the needs of the employer should be seen as a community responsibility and should be publicly funded.
- For the 25 to 35 year age-group which is highly vulnerable to unemployment because of family commitments, the right to re-training after one year of unemployment is recommended.

(BACIE, 1981 p 8)

In July of 1981 the MSC released their report : A framework for the future, which was a sector by sector review of commercial and industrial training. The survey had been undertaken to establish which sectors would benefit from the continuation of a statutory training board, and what should be the scope of such boards. The Commission which undertook the survey, did it against the background of, firstly, the Secretary of State's (for Employment) policy statement on the future training in each sector. The following criteria would determine his final decisions:

- the likelihood of shortages of trained manpower in the economic upturn;
- the emerging demand for trained manpower in new technologies; the need for adequate quality of training (including agreed standards);

- opportunities for vocational training for young people at all levels;
- wide opportunities for craft apprentices;
- wide opportunities for adult training.

(MSC, 1981 a, p 2)

Secondly the document A New Training Initiative in which key training objectives had been spelt out was used as a background to the review. The Commission approached its task by seeking answers to three questions:

What are the prospects for the future development of a sector and how important a part is training likely to play?

How successful have current training arrangements been in the past, particularly with regard to the six criteria referred to by the Secretary of State?

What are the views of those most directly concerned about the effectiveness of current training arrangements and about the most appropriate arrangements for the future?

(Compare MSC, 1981 a, p 3)

The Commission undertook an assessment of the economic prospects and relative importance of training in each sector and paid particular attention to indicators of the need for industry - specific institutional arrangements for training. The main factors found to be relevant were (i) the structure, by size, of firms in the sector; (ii) the present and future occupational structure of employment within each sector; (iii) training costs; (iv) the impact of new technology; and (v) recruitment patterns. The Commission further assessed the effectiveness of training arrangements in the Industrial Training Board sector and in the non-ITB sector. The Commission held consultation on training arrangements in each sector with representative organisations in both ITB and Non-ITB sectors, key employers and trade unionists. The Report contained recommendations on 42 industrial/commercial sectors and the public sectors. Each recommendation gave a general assessment on the scope of the employees in the sector, the importance of training, the degree of satisfaction with training in the sector and a recommendation on whether or not a statutory

training board should be retained or whether training in that sector should become voluntary. As an example the recommendations on one sector, the British Rail Sector is given. It was found that:

- The British Railways Board has a new monopoly of the public railway network in Great Britain. Certain related activities such as those of its subsidiary, British Rail Engineering Ltd, are in scope to statutory ITBs; but the operation of the railways is not. Employment on the railways is about 178 000 and is at present declining more gradually after a period of rapid decline. The industry remains key to the economy, accounting for about 1% of Gross Domestic Product, and is an important part of the nation's industrial infrastructure.
- Training is particularly important in the sector; most employees concerned with railway operations receive substantial training, partly to ensure safe working practices. A large craft and technician labour force is concerned with installation and maintenance of track, trains and signals and telecommunications equipment, and new technology is increasing the need for training and retraining. Training is the responsibility of management in consultation with the trade unions through the normal negotiating machinery. British Rail's training record is good in both qualitative and quantitative terms.
- All parties in the industry except the minority Transport Salaried Staffs Association are content that the present voluntary training arrangements should be continued. It is not considered that in a monolithic industry (which has statutory responsibilities regarding training) there is a case for a separate statutory training body.

The comments, which led to further support was summed up with a recommendation that British Rail's present arrangements for training for its railway operations should receive continued backing from the MSC.

(Compare MSC, 1981 a, p 9)

The value of this sector by sector review was indeed a framework for the future as it led to the review of the Employment and Training Act of 1973 but it was a very useful exercise in manpower planning, an assessment of the scale and importance attached to training in each sector of the economy.

On July 31 1981 the Employment and Training Bill received Royal Assent and became the Employment and Training Act of 1981. The main purpose of the Act was to:

- allow the Secretary of State for Employment to set up, abolish, or change the scope of an industrial training board after consultation with the MSC.
- to enable a board to finance its operating expenses from levy on employers;
- widen the scope of possible criteria for exemption of an employer from levy imposed by a board.

(Department of Employment, 1981, p 1 - 2).

The Government had already indicated that Exchequer funding of industrial training boards' operating costs should be reduced in 1981 - 82 and cease in 1982 - 83. The Government had thus moved its financial support away from organised industrial training boards training to initiatives in the school-to-work transition and specific programmes for employees.

The development of industrial training in Britain, went through different stages. It is clear that nfe, through Government involvement with training in organised industry and commerce, started from non-involvement, to support, to enforced sectoral training, to initiatives in training of age groups, to involvement of the further and higher education sector in nfe, and to withdrawal of financial support for ITBs. The different industrial training acts reflect the UK Government's changing role:

- The primary responsibility for training people in employment in Britain rests with employers themselves and industrial

training is not a statutory but a voluntary provision by employers. However, to encourage employers and to promote industrial training, the Government has, since 1964, taken statutory powers. It has created bodies to help finance and encourage the promotion of training in industry, through the 1964 Industrial Training Act.

- The 1964 Act had three main objectives:

- to ensure an adequate supply of properly trained men and women at all levels in industry;

- to secure an improvement in the quality and efficiency of industrial training; and

- to share the costs of training more evenly between firms.

- The Act envisaged that training should be developed on an industry (rather than an occupational) basis and provided for the establishment of industrial training boards, each one of which was to be responsible for the promotion of training within its particular industry. There are currently twenty three ITBs and one industrial training committee (for the foundry industry) which, while not a statutory ITB, operates with a considerable degree of independence. The boards are made up of representatives of employers, workers and educational interests. The 1964 Act required them to raise a levy on the pay-roll of firms in their industries, the bulk of which was redistributed in the form of grants to employers who provided adequate training.
- The 1973 Act changed the way boards operate in certain respects. It provided for boards to exempt from levy companies which satisfied their own training needs. The Act also provided for the administrative expenses of boards to be provided from public funds.
- The 1973 Act also established the Manpower Services Commission as the agency for the Government's responsibilities for

employment, manpower supply and training. The MSC is separate from the Government but is accountable to the Secretaries of State for Employment, for Scotland and for Wales. It has a Chairman and nine other members appointed after consultation with employers and employees, and local government and educational interests and receives a grant-in-aid from the Government. The MSC's Training Services Division (TSD) is responsible for the MSC's training programmes, for improving the supply of trained manpower needed by the economy and for improving the effectiveness of training generally.

- Early in 1979, it was decided to review arrangements for the promotion of training and a special review body was set up under the Chairman of the Manpower Services Commission. A report : Outlook on Training was published at the end of July 1980 with an invitation to interested parties to send comments to the Commission and the Government. A wide range of views were expressed by organisations and individuals and, after discussion, the MSC tendered advice to the Government early in November. The Government's response was made public in a statement included by the Secretary of State in a speech in the House of Commons at the end of November in which he announced the Government's intention to introduce legislation to implement its policies regarding the future of Industrial Training Boards.

- The Government published a bill - The Employment and Training Bill - on 23 January 1981. Its main provisions are:

for the Secretary of State to have the power to establish, abolish or change the scope of industrial training boards without necessarily acting on the basis of a recommendation by the Commission;

to transfer the responsibility for meeting the operating expenses of industrial training boards from the Exchequer to the industries concerned;

to widen the criteria which boards could require

employers to satisfy before they could gain exemption from industrial training levies;

- The Government also made it clear that it considered there should be greater reliance on voluntary arrangements to promote industrial training in industry and commerce, and that statutory training boards should only be retained in a few key sectors where they were judged necessary to achieve wider training objectives. Only about five remained as statutory ITBs.

Shortly after the Employment and Training Act of 1981 was promulgated, the MSC announced several new initiatives for training particular groups in problem areas. The Industrial Training Research Unit (ITRU) gave some policy options in reducing unemployment which was, and is still, a major problem in Britain. Belbin the Chairman of ITRU tried to answer the question of what happens to training when jobs run out? He tried to answer this question by analysis of various states of an economy and related them to the patterns for publicly funded training. In table format his findings have interesting application values:

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE STATE OF EMPLOYMENT AND THE NEED FOR PUBLICLY FUNDED TRAINING

	State of Employment	The Need for Training Resources	The Case for Training	Type of Training Needed
A	Over-full Employment	Medium	To prevent overheating of economy and wage inflation	To provide key skills in short supply
B	Full Employment	Low	To assist the process of rapid change	Conversion training
C	Semi-full Employment	Medium	To overcome mismatches in the labour market	Training for mainstream skills
D	Recession	Medium-Low	To prevent the run down of human resources To act as a spur to recovery	Training for stock Assistance with Work Experience schemes
E	Localised Depression	Medium	To offset the domino effect of area decline	Make-Work schemes Combined Work/Training operations
F	General Depression	High	The need to transfer people from economic dependency to self-financing operations	Sophisticated training and development programmes

(Reproduced from Belbin, 1981, p 113)

Option F was one that interested the MSC at this time and they launched a programme to switch support away from unemployment benefit and towards a system of guaranteed income maintenance for working people. 'Create-your-own-job' (CYOJ) and 'Launch-a-Firm' are for action. (MSC, 1981 c, p 3). The document stated that there was wide support amongst industrialist, the education and training sectors and trade unions for the three objectives stated in the initial documents on initiatives. To put these objectives into action the MSC planned the following:

<u>Objective</u>	<u>Action to be taken</u>
(i) Developing skill training and standards	An annual recruitment drive for 120 000 young people to undertake substantial training including apprenticeships should be done. Skill training must be modernized with acceleration possibilities to meet standards earlier.
(ii) Equipping all young people for work	YOP should be improved and increased so that all young people entering employment would receive good quality basic training as a foundation for work, further training or retraining.
(iii) Widening opportunities	TOPS should be improved and extended as 8 000 000 people changed jobs annually and 500 000 became unemployed. Open Tech should be extended.

(MSC, 1981 c, p 7 8)

This development and the potential action are examples of the type of activity YOP trainees, judged capable with assistance of creating jobs for themselves, are given a job development grant to create their own job. This is a good example of an nfe programme

with integrated support to make it viable for the participant to become independent.

The MSC stepped up support for its schemes in November 81 and reduced it in the ITB sector.

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE BY PROGRAMME: UK 1981 - 1985

	£m 1980 Survey Prices				
	80/81	81/82	82/83	83/84	84/85
Employment Service					
Local Office service	112.5	106.6	103.5	101.4	100.9
PER (net)	3.9	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.7
Geographical Mobility allowances	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.1
Employment Rehabilitation	13.1	13.8	13.1	16.4	16.4
Sheltered Employment	49.7	48.7	49.4	48.2	48.2
Other Services	2.8	3.1	3.4	3.4	3.4
TOTAL	186.0	179.1	176.2	176.2	175.7
Training Services					
TOPS and Direct Training Services	213.1	187.0	184.0	177.5	176.0
Services to Industry Training Bodies	99.1	87.5	55.6	56.5	56.5
Training Research Information Development and Advice	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
TOTAL	314.2	276.5	241.6	236.0	234.5
Special Programmes					
YOP	185.2	263.7	281.3	280.9	280.6
STEP/CEP	39.4	76.6	105.6	105.6	105.6
Community Industry	17.4	19.3	19.3	19.3	19.3
JCP (residual)	0.3	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	242.3	359.6	406.2	405.8	405.5
Support Services					
Corporate Services Division	18.9	20.0	19.1	17.6	17.4
Manpower Intelligence and Planning Division	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
Regional Manpower Intelligence Units	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Costs of Dispersal	9.5	5.9	2.9	—	—
TOTAL	32.7	30.2	26.3	21.9	21.7
TOTAL MSC	775.2	845.4	850.3	839.9	837.4

This allocation of expenditure is provisional at this stage and is subject to further revision.

(Reproduced from BACIE, 1981, p 6)

In December 1981 the MSC published a document: A New Training Initiative: An Agenda for Action. It was the result of almost a thousand written responses to the first: New Training Initiative and it indicated what needed to be done. The idea of an 'agenda

for action', seen as an attempt towards achieving universal nfe for all school leavers entering jobs, seems appropriate.

It places a heavy financial responsibility on the Government though. A flood of new acronyms - MSC, YOP, NTI, PICKUP - marked the growth point in post-school education in the 1980s. While mainstream higher education and traditional further education, faced a period of stagnation and cuts, policy initiatives and money to match had been poured into the new further education for 16 to 19 year olds and into new experiments in continuing education for job renewal.

(Holland, 1982, p 18)

Support for these initiatives was widespread - from industry, unions, education etc. Cynics however said that the birth of the New Training Initiative lay in the fear of rising youth unemployment and was merely a way to occupy them for a year with little or no real job prospects. The schemes would cost 4 000 million annually.

(Santinelli, 1982, p III)

For the new training initiatives to work the further education system would be faced with a tremendous challenge. Holland acknowledged that the YOP demands on further education will be hard as they were a very different client to what was normally served by further education - a client '....which does not fit easily into traditional academic terms. Therefore it is a question of fitting the mould to the people and not the other way round!

(Santinelli, 1981 a, p 9)

Hamilton, Under-Secretary of State (DES) responded to the criticism by stating that half, and up to two thirds, of the young people who got off-the-job instruction got it in a college. He complained that the MSC could not guarantee YOP business for the colleges on a long-term basis, which was a disincentive to whole-hearted participation in the scheme. He stated however that his department was utterly committed to getting an effective partnership between

MSC and colleges over YOP, and that they would do anything in their power to make the partnership work.

(Hamilton, 1982, p 63)

The trade unions in the person of Monks from the Trade Union Council backed the new training initiatives but asked that the financial support for training of individuals should be extended to all workers so that continuous retraining throughout working life could be possible.

(Monks, 1982, p 66 - 68)

The proposed abolishment of some statutory ITBs was a major concern of some critics of the 1981 changes in the Act of 73. The question was raised as to whether the MSC, in mounting its new initiative programmes, wasn't withdrawing support from ITBs likely to become voluntary ITBs at the wrong time as the training might suffer.

(Perry, 1982, p 83)

The UK Government followed up its A New Training Initiative: An Agenda for Action, with a White Paper setting out their ten point plan for action, most of which has already been stated - important though was one point and that was an examination of longer-term possibilities for more effective, rational and equitable sharing of the costs of training between trainees, employers of trained people and the general taxpayers.

(BACIE, 1982, p 88)

The time of the second new initiatives (for action) in training became known as the Training Watershed as there were many for voluntary training arrangements and many against it.

(BACIE, 1982, p 107)

g. Some present day initiatives by the MSC

A new pattern of provision of training for specific skill

development, or updating, became noticeable after the new initiatives got underway. One such a MSC venture was the opening and encouragement for the establishment of information technology centres. This scheme was a joint initiative undertaken by the Department of Industry and the MSC. It was designed to help unemployed young people, particularly those under 18 to get work experience and training in the area of new technology. Their time on the scheme would assist their chance of gaining future employment in this rapidly expanding sector of the economy. Additionally the Centres would aim to identify and involve local enterprise in developing and producing marketable products arising from application of the new technology. Local authorities or private undertakings could start a centre but there were rules to be met before a scheme could be approved. The essential elements of the centres must be induction training, job-related training and work experience, life and social skills, further education and personal advice and support. A certificate is issued at the end of the training. Support would be from industry, community and Government and finance from the Department of Industry for equipment and MSC for the running and capital expenditure (MSC, 1982 a, p 1 - 6). By 1983 there were already 68 skill-centres in operation (BACIE, 1983, p 81).

A further important development in 1982 was the MSC: Youth Task Group Report. This report, it was stated, was about providing a permanent bridge between school and work. It was not about youth unemployment. The scheme to be proposed would make a central contribution to economic survival, recovery and growth. The Group's aim had been to provide for what the economy needed and what employers want - a better equipped, better qualified, better educated and better motivated workforce and to provide for young people what they themselves so actively seek - greater opportunities to equip themselves to make their way in the increasingly competitive and uncertain world of the 1980s. The Group described the background to their work, the current state of training, the Government's commitment to providing resources for training, the fact that employers would want any new scheme to be beneficial to their interests, the fact that other potential sponsors would expect their costs to be recognised, young people

would have a set of different but equally important requirements, unions would require the scheme to deliver the quality of training it promised and local education authorities which provided schools and colleges, would be engaged to provide their full support. Taking all these factors into consideration the general framework of the new schemes emerged clearly. Simply stated it amounted to:

(MSC, 1982 c, p 1 - 10)

- The scheme must enable, indeed induce, sponsors of all kinds to make available very large scale provision and must thus avoid detailed prescription;
- In particular, the scheme must provide incentives sufficient to induce large scale provision to be volunteered by employers of all kinds and sizes, from whom is sought a break with the past and more and better training both for those young people they may now engage and for those currently or prospectively unemployed;
- The scheme must involve and secure commitment from employers, local authorities, unions, the education service, the Careers Service, voluntary and youth organisations both at national and local levels;
- The scheme must provide for young people taking part to be treated as trainees and for this to be reflected in the nature and level of their remuneration but only if provision of training to standards is guaranteed in return;
- There must be an enforceable contract with the provider of training to secure this result;
- Young people in the scheme and the providers of training must both be in possession of an agreement which stipulates what each may expect of the other;
- The quality of training provided within the scheme and in

individual establishments must be assured;

- In order to convince young people and others of the value of the scheme, there must be provision for recognised certification of achievement by young people within the scheme and this must facilitate the progression of young people to further training, immediately or later in life;
- There must be a guarantee that no young person leaving school at the minimum age shall be left unemployed and without the offer of an opportunity within the scheme;
- Since all parties benefit, the funding of the scheme must provide for the State, the sponsor and the young person all to contribute, albeit in different ways;
- The scheme must be voluntary rather than compulsory - a scheme in which people want to take part because it offers what they seek and value.

(Compare MSC, 1982 c , p 11)

In describing the scheme the Group indicated that its aim would be the objectives of the New Training Initiative. The scheme should ultimately cover all young people aged 16 to 17 who had left full time education and provide them with the opportunity of entering training or a period of planned work. The training opportunities should be designed to last a year and any scheme would have to meet MSC criteria before it could be supported. In particular the content of a programme should provide for the trainee to be properly inducted into the programme, receive a minimum of three months off-the-job training, acquire defined core skills, learn about and have direct experience of the world of work, receive an introductory programme of training and skills related to a broad group or family of related occupations, increase his effectiveness in defined 'process' skills and support throughout the programme and be able on completion to transfer his acquired skills etc to other employment context or further training. Importantly the young people would have trainee status and there would be a

traineeship agreement which would set out all the detail and rights of all parties at the outset. Trainees would receive an allowance. Funding would be by block grant per trainee to the sponsor through the MSC. The Report expanded further on delivery costs and the next steps which included speedy decisions on mobilization of extensive resources, improvement of training, to promote a general awareness of the scheme, information for the target group - young people and some indication of the comprehensiveness was given.

(MSC, 1982, p 18 - 20)

In May 1982 details of the Professional and Commercial Updating Scheme (PICKUP) were announced. Funds would be provided to establish PICKUP organisers in each region. Short courses should be designed as refresher courses for people in mid-career. Colleges and polytechnics should undertake this on a self-financing basis. Some funds would be made available for the development of certain courses, by e.g. the Open University which may have national application. (Barry, 1982, p 3). This signified yet another area of new ground for the MSC, that of encouraging and supporting training as refresher courses. The number of PICKUP programmes have expanded rapidly and involved not only the further education and polytechnics but also, universities, local education authorities etc.

A good example is the Coventry Consortium. The City Council annually invests £200 000, supplemented by a further grant of £80 000 from the DES. The participants are colleges, the polytechnic and a university in the area. The consortium set four aims: to design specific and flexible training programmes to match identified needs; to provide services which could not be mounted by a single institution; to improve awareness of the training needs of industry and commerce and to provide an intelligible approachable and professional 'single face' for the educational institutions in the area. This was endorsed by the activities which got underway.

(PICKUP, 1983 a, p 1)

Essentially PICKUP is about the role that education - colleges,

polytechnics and universities - can play in meeting the needs of business for post-experience education and training. The modes for PICKUP could be residential periods, distance learning, work groups and formal lectures and could cumulatively through a modular format lead to a qualification.

(PICKUP, 1983 b, p 2 - 3)

Two further reports which appeared in 1983 would increase the need for PICKUP programmes. The first: The Industrial Design Requirements of Industry, (DES) highlighted four developments which were seen as central to the future need for greater technical skills. These are:

- the development of highly specialized knowledge in areas traditionally seen as part of general design competence;
- rapid advances in materials and manufacturing technologies;
- the explosion of knowledge in all fields of engineering, but especially in electronics engineering;
- the greatly enhanced abilities of new generation computers to store and process technical data.

The second report: New Opportunities in Manufacturing also spelt out a need for updating of workers' knowledge, skills and attitudes. It gave the warning that too many companies had not yet applied AMT to their manufacturing process and would become less competitive and many would not survive the next ten years (PICKUP, 1983 c, p 3). AMT is defined as:

'Any substantial, relevant and new manufacturing technique whose adoption is likely to lead to changes within a firm in manufacturing practices, management systems and approaches to design and production engineering of the product'.

(PICKUP, 1983 c, p 3)

If more firms were to apply AMT it would require updating to a large extent of the workforce and make PICKUP more relevant.

In April 1984 the Government White Paper on Training for Jobs was presented to Parliament. This gave the green light for a national adult training strategy to go ahead. One aim would be to convince employers and other bodies involved in employment of the vital need for updating.

(PICKUP, 1984, p 1)

The reaction of the trade unions through the Trade Union Council (TUC) was less hostile to YTS than to YOP as they could negotiate young people's terms and conditions including wages on YTS. They were however concerned about recruitment into regular apprenticeship which could be affected by YTS. (THES Editorial, 1982b,p 4).

The next interesting development or initiative was to request MSC to develop pilot schemes for education and training packages, including work experience for 14 to 18 year olds. The aim would be to stimulate technical and vocational education to 14 to 18 year olds as part of a drive to improve Britain's performance in the development of new skills and technology. This would prove the most controversial step in the MSC's history, as this could be seen as direct involvement (interference) in the formal secondary school education. It was stated in an editorial in the Times Higher Education Supplement, soon after the announcement of this initiative, that the target, the 'more able' pupils were not likely to be interested, resulting in ...'a diluted academic curriculum by a myopically instrumental training package....', for the bottom 40% of pupils. (THES, 1982c, p 31). The MSC denied any intentions to seek a permanent role in education through its new technical vocational initiative aimed at 14 to 16 year olds. The proposed measure was strictly temporary and designed eventually to lead to a national take-up funded by local authority. The new pilot scheme of technical vocational education consisting of 10 projects covering 10 000 young people got underway.

(THES, 1982a, p 3)

The new Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) projects could provide four year courses for children, starting at 14

years of age, of technical and vocational education, including appropriate work experience. Where YOP was short term training TVEI is a longer term initiative seeking to widen and enrich the curriculum so that young people will be able to adapt to a changing occupational environment.

(BACIE, 1983, p 81)

The first review of TVEI was published in 1984 by the MSC. Although the Review was cautious, it was indicated that the response to the TVEI both in terms of size and quality, was evidence that it had struck a chord within the education system. Schools, colleges and local education authorities had reacted with speed and enthusiasm. Teachers parents and the students had responded positively (MSC, 1984, p 1). The aims of TVEI were spelt out clearly in the Review - they would be:

- 'a. In conjunction with LEAs to explore and test ways of organising and managing the education of 14 - 18 year old young people across the ability range so that:
 - (i) more of them are attracted to seek the qualifications /skills which will be of direct value to them at work and more of them achieve these qualifications and skills;
 - (ii) they are better equipped to enter the world of employment which will await them;
 - (iii) they acquire a more direct appreciation of the practical application of the qualifications for which they are working;
 - (iv) they become accustomed to using their skills and knowledge to solve the real-world problems they will meet at work;
 - (v) more emphasis is placed on developing initiative, motivation and enterprise as well as problem-solving skills and other aspects of personal development;

(vi) the construction of the bridge from education to work is begun earlier by giving these young people the opportunity to have direct contact and training/planned work experience with a number of local employers in the relevant specialisms;

(vii) there is close collaboration between local education authorities and industry/commerce/public services etc., so that the curriculum has industry's confidence.

b. To undertake a. in such a way that:

(i) the detailed aims can be achieved quickly and cost effectively;

(ii) the educational lessons learned can be readily applied in other localities and to other groups among the 14 - 18 year olds;

(iii) the educational structures/schemes established to further the aims of the initiative should be consistent with progressive developments in skill and vocational training outside the school environment, existing vocational education for under 16 year-old young people, and higher education;

(iv) emphasis is placed on careful monitoring and evaluation;

(v) individual projects are managed at local level;

(vi) the overall conduct, assessment, and development of the initiative can be assessed and monitored by the MSC and the TVEI Unit it has established for this purpose.'

(MSC, 1984, p 24)

In September 1985 some results of TVEI were beginning to show up and it seemed as though it had made a radical impact on curriculum. Its introduction had encouraged many more pupils to take technology subjects.

In early calculations on the MSC's curriculum data base at Trent Polytechnic in 1985 regarding a sample of 44 TVEI schools, there was a massive increase in the number of pupils in the fourth year going into information technology compared with the 1983-4 pre-TVEI fourth year. It was also noted that traditional courses, such as woodwork, metalwork and home economics were drawing about a quarter less pupils than pre-TVEI (Transition, 1985, p 7).

In September 1983 the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (CPVE) or 17+ was announced. CPVE could be viewed as the educational counterpart to the MSC's YTS and was designed for young people who wished to stay on in school or college but did not have a clear academic or vocational objective. It is a grouped course, not a collection of separate subjects; it broadly prepares young people for the world of work and includes work experience. It was expected that the structure of the programme would allow for young people to concentrate on one of three broad areas - industry, business and commerce, caring for other people - and there would be provision for those who were uncommitted. A Joint Board for Pre-Vocational Education was to be established by BTEC and the City and Guilds of London Institute with the responsibility of developing and administering the new qualification. It was hoped that the 17+ qualification would give a vocational bias to a balanced programme of general education.

(BACIE, 1983, p 121)

In September 1985 CPVE became available in 1250 sixth forms and further education institutions. The structure of a CPVE course is such that there is a core of skills and knowledge which is regarded as vital for effectiveness both at work and in one's private life. For example, the all-pervasive impact of information technology means that information technology-literacy is now essential for all entrants to the work force. Students will constantly work at their core subjects - mostly in an applied way through the context of their vocational studies. There are five categories of vocational studies. The whole curriculum then is comprised of:

- Core competencies,
- Personal and career development,

Industrial, social and environmental studies,
Communication,
Social skills,
Numeracy,
Science and technology,
Information technology,
Creative development,
Practical skills,
Problem solving,

2. Vocational studies,
Business and administrative services,
Technical services,
Production,
Distribution,
Services to people.

(Transition, 1985, p 14)

On 31 March 1983 the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP) came to an end to be succeeded by YTS. From 1978 to that date YOP achieved a target of 1.8 million unemployed youths who took part. Just under 1 million got jobs. Holland, the Director of the MSC when he announced the end of YOP, said that YTS could not have been born if YOP had not been there to pioneer the way. YTS is intended to become a permanent feature in the lives of the young people of Britain and could even become of two years duration. (Holland, 1983, p 119). The year 1983 became known as the year of the Youth Training Scheme. (MSC News, 1983, p 1). The MSC's Annual Report for 1983 - 4, the tenth year of MSC existence, showed the following achievements:

- 354 000 young people - three out of five school leavers - entered the Youth Training Scheme which offers a year's planned training and work experience;
- 66 200 people completed TOPS training - where increased emphasis has been given to training in new technology, small business and work preparation training;

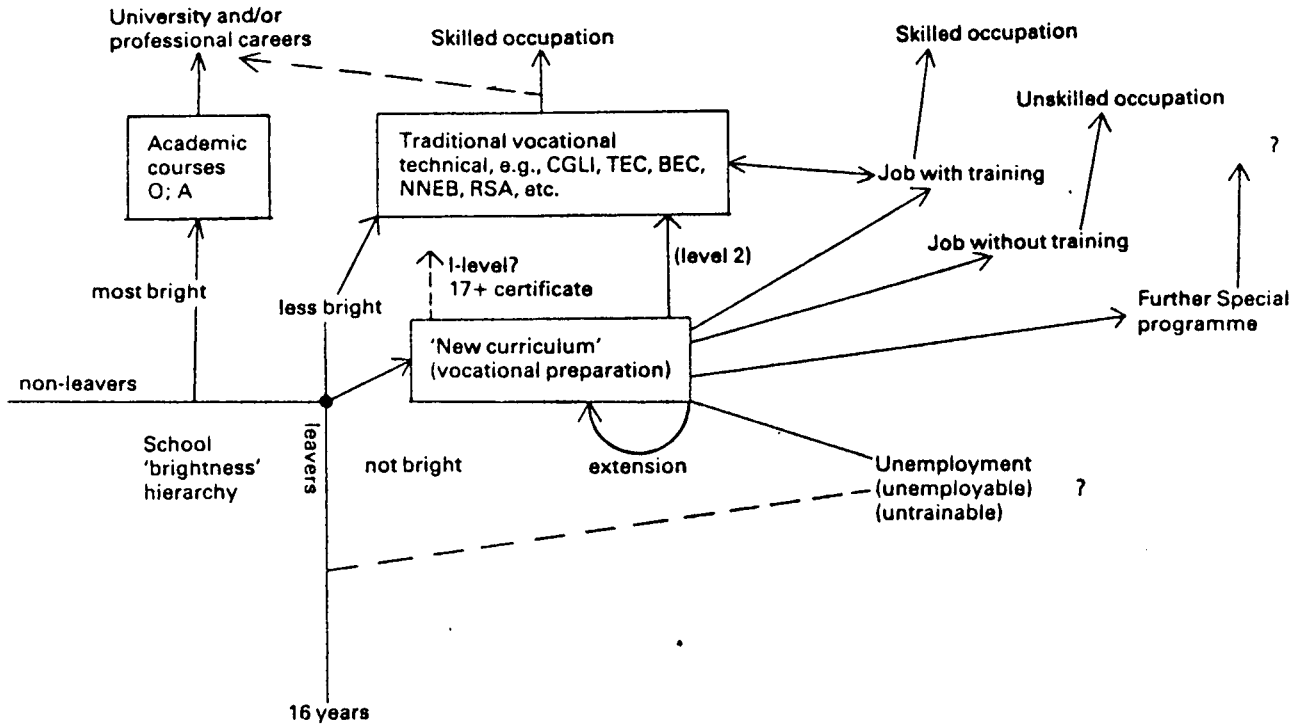
- Community Programme greatly expanded to provide temporary work for almost 113 000 people who have been unemployed for a long time, compared with 40 000 in the previous year;
- the Enterprise Allowance Scheme helped about 28 000 entrepreneurs set up in business - early indications show an encouragingly high number of businesses continuing into their second year;
- 1.65 million people were placed in work through the employment service which also handled 2.191 million vacancies, a third of all vacancies in the economy;
- the start of 14 pilot projects under the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative, which aims to stimulate the provision of such education for 14 to 18 year olds within the education system - with 47 Education Authorities starting projects in 1984;
- about 6 000 participants in the Open Tech programme, with expectations of a growing role in opening up access to training for adult workers in future years;

(BACIE, 1984, p 194)

The MSC's involvement with the transition from school to work, through the variety of schemes available to the school leaver, enables them to bridge that gap in many ways. Edwards designed the following useful diagram which illustrates the relationship of the new initiatives referred to here in terms of the 'New Curriculum', to existing provision for 16 - 19 year olds showing the hierarchy nature of outcomes and progressions.

(Edwards, 1984, p 107)

NEW INITIATIVES AND EXISTING PROVISION FOR 16 - 19 YEAR OLDS - 1984



(Reproduced from Edwards, 1984, p 107)

Holland summed up the modern training scene well when he said that traditional training programmes oriented towards specific jobs or employers, no longer met the needs of the modern world. 'What we need to create is a new foundation learning system - a bridge between school and work - which is grounded in the realities of the world, of employment and unemployment, and yet enables the individual young person to develop transferable understanding, skill and motivation'.

(Holland, 1983, p 2)

5.4 Activities of a cross-section of Industrial Training Boards

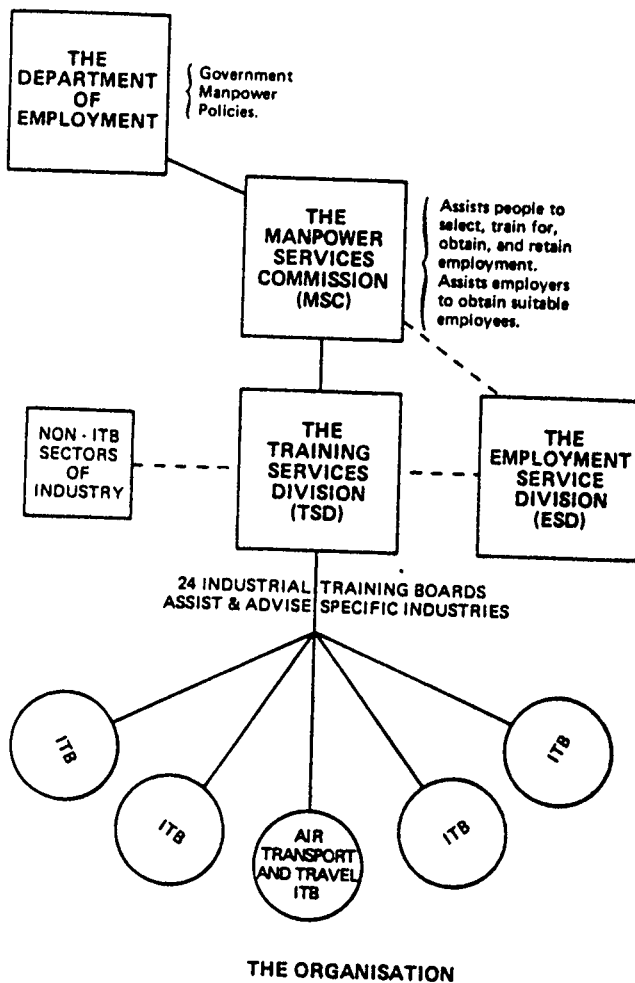
As could be seen from the analysis of Government policy in the UK through legislation and the activities of its statutory bodies like the MSC, the ITBs went through a cycle of little Government involvement in their affairs to a cycle of involvement with levy grant schemes, to financing by the MSC, to a cycle of statutory, formalized control and presently to a cycle of voluntary training with a few exceptions. The emphasis thus far has been from the angle of what the Government does and did to the ITBs. This study would not be complete without a look at the activities of a cross-section of industry training boards especially at the height of their statutory activities in 1980 - 1981 before the Act of 1981. The

researcher entered into written communication with each of the statutory and voluntary boards during 1980 - 81 and obtained valuable information from them. From this information a selection of topical issues are taken to illustrate how the ITBs promoted training in their sector. The activities typical of any board are:

- The role the board plays;
- Determination of the general industrial situation;
- Strategic objectives for the sector;
- Specific strategic programme;
- Manpower and industry training needs;
- Additional activities relating to national objectives;
- Stimulation of activities;
- Direct assistance to companies;
- Managing the Board's resources.

It was stated earlier that the MSC and the training boards, through the 1964 to 1973 to 1981 period, worked closely together. The relationship is clearly illustrated in the following sketch: (ATTITB, 1980, p 3).

UNITED KINGDOM 1980 - TRAINING BOARDS / MSC RELATIONSHIP



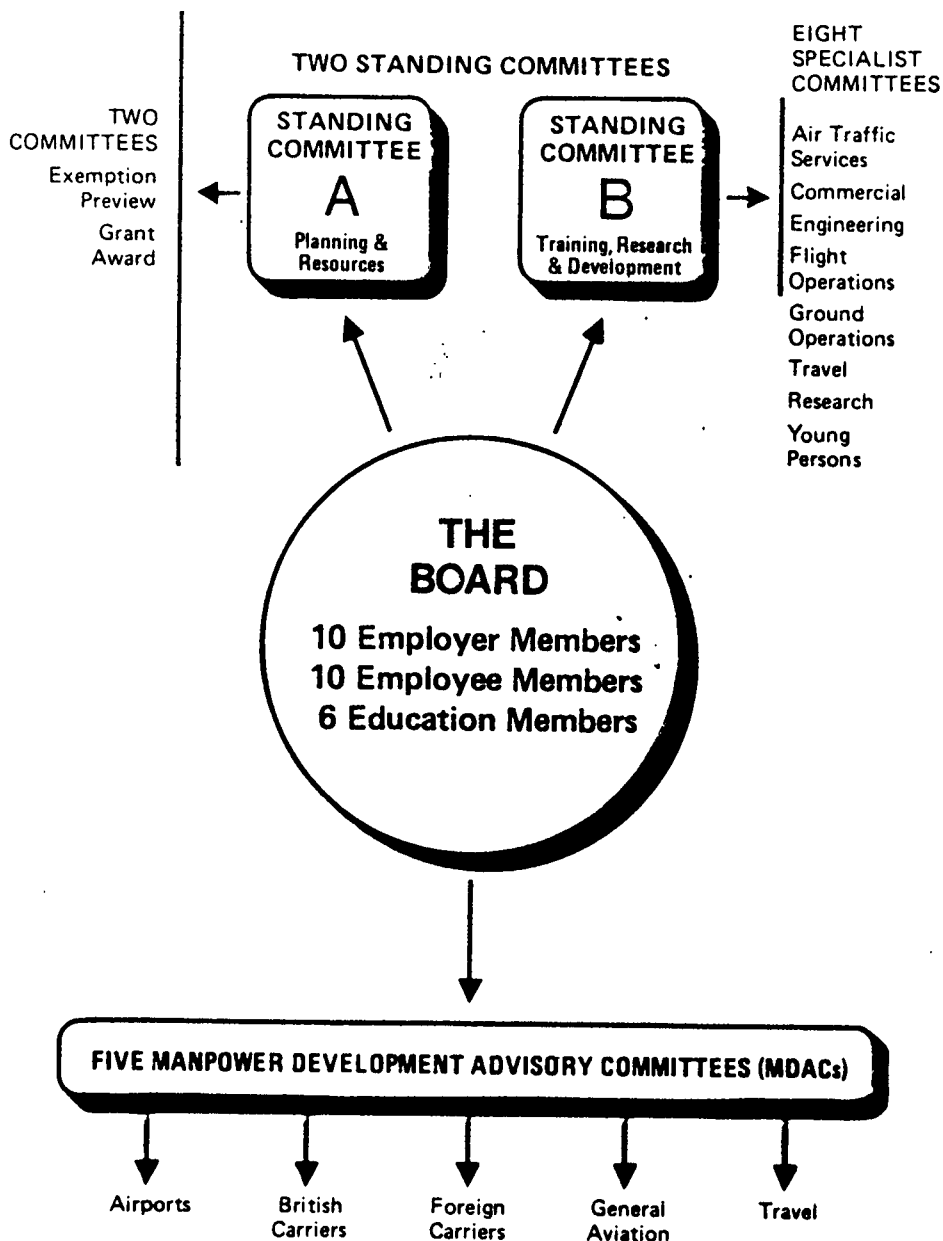
(Reproduced from ATTIB, 1980, p 3)

In this paragraph the following aspects will be illustrated.

a. An example of Industrial Training Board and staff structure

The Air Transport and Travel Industry Training Board (ATTITB) is used as an example and, although not typical of all the ITBs, it illustrates a number of the characteristics to be found in most ITBs. In this case the board consists of ten employer, ten employee and six education members. There are two standing committees with sub-committees and five manpower advisory committees, each for a specific sector.

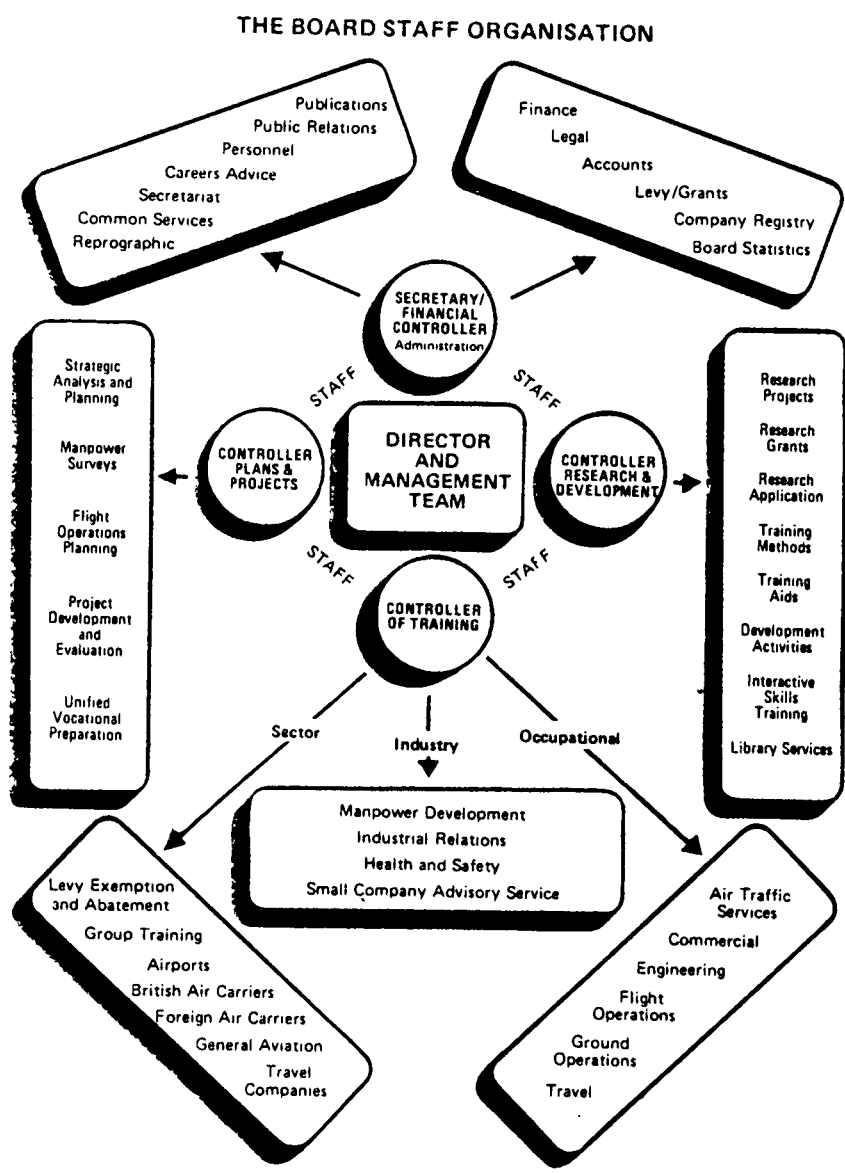
THE BOARD AND ITS COMMITTEE STRUCTURE



(Reproduced from ATTITB, 1980, p 5)

The Board's staff ensure that the Board's decisions and directions are applied. There is a Director and the work is divided into four areas: - A Training Advisory Service; plans and projects to provide manpower and organisation advisory service; research and development and an administrative element which handles financial and legal matters etc.

ATTITB : STAFF ORGANISATION 1980



(Reproduced from ATTITB, 1980, p 7)

b. The role of an industrial training board

In most cases the boards have adopted a systematic approach to the training needs of their industry. In the case of the ATTITB the Board considers each occupation as part of a total transport system as well as the particular manpower and training requirements. Its total role is to stimulate, guide and co-ordinate, rather than to provide centralised training facilities itself so the Board's activities have these four aims:

1. National level: To help in ensuring that Great Britain has an effective Air Transport and Travel Industry which meets the requirements of its customers.
2. Industry level: To improve manpower development in the industry.
3. Company level: To improve the planning, management and effectiveness of training.
4. Individuals: To encourage the use of schemes to train individuals for their current jobs and also in new skills and knowledge which arise during their careers.

(ATTITB, 1980, p 8)

In the case of the Knitting, Lace and Net Industry Training Board (KLNITB) the role of the Board in strategic planning in the light of 1979 - 80 circumstances was formulated as programmes for manpower provision; training competence; operational performance and national considerations. (KLNITB, 1980 p 5). In 1981 this Board formulated a: Strategy for the Upturn in the Industry. The strategy targets set included better business results; better business matters; better business naming; better small firm service and wider training objectives, which illustrates how a board could change its services to the prevailing economic conditions.

(KLNITB, 1981, p 1 - 12)

From the Ceramics, Glass and Mineral Products Industry Training Board's 1979 - 80 Annual Report, one can gauge from their programmes

the extent of their undertakings. In the manpower and industry needs training programme the Board's staff, firstly, identify industry needs, determine what skills to train for, assist with manpower planning and assist with arrangements for such training as management and supervisory development, industrial relations, youth training etc.

(CGMP ITB, 1980, p 10 - 20)

A common feature in the activities of the ITBs is a study of manpower in the sector and general employment trends. Thus, in 1980, the Paper and Paper Products Industry Training Board (PPITB) in its manpower report reflected that employment had fallen by 2.1 % over the year, which was a smaller decrease than for the manufacturing industry as a whole. It also reflected an 8% reduction in the recruitment of young people for the industry. Trends in workforce mobility in and out of an industry sector are monitored carefully and training and recruitment strategies changed.

(PPITB, 1980, p 2)

The ITBs report annually on the progress made towards training objectives. Thus, in the Annual Report and Accounts of the Ship-building Industry Training Boards (SITB) of 1979 - 80, the Board reported that its improvement in management and supervisory performance programme announced in 1975 had been substantially met. Its programme had consisted of a specialist full-time Management Development Advisory Unit whose activities had consisted of in-depth assignments in individual firms and the identification of major problem areas as seen by managers and supervisors. Secondly, amongst smaller firms, the Business Improvement Group had done a lot of in-company work and the Board had held a number of sponsored board courses, seminars and workshops on safety, management development etc. Other targets of the Board, such as technology training, craft training etc, were reported on.

(SITB, 1980, p 13 - 15)

Industry Training Boards report to the Manpower Services Commission annually on such matters as the industry's operating environment, the structure of the industry, levy and exemption, employment by

occupation, age distribution, the role of the board, strategic and operational planning, key occupations and their training needs, progress towards meeting objectives, specific programmes such as "Training for skills" criteria, research, staff organisation and development and a statement of accounts.

(PPITB, 1980)

The non-ITB sector such as the Local Government, has also organized itself into boards. Such for example, is the Local Government Training Board (LGTB). Although not as powerful as the ITBs, it does have specific aims, especially promotion of training, in particular setting and recommending training standards, fulfilling the role of examining and qualifying body etc.

(LGTB, 1980, p 2)

The ITBs respond to MSC policy statements, Green Papers etc, to reflect their industry's views and how any change in statutes could affect or harm their industry. Thus the Wool, Jute and Flax Industry Training Board (WJFITB) responded to the proposed changes to the Employment and Training Act 1973 stating that:

- there is a need for statutory arrangements to ensure adequate attention to training in industry;
- that the boundaries between Boards should be examined and rationalised;
- the WJF ITB was totally opposed to the principle of a return to industry funding.

(WJFITB, 1981, p 8 - 9)

c. Levy, grants and finance of ITBs

The levy and grant system varies from one ITB to the next. Some examples will be shown here. In the Distributive Industry a system of levy exemption is in operation. In this industry levy remission can only be earned in a strict sequence. The stages are: defining and communicating a training policy; allocating responsibility for training and training the trainers; analysing the firm's overall

training needs and planning to satisfy the firms overall needs. (DITB, 1980, p 2). The aim is to fulfil these requirements, which means training to meet the firm's own needs by themselves, to obtain levy exemption. In the Knitting, Lace and Net Industry on the basis of constructive dialogue between employers and the Board advisers, levy exemption is offered as follows: Establishments which were liable in 1980/81 to pay levy in 1981/82 and applied for exemption were assessed on the existence and relevance of a written statement of a firm's training policy for overall implementation; quality of training arrangements and facilities (40% levy); execution of 1980/81 training plans with review of experience and identification of areas for improvement - execution (35% of levy), review (25% of levy) and systematic assessment of training needs in all occupational categories and planning of training to meet assessed needs in 1981/82. (KLNITB, 1981, p 4).

For companies who have already got levy exemption similar criteria have to be met to retain levy exemptions. Often financial support is made available through ITBs for key training activities and supplementary grants are made. Such examples include: Group Training Schemes for Smaller Companies, and specific activities particular to an ITB, for example in the Rubber and Plastic Processing Industry Training Board (RPPITM) a key training area in 1980 was export marketing training for which grants were available and supplementary grants were made available in the same year for polymer processing technician training. (RPPITB, 1981, p 5 and 9). In the Construction Industry levy is paid by all firms above a certain size and the money is used to pay grants to firms who carry out approved training. The levy is a percentage of all payments made for labour-only services, assessed in December, compared with the grants earned and the balance received from or paid to the CITB.

(CITB, 1980, p 2)

d. Training board publications

All the ITBs publish newsletters, information booklets for recruitment, booklets on specific activities of the boards and annual statements.

The Engineering Industry Training Board (EITB) offers an overseas service and set up an Export and Consultancy Service in 1978 to make a more positive contribution to overseas industrial development involving British firms in the transfer of technology. Examples of possible assistance include:

(EITB, 1980, p 3)

- identification of engineering training needs and the organisation of subsequent training programmes and courses;
- preparation of management development programmes for overseas staff with limited skills;
- planning and introducing training programmes related to overseas contracts;
- development of integrated plans for joint venture or consortia projects based on identified technical and commercial manpower forecasts;
- help in designing, equipping and supervising overseas training facilities, including detailed curriculum assistance on craft and technician training;
- training of instructors in training techniques;
- assistance with developing training packages and job aids, especially for self-development in isolated environments;
- selective sale of EITB training publications and manuals;
- temporary short-term secondment of EITB staff;
- help in organising tours and attachments for overseas training personnel;
- provision of advice and assistance on activities which include the module system of training craftsmen and technicians, training elements and model schemes for

operators, training and manpower surveys and research, information and retrieval systems;

Extensive information for schools, counsellors and pupils are made available through ITBs. The Agricultural Training Board (ATB), which originally had difficulties imposing a levy system, booklet on Apprenticeships and Craft Training Scheme explains the scheme, categories of employment, conditions of agreement to enter training and a host of other information.

(ATB, 1980, p 1 - 10)

Focus on Training, a monthly publication of the RPPITB of June 1981 carried information on the MSC's announced major objectives for training in the 1980s and the Chairman of the MSC's views that the announced Government decision to cut off funding of the operating costs of Industry Training Boards at the end of 1981 could cause regrettable and damaging dislocation of training efforts. The Commission would be calling on the Government to revise its approach to make possible an orderly transition to new arrangements following the review. Any abrupt attempt to transfer some 50 million costs to industry at the depth of the recession could only damage training. These newsletters keep ITB member industries informed.

(RPPITB, 1981, p 1)

The discussion in this section, dealing with aspects of ITB activities, was at the height of government statutory involvement in organising training sector by sector. The effects of the changes which came after the 1981 Employment and Training Act, will be looked at in the summary to this chapter.

5.5 SUMMARY

The summary of this part of the thesis serves two purposes, that of giving an overview of nfe in the UK from 1945 to the present day by distinguishing the patterns of provision - legislative, policy statements and forms of provision in terms of the models developed earlier in the study and secondly, to use the conclusions to compare the nfe in the RSA in Chapter six.

In Chapter four of this thesis the point of intervention for a Government in the transition from school to the world of work has been indicated. The first very definite signs of intervention by Government in this area in the UK came by the middle of this century when it was realized that the organisation of vocational training in the United Kingdom had reached a crisis point. The volume and, in many cases, the quality of training were below an acceptable level in terms of economic competitiveness. The solution adopted in the industrial Training Act 1964 represented a good compromise in leaving control in the hands of those directly concerned with the results of training and providing a self-financing mechanism, while avoiding direct intervention from the centre. This however, resulted in a degree of duplication and administrative confusion which could only be resolved by the exercise of a greater degree of co-ordination from the centre. The Central Training Council introduced as an afterthought to the Act of 64, was destined to be this instrument for co-ordination of the centre. The ITBs lacked co-ordination and did not succeed initially to facilitate the much needed transfer of labour from declining to expanding industries and, amongst other things, that a substantial and important sector of the economy had remained outside the scope of the 1964 Act. These shortcomings were only remedied with the 1973 Act. (Perry, 1975, p 311). The period 1964 to 1973 brought training, (various forms of nfe) initiatives to the fore in industry which was still seen as being responsible for its own training. This often resulted in drastic cuts in training by firms during recession periods with shortages during upturns. The 1964 Act did not resolve this problem as the central co-ordination lacked power and means to do anything. It was only after 1973, with the advent of the MSC and its training division, that large scale measures off-the-job were undertaken by ITBs, that the flow of labour was more secure.

(Flude and Parrott, 1979 p 93)

A second achievement, through the emphasis on training through the ITBs, was the fact that the 1964 Act and 1973 Act focussed the attention of employers and trade unions on the issue of training and created a climate which was conducive to improved industrial relations. Both sides discovered a community of interest and helped to bridge traditional barriers. Issues such as a change to the modular system for apprenticeship training could not be brought about without some breaking down of traditional stances on the issue.

A criticism of the 1964 Act was that it tended to isolate training from the other economic considerations which make up a national manpower policy. A macro-economic approach, instead of a limited micro-economic approach by one industry in its own field was needed. That the volume of training increased during the period from 1964 to 1973 cannot be doubted. Group training schemes in particular increased significantly.

The issue which started in 1964, i.e. the problem of financing or of training in the long-term, still remained. The training levy and levy exemption system created a lot of bureaucracy, especially as when training improved firms were receiving almost all the levy money back as grants for training, which made the administration through the boards cumbersome.

It was envisaged in 1964 that the long term result of gradual improvement would be progressive reduction in the size of the ITBs and in their levy requirements. During the 1973 - 1981 period the ITBs' running expenses were in fact met by the Government in an attempt to complete the co-ordination of training. This support was withdrawn in 1981 yet few ITBs disappeared as a result. During the period that the ITBs were publicly funded it was difficult to plan as the amounts voted for ITB purposes varied according to what the Government could make available.

With the advent of the MSC the pattern of provision changed, in that particular training problems would be identified and some solution sought. The various initiatives are a good case in point. If the YOP is examined it is easy to see that it was an attempt to deal with a particular problem, that of youth unemployment. On the intervention side, the nfe authorities (MSC) made an attempt to put pressure on the further education sector to accommodate an earlier school leavers problem while improving the training position. With the TOPS programme the pattern of provision of nfe was different. It was aimed at a different market, that of re-training in scarce job skills areas. In both cases the MSC influenced commerce and industry to accommodate these schemes. These schemes had a strong element of the process intensive approach to linking schooling with the world of work in that what was done in industry was often reproduced in off-the-job training. The Open Tech programme is a further example of Government intervention in the linkage process in that further education (and higher education) were called upon

by the MSC to respond to the training and re-training needs of high level manpower. Not only were they asked to do the training but to change admission requirements, modes of attendance and bring training in line with industry needs and that of adults. PICKUP is a similar case as it signified a change in MSC support into the area of continuous education. The Youth Training Scheme was such that the curriculum was also influenced by MSC structuring in order to qualify for support. Again it is an example of intervention and a new pattern determined by MSC policy. The accommodation of all school leavers to receive vocational training and the Certificate for Pre-Vocational Education are the most far-reaching example of involvement by nfe authorities in the formal education. The MSC has therefore fulfilled a major role in intervening where nfe problems occur. The involvement by the Government in the UK has been one of cycles of growing and greater involvement in particular factors related to nfe. For example the financial support which is granted, extended or reduced as the need for nfe of a particular type grows or declines. In terms of the model of linkage used in this thesis there were efforts at process intensive linkage where duplication of work activities are used in off-the-job training. There have also, especially lately, been strong efforts at requirements intensive linkage, i.e. what is required for work entry as well as what individuals need to know. The latest initiative of training for self employment supported by grants to establish an own job or launch a company is one which could have a real effect on unemployment as 'real' jobs are created rather than training and work as a temporary measure to reduce unemployment.

Criticism against the MSC's intervention and the measures taken have been severe and directed at many aspects of their intervention. One commonly held criticism was that the YOP was nothing more than cheap labour as these youths were paid a small part of what qualified workers would get. (Brokington and White, 1983, p 78). The discrepancies between what is equality of opportunity in formal education, (compare disadvantaged to privileged children's opportunities), have also spread to nfe as nfe through the youth training initiatives (in the UK) is as enforcing of class barriers etc, as it is created mostly for the underprivileged or under-achiever who did not have an equal chance in formal education. A further criticism from the unions is that job-opportunities for qualified workers are reduced as jobs which actually require qualified people, are done by people unqualified, who are on some or other training scheme.

From the educationists point of view two systems, education as one and training as the other, have come about yet the curriculum differences are becoming more and more blurred. The problem however, is that the two systems have very different (snob) status values in the community. Further criticism, which has led to its cancellation in YTS programmes, against the syllabus for social skills were made.

The further interesting development in nfe in the UK is that it changed from being supplementary and complimentary to being integrated in some areas such as CPVE.

In the next chapter the survey of the RSA activities in nfe for proficiency training will be analysed in the same way to determine the pattern of provision and the role of Government and the private sector (bodies) on the policies related to nfe as they affect industry.

CHAPTER 6

THE INFLUENCE OF GOVERNMENT POLICY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NFE, FORMAL EDUCATION AND THE PRIVATE SECTOR IN THE RSA WITH SOME REFERENCE TO AFRICAN THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

As was the case in Chapter 5, the influence of the South African Government on the transition from school to work and industrial training will be traced largely since 1945 with the main emphasis on the 1976-1985 period. It is not possible to describe the effects of Government policy on each of the many systems of education in South Africa in detail, but an attempt will be made to highlight the Government's influence on nfe as it affected the education of the populations of South Africa from time to time. The legislation and policy statements by Government in the field of industrial training form the thread which weaves through the history of training in this country. Again an attempt will be made to offer the views of the private sector (and bodies) towards training in their industry and organised industrial training bodies and to indicate to what extent the Government's policies are influenced by the private sector. The periods of activity between legislative and policy statements make a good framework for the study. The following periods will be examined:

- The period leading up to the Apprenticeship Act of 1944;
- The Training of Artisans Act 1951;
- The Black-Employees' In-Service Training Act 1976;
- The In-Service Training Act 1979;
- The Manpower Training Act of 1981;

Where relevant, legislation and policy statements in relation to formal education, which might affect nfe will be referred to. The most significant are the Human Sciences Research Council's Investigation into Education in 1981 and the subsequent Government policy statements, in particular in relation to the proposed change from a closed to an open system of education.

6.1 THE PERIOD IN THE RSA LEADING UP TO THE 1944 APPRENTICESHIP ACT

Some of the earliest signs of Government involvement in training appeared

in the Cape of Good Hope Law, No 15 of 1856, under which apprenticeship in agriculture, in domestic service and many skilled trades or arts was regulated. (Moody, 1984, p 5). Similar laws were enacted in Natal in 1850 and the Transvaal in 1880. In technical and vocational education from 1919, the then Union Education Department conducted National Technical and Commercial Examinations. (Malherbe, 1925, p 428). The first national attempt at regulating of apprenticeship training came in 1918 when the Wages, Apprentices and Improvers Act empowered wage boards, of which a number were established to fix the number of skilled workers in the occupations to which the Act applied. This Act did not achieve the protection of juveniles which had been hoped for and was repealed by the Wages Act 1925.

A further act, the Apprenticeship Act No 26, 1922 was the first recognition that the training of skilled workers to artisan status through apprenticeship had to take its proper place in the education system. This Act made provision for conditions of a contract of apprenticeship involving employers, employees and the registrar (State) for apprenticeship training. The Act applied to certain industries such as bootmaking, building, clothing, carriage building, electrical engineering, food (baking, building, milling), furniture, leather working, mechanical engineering and printing. (HSRC, 1985, p 15). The Act provided for control, through apprenticeship committees for each industry, which reflected the tripartite policy of the South African Government which applies to this date, of involving employers and employees with the State in a regulatory role. In the 1922 Act the apprenticeship committees consisted of an equal number of employers and employees and State inspectors were appointed to ensure standards. It also provided for attendance of technical classes and a refund of fees if 75% attendance and satisfactory reports were achieved.

(HSRC, 1985, p 15)

The Act of 1922 did not make provision for a co-ordinating body such as a national apprenticeship board and in 1927, at a national conference of apprenticeship committees, the view was expressed that a lack of uniformity led to restriction in the mobility of labour for if a minor were employed in one centre in a trade which, although designated in all other centres, was not designated there, he might have difficulty

later in securing employment in such other centres. (Moody, 1984, p 7).
Act No 22 of 1930 amended the 1922 Act and added some important changes:

- Voluntary apprenticeship in commerce (commercial distributive industry) was provided for.
- During the first two years of apprenticeship technical classes would be for between 8 and 4 hours a week of which half would be during working hours.

(HSRC, 1985, p 15)

The 1922 Apprenticeship Act remained intact, after the 1920 amendment, until 1944 when provision was made to promulgate regulations which could be more readily amended.

Adult education other than apprenticeship training started in the late nineteenth, early twentieth century in Cape Town where the S A College Extension Lectures Committee operated from 1905 on a sporadic basis. From 1909 onwards women's organisations made various attempts to promote the welfare of mankind, the family and the individual. (Malherbe, 1977, p 403 - 4). It was, however, the Second World War (1939 - 1945) which turned out to be the most significant event in the history of nfe in South Africa. The educational service created in the South African Defence Force during that period, saw the biggest effort at nfe of varying types. Training was provided for soldiers, but also public lectures on ideological (war) issues. Army education officers to educate soldiers were trained and several publications, such as the Army Education Handbook were issued. The post war offshoots of these efforts led to the establishment, under the Education Department of the Central Government, of adult education (nfe).

(Malherbe, 1977, p 404 - 415)

Rose and Tunmer in their book on Documents in South African Education, pointed out that a fear existed amongst white communities in the RSA that education might transform Africans into successful competitors with the whites for limited job opportunities and that this led to the barring of blacks from nfe in white areas or from receiving training in white areas although they worked there. This ruling applied until very recently. This policy led to the very slow development of nfe for blacks, coloureds and indians.

(Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p 201)

Mention has already been made of the effect the Second World War had on adult education. The period 1939 - 1945 was so significant in terms of training in South Africa that it warrants further description. Thousands of skilled workers were required for munitions, civilian defense etc. Technical Colleges were asked to open technical training centres for this purpose. These centres were organised under the Central Organisation of Technical Training (COTT) which operated under the Director-General of War Supplies. Training consisted of 25 weeks of 48 hours per week and ended with a trade test. The scheme provided 22 417 trained persons. In 1945 the accent was shifted to the training of ex-servicemen for civilian re-employment, until 1948 under the control of the Union Education Department. (HSRC, 1985 p 16). As a result of the experience gained during this period, through representation to the Government, the Apprenticeship Act 1944 (No 37) repealed the 1922 Act and provided for a National Apprenticeship Board. In 1945 a Commission of Inquiry was appointed to investigate technical and vocational education (the De Villiers Commission). It had, as one of its terms of reference, to report on 'the most suitable methods of training for industry, having regard to the role of apprenticeship and learnership in such training and the providing of facilities therefor'.

(Moody, 1984 p 8 - 9)

In 1948 the Minister of Labour appointed a Ministerial Committee to study the Report. This Committee reported in 1950 to recommend that the Registrar of Apprentices should become the chairman of the national Apprenticeship Board; 'day release' for training and a trade test. However this Committee also made far-reaching recommendations, which showed Government involvement in a new area of training, on adult trade training. This committee's recommendations led to the passing of the Training of Artisans Act, 1951 (No 38 of 1951).

(HSRC, 1985 p 17)

6.2 THE TRAINING OF ARTISANS ACT OF 1951 AND NFE FOR BLACKS

This Act brought about some administrative changes in apprenticeship training. Of great significance though, was the recommendation from the De Villiers Commission Report on adult trade training. The Minister of Labour was empowered to provide for training of adults in trades where a shortage of artisans was such that it impaired development. Provision

was made for one year of full-time intensive institutional training followed by three years of training with an employer. Passing a trade test could shorten this period to two years. Training became available at Olifantsfontein and Westlake Centres. (HSRC, 1985, p 17). This was quite significant as it showed a new area of intervention in nfe in which the Government was getting involved, through legislation.

Apart from minor changes in 1963 (Amending Act No 46 of 1963) e.g. 'block release' classes, voluntary trade tests in the penultimate training year etc. this Act remained in force for the training of white artisans until 1981. A policy for black artisans restricted them to artisan training in the homelands only. In 1964 the Steel and Engineering Federation of South Africa (SEIFSA), following on the United Kingdom Industrial Training Act of 1964, from which followed the establishment of industrial training boards and the introduction of employers training levies, proposed a levy scheme to stimulate the training of apprentices and to spread the financial burden more evenly among users of artisans. The SEIFSA request was referred to the National Apprenticeship Board for its consideration in 1967. It recommended that the initiative for this should be taken by industrial councils, but it was not until 1970 with the introduction of the Industrial Conciliation Amendment Act (No 21 of 1970) which provided for an industrial council, or where one did not exist, for a group or association of employers to establish a training scheme and training fund, that some training boards were formed. (HSRC, 1985, p 88). This initiative was not followed by many industrial councils as only about 10 training funds were established. The question is raised as to whether the South African Government did not miss an opportunity here to achieve sector by sector training development if training schemes at that stage (1970) had been made mandatory.

Up to now the observation on legislation on nfe by the South African Government has been largely about the Whites. The same Government's policy with regard to black (native) education and nfe and of the other race groups was quite different and will be summarized here as the Government's next involvement (1976) onwards can only be understood if the nfe for other races is taken into account. Shingler who undertook research in South Africa on education and the political order, stated that the twentieth century manpower policy was a reversal of the nineteenth century. In the latter almost all manual work was done by

Non-whites. In the twentieth century Whites were more engaged in manual work - but where they did this, it had to be made their exclusive right (preserve), for example, in mining certain tasks were done by Whites only. The enfranchised Whites, according to Shingler, used legislation, both in the self-governing colonies before Union, and in the Union itself to make activities which had, only a generation earlier, been the customary preserve of Coloureds, the exclusive preserve of Whites. In the nineteenth century industrial education had been confined mainly to Africans and Coloureds; apprentices in the skilled crafts had been largely Coloured. In the 20th century apprenticeship and technical education were the exclusive preserve, according to Shingler, of White youth. (Shingler, 1973 p 75 - 77). According to him the provision of technical education largely for Whites from 1890 - 1910 was linked to the S A industrial revolution; the Poor White problem; immigration of skilled workers from Europe and conflict of the respective educational responsibilities of the Union and Provincial Governments after 1910. Shingler is of the opinion that after 1924, a "civilized labour" policy which deliberately replaced African and Coloured workers with Whites in various unskilled occupations, was enforced on a large scale (Shingler, 1973 p 76). Of importance in life for Blacks was the Bantu Building Workers Act, No 27 of 1951. It is an example of Government involvement to solve a particular social problem. This Act was introduced to speed up the provision of housing for Africans in urban areas. According to Horrell the Act provided for the training and employment of Africans as skilled building workers in African townships at lower rates of pay than those stipulated for builders of other racial groups. African applicants (Blacks) of 18 years of age were placed in employment on urban and rural building schemes as learners. If they passed the test at the end of the first year they would move up a grade. After four years they could be issued with the National Building Workers' Diploma of the Department of Labour. This is an example of a Government Department intervening in a particular need situation, arranging training and the issue of a qualification.

(HORRELL, 1973 p 102 - 3)

Until 1955 adult education for members of all racial groups was under the control of the Department of Education, Arts and Science (of the Union). In Johannesburg the Control Committee for Non-European Continuation

Classes was running 26 schools with 2770 African adult students and 142 teachers. The Durban Group of Schools for Bantu Adults had 25 schools with more than 3500 Africans enrolled. Similar arrangements applied in Cape Town and other large centres. Some of these voluntary groups received State and municipal grants-in-aid. During 1955 the Native Affairs Department (of the Union) took over the administration of grants for african adult education. In 1957 it published new regulations for evening schools and continuation classes, which were revised in 1962 (Government Notices 1414, 1415 of 1957 and R26 of 1962). Far reaching changes were made. All classes had to register with the Department of Bantu Education annually. Only pupils over 16 who were lawful residents, could apply. Classes in white areas had to apply for registration accompanied by permits from the Group Areas Board. No subsidies would be paid to schools in this category and municipalities could no longer make grants from their Bantu Revenue Accounts. Classes in African urban or rural areas had to be under the control of local African school boards. Partial State subsidies might be granted in approved cases. Whites voluntary teachers would not be allowed to work in these schools in African areas. The amount of subsidy was reduced and ended in 1964. No further registration was granted after 1967. (Horrell, 1973, p 19). The Native Affairs Department and its successor took over control of bantu adult education in the non-homeland black residential areas. Nfe for other race groups under their own education departments up to 1968, was sadly neglected. In 1964 limited training for trade instructors became available at Botswana Training and Trade School for Africans. By the end of 1967 only 15 students had qualified. In June 1966 Verwoerd expressed the Government's (National Party in power) policy on technical and vocational education for Bantu (Blacks). In the House of Assembly he announced that:

So far as Africans and other non-whites are concerned, '...in accordance with instructions issued to them, the educational authorities for the non-whites are at present shifting the emphasis to technical education in order to relieve the pressure on skilled manpower so that non-whites will be able to make a larger contribution to skilled work within the Government's policy'. (Hansard 3 of 1967 column 1083). The Advisory Committee on Manpower Research and Planning had been asked to determine avenues of employment for Bantu with vocational training or scholastic

qualifications of Standard VIII and higher in the Bantu and border areas. The Government did not immediately contemplate the provision of advanced training for Africans as it was for other groups. 'It would be an incorrect principle' he said 'to begin with the training of Bantu engineers and other technologists for the most advanced services while there are insufficient numbers of technicians and tradesman on the lower level of the pyramid.'

(Horrell, 1968, p. 98)

To this Horrell quoted ... 'expert opinion is to the effect that an increasing shortage of skilled labour is likely to develop in "White" areas, and that if South Africa's economic growth is not be curbed it is imperative that Africans should be equipped to play a more creative responsible role in modern society.'

(Horrell, 1973 p 109 - 110)

In 1968 Dube Vocational Training Centre maintained by Johannesburg Municipality was the only institution in South Africa (outside the homelands) where Africans could train to a level which enabled them, before leaving, to enter for the National Technical Certificate examination taken by artisans. Technical education for Blacks, introduced in 1961, amounted to 9 schools in 1968. In April 1968 the Minister of Bantu Education stated that 455 black students were enrolled at technical secondary schools for technical or commercial courses. (Hansard 14 cols 5404). In May 1969 the Deputy Minister of Bantu Administration announced an experimental scheme for the training of African factory workers in border industrial areas by their employers on a subsidized basis:

- Every factory in a border area that continually needed to train at least 20 workers at a time, should be required to provide its own training centre and to make this available free of charge to the Department of Bantu Education.
- The Department would provide free school equipment such as desks, but not specialized equipment particular to the industry. The industrialists would have to provide instructors and recruit trainees.
- The Department would examine facilities, the course and

competence of instructors. If satisfactory the training centre would be registered as a State-assisted industrial school, subject to inspection. (Horrell, 1973, p 134).

- The Department would pay instructors' salaries and provide free accommodation in unfurnished living quarters for pupils during training. (Rand Daily Mail, 1 April 1969).
- In November 1971 it was decided to extend the scheme to not only border, areas but growth points in Homelands. Where a group of factories had similar basic needs, the Department might set up a central training centre to provide 'crash' pre-service courses of +- 10 weeks similar to those at Mdantsane textile school.

In 1972 there were 13 border area firms with registered industrial schools with the average enrolments of Ciskei 550, KwaZulu 140 and Bophuthatswana 126.

(Hansard 5 of 1973 col 322)

In the Budget Speech of 1973 a Committee was set up to investigate the desirability and practical feasibility of establishing systems of pre-service and of in-service training for African workers for industrial work in White areas. The Deputy Minister of Bantu Development said the intention was to provide training in the categories of industrial work which by law, Africans were permitted to carry out in white areas, i.e. jobs on semi-skilled and operative levels. (Hansard 11 of 1973 col 685). The Minister of Labour indicated that 'workers in the lower grades' could be trained to take over the less important and time consuming aspects of jobs done by skilled workers.

(Rand Daily Mail, 26 May 1973)

As far as technical education for Blacks was concerned, schools were established in each of the major centres, such as Mamelodi (Pretoria), Jabulani (Johannesburg) etc. By 1973 eleven trade schools and eleven trade sections under the Department of Bantu Education had been established. (Leistner and Breytenbach, 1975, p 57). The number of pupils had increased by 1130 to a total of 3119 from 1970 to 1973.

With regard to Coloureds and Indians in terms of the Apprenticeship Act (as amended) 1944 the former were catered for in several centres and in 1971 it was reported that 3033 people attended departmental classes. For Indians facilities were available at Durban, Pietermaritzburg and Stanger.

(Khoapa, 1972, p 167)

Rousseau, Secretary of the Department of Bantu Education in 1974, explained the Government's task in technical education for Blacks. He said the Department interpreted its task with regard to technical training and industrial training as one co-ordinated whole which had to develop in an orderly and balanced manner taking into account supply and demand. The Department of Bantu Education had initiated the following types of nfe in the proficiency area of nfe:

- Short courses at Ad hoc - industrial schools to provide for the needs of groups of industries with similar needs. Intensive training was given over a period of thirteen weeks, followed by a practical test and certificate.
- Ad hoc industrial training schemes in factories. These were established in particular industries on a subsidized basis.
- Private Industrial Training Centres, in White industrial areas to serve industrialists with common training needs. In 1974 eight centres were planned by the State in co-operation with organised industry at a cost of R1 200,000 (including equipment) paid by the State. The running costs were met by interested industries from their own funds.
- Industry in-service training schemes within factories, with the Department of Education and Training controlling standards.

(Rousseau, 1974, p 54)

Rousseau also reported on the Department of Bantu Education's industrial handwork centres. The Department's system of industrial training for adults (Blacks) in White areas was planned in such a way that it could be co-ordinated with the secondary school programme. The purpose was not

vocational training - the pupils were merely exposed to industrial orientation on a broad level. After hours industrial training for adult factory workers would be provided in the same centres. (Rousseau, 1974, p 54). In 1974 the Department of Bantu Education indicated that there were 16 ad hoc industrial schools. In 1974 there were two inter-ethnic technical colleges for Blacks also offering technician training.

(Moolman and Leistner, 1975, p 86 - 7)

From within its borders, as well as from foreign researchers, indications started appearing that the RSA policy on technical education for Blacks was shortsighted and impractical. Tillema in 1974 in his research on: Apartheid in the RSA, pointed out that financing was being used to divide educational opportunities. According to him protection of employment for Whites restricted black education. He raised the question as to whether the exigencies of industrial development would force the Government to use resources contrary to its stated objectives. He stated that a common pattern among Africans in the Transkei was to receive their education there and then to migrate to urban areas where their education enabled them to qualify for enrolment and further on-the-job training. (Tillema, 1975, p 277 - 78). He also predicted that, as the demand (in 1974) for an educated workforce in the white industrial areas was not slackening the South African Government would have to divert resources to the solution of this problem for years to come, whether or not it agreed to expand opportunities for Africans to obtain education in the cities. The South African Government was already working in that direction as can be seen from the Income Tax Bantu Workers Training Allowance applicable in March 1975. Loubser, the Receiver of Revenue in Durban in March 1975, made a statement on this topic at the Natal Chamber of Industries Seminar: Train for Gain. He stated that substantial tax allowances were provided for in the 1974 Budget for the training of Bantu workers under approved training schemes. Act 85 of 1974 defined the details in terms of criteria for training schemes to be approved before tax concessions are made. Schemes had to be registered with the Secretary for Bantu Education. The two basic tests to the tax concessions were that the items for training expenses must be allowable as deductions from income and capital expenditure was excluded. The following was regarded as allowable expenses: The remuneration of instructional supervisors and clerical personnel. The allowance related only to training for Black

workers and where schemes were provided for both Whites and Blacks, only the apportionment of cost for the black training was allowable. Secondly expenditure in respect of training premises, as specified in detail, would be allowable, as well as portions of the trainees' remuneration and other allowances such as for training of trainers and teaching materials. Employers carrying out trade in an economic development area could qualify for up to 125% allowances (Loubser, 1975, p 1 - 12). These measures paved the way for the Black Employees In-Service Training Act 1976 and the In-Service Training Act 1979. It also signified an important development in the indirect financing of nfe by tax concession and incentive to industry to train black workers.

Voices were heard in general on the lack of technical and vocational training for all races, for example Goodwin, President of ASSOCOM pointed out that in planning the infra-structure and thus the future of independent Black Homelands the emphasis at that stage should be on schools and Colleges of Advanced Technical Education rather than on universities.

(Goodwin, 1977, p 2)

6.3 THE BANTU-EDUCATION IN-SERVICE TRAINING ACT OF 1976

In June 1976, Act No 86 - Bantu - Employees' In-service Training Act was introduced to provide for the promotion and regulation of the training of Bantu employers in industry and its various support activities such as a council, the establishment of public centres for training, the approval of private centres, grants-in-aid, imposition of a levy on certain employers and the inspection of centres (Act 86, 1976, p 3). The main object of the Act was to promote and regulate the training of employees in agriculture, commerce and industry but excluding the mining industry. The mining industry had developed its training and legislation separately from its inception, to become one of the most extensive and effective training initiatives in the RSA. The 1976 Act was an incentive to employers to develop the skills of their workers and to grant them tax concessions for expenses arising out of:

- the conduct of in-service training schemes or,
- the attendance of their workers at
public, or
private training centres.

(Department of Manpower Utilisation, 1980, p 1)

Training was defined as training which had as its special aim the improvement of the proficiency of any employee for any work performed in or in connection with industry. Granting of a tax concession had as prerequisite that the training scheme should have approval from the Department of Manpower Utilization. The control had shifted to a new Department. The allowances were more or less the same in categories as were stated in 1974. Eight public in-service-training centres were established. A training scheme, or private centre for registration had to meet the following guidelines:

- Employers must identify their own training needs;
- Employers or centres must recruit the necessary instructors themselves and ensure that they are suitably qualified;
- Employers should arrange for appropriate aptitude testing of trainees;
- Employers of centres must provide all necessary facilities and equipment required for training;
- The training periods for which tax concessions are claimed should be non-productive;
- All training must be job directed, i.e. the aim should be to achieve pre-determined objectives based on a proper task or job analysis;
- All training must be measurable and trainees should therefore be subjected to tests to evaluate their training;
- There must be a final test to evaluate the training; and
- proof of training must be furnished to trainees on completion of their training.

In addition it is to be noted that training schemes or centres would be -

- subject to periodical inspections;
- required to submit such statistical returns to the Department as might be required from time to time; and
- required to ensure that proper attendance registers are kept.

(Dept Manpower Utilisation, 1980, p 6)

The nature of the tax concessions were very favourable for employers. The concessions were fully described under section 11 sept of the Income Tax Act, 1962, which section provided, inter alia, for an allowance equal

to 100% of the training expenses incurred by an employer in the operation of a scheme or centre approved or established in terms of the 1976 Act and the further Act on In-Service Training 1979, to be deducted from the employer's income in addition to the normal deduction for training expenses. This, in effect, meant that 200% of an employer's training expenses was allowed as a deduction for income tax purposes.

(Dept of Manpower Utilisation, 1980, p 7)

These Acts allowed further tax concessions on apprenticeship training by employers who do not operate registered in-service training schemes, or whose apprentices do not receive training at registered private or public centres. Tax deductions for remuneration paid to apprentices while attending technical classes or block release courses, was allowed.

(Dept of Manpower Utilisation, 1980, p 8)

On the matter of course development for concessions on income tax the Dept of Manpower Utilisation gave very definite guidelines on the structuring of courses.

In 1976 Government incentives for the training of Blacks were an indication that the role of Blacks in the South African economy was growing and that training was needed. In an article on the Role of Blacks in the Economy in 1977, Leistner indicated that Parsons of the Chamber of Mines' Human Sciences Research Laboratory had estimated that, within 15 years, 500,000 'white collar' jobs alone would go begging and in 1990 3,62 million highly skilled persons would be needed with 2.1 million posts to be filled from other race groups. Looking towards the future, he indicated that there were four areas where business could contribute significantly towards a prosperous and stable future for South Africa. These were: Improved high minimum wages for Blacks which should act as an incentive to improve performance. Better working conditions. Improved living conditions for Blacks - housing, education, recreation and social amenities. Fourthly improved relations with black business and homelands. (Leistner, 1977, p 52 - 56). Some of the factors which were counterproductive in life for Blacks were becoming more noticeable. Thus the migratory system in use in many sectors of industry and in particular in agriculture, was one of the problems which affected

training as during the 'stay at home period', there was a loss of skills and often, on return, labourers went to different areas and different employment. All of this was counterproductive as re-training was needed.

(S A Sugar Year Book, 1978, p 26 - 28)

McCaul in a paper on industrial training in 1978, pointed out various problems in terms of training which faced employers in South Africa. He emphasised the role of training as it affected production as both the quality and quantity depended on the application and knowledge of the operator at his production point. The problems facing South African employers was that the labour force was not homogeneous - it consisted of four distinct basic ethnic groups. Language was one of the problems, as many of the technical terms did not appear in all the languages. Cultural backgrounds differ. According to McCaul Indian workers often regard an industrial operative job only as a stepping stone to a white collar job while the black worker might regard it simply as a means of earning money and could be indifferent to the type of work he did.

(McCaul, 1978, p 24 - 25)

According to McCaul the low rate of output that workers achieve means that industry must employ more persons for a given output than they would normally - wages therefore tend to be low. This, in turn, leads to considerable migration of labour from one job to another. He quotes as an example the case of a black worker in a textile factory who will not take a job which requires a certain time to develop the degree of skill and ability to justify a higher rate of pay, when he can obtain a job as a labourer in the building industry for immediate greater reward. The period from the 1976 Act saw a lot of development of training of Blacks by employers and private bodies. Malan and Hattingh (1975) found that Corporations such as the Bantu Investment Corporation, the Bantu Mining Corporation and the S A Bantu Trust supported In-service training, broadly based training and the KwaZulu Development (Training) Trust (KTT) for example plays a major role in proficiency training in Kwazulu. KTT will be returned to at a later stage.

Earlier in this chapter the decrease in activity in adult education for Blacks in white areas and the take over by the Department of Bantu

Education which later became the Department of Education and Training have been described. The 1977 - 78 Annual Report of this Department indicated that in 1977 the number of trainees at the eight public centres had grown from 3759 to 7014. The Departmental technical centres, largely responsible for technical orientation, had 1247 pupils attending classes weekly. The Co-ordinating Council for In-Service Training had dealt with matters such as: co-ordination of training undertaken at public and private in-service training centres and private in-service training schemes; imposition of levies to provide bridging finance to certain public centres and approval of courses recommended by the Data Bank (Syllabus) Committee for use at public centres. Private in-service training schemes were flourishing as 326 new schemes had been approved. To date (1977) according to the Department's Annual Report 1628 different training courses for specific operative tasks were offered at the schemes. The Departmental inspectors had also revisited a number of recognized schemes with a view to inspect additional courses. (Department of Education and Training, 1978, p 135 - 37). Six new Ad hoc state industrial schools had been established. The Department also reported on adult education under its control:

Adult education centres :	68 (+80 satellite centres)
	(64 operated from existing school buildings in the afternoon)
Part time teachers :	2000
Cost	R100 000 per month
Improvement of qualifications (teachers)	4312
Improvement of qualifications (others)	23608
Adult literacy	4043
	(Dept. Education and Training, 1978, p 142 - 3)

As Hartshorne pointed out in 1978, it was encouraging to see the number of initiatives that the Department of Education and Training had undertaken in the nfe of Blacks. This Department had created a special

With the aid of the Institute for Contemporary History of the University of the Orange Free State all the articles which appeared in newspapers from 1978 - 82 were analysed to establish the Government's initiatives in training and the demands from industry for relaxation of restricting S A Government Manpower policies. Thus the Minister of Labour in March 1978 made a plea for a coloured middle class to fill positions of trained labour, paving the way for job relaxation and appropriate training for other race groups (Volksblad, 1978, p 5). Attempts at developing centres for particular skill training were undertaken by a number of private bodies such as the Building Industries Federation of South Africa (BIFSA), one of the oldest private bodies in S A Training, by using trainees to erect the centres and develop skills while doing it - BIFSA undertook to train apprentices especially at the job entry level during the first three months. (BIFSA, 1978, p 16). The labour reporter of the Star reported that at SASOL 2 a major breakthrough for black advancement was made as black welders were being trained to below artisan level for work at SASOL 2. The same course was started at public training centres in March 1978. In Parliament, in April 1978, the Minister of Labour, in a discussion on his portfolio, stressed the importance of 'opening the doors' for black apprentices. (Editorial Die Burger, 1978, p 10). The Minister was paving the way for legislation which was to come in 1979 and was anticipating some of the outcomes of the Commission of Inquiry into Labour Legislation (the Wiehahn Commission) appointed in July 1977 and that of the Commission of Inquiry into Legislation affecting the Utilization of Manpower (The Riekert Commission) appointed in August 1977. Both these reports on the Governments manpower policy leading up to the 1981 Manpower Training Act will be looked at later. In 1978 the Minister of labour tried to re-assure White miners who responded negatively to his initiatives to allow training of Blacks in certain trades by saying that any development of this nature would be done in co-operation with the trade unions. (Swart, 1978, p 1). In June 1978 a request was made for the introduction of apprenticeships for tyre retreaders, a predominantly black occupation, which signified another step in the demand for training. (Editorial Volkshandel, 1978, p 57). In August 1978 General Motors South Africa indicated that they intended training more Blacks and that they were going to treble their in-service

employee training capability. To train apprentices and production operators of all races new facilities would be built. (Herald reporter, 1978 , p 1). Trade Unions differed on the issue of training of all race groups for what was restricted trades. Thus the Mineworkers' Union criticized the Association of Electrical Workers which had decided to admit Blacks to apprenticeships. The Mineworkers' Union in 1978, was against such a move (Fourie, 1978,p 5). Some unions also demanded more input to the selection and testing of trainees and the syllabus. Thus the S A Electrical Works Association (SAEWA) objected to laws which excluded them from these rights (Coetzee, 1978,p 14). In October 1978 the Minister of Labour declared that the Government would not object to the employment of all race groups in occupations and types of work previously restricted to Whites. Better utilization of the black labour force was needed. (Editorial in Beeld, 1978, p 22). In November 1978 it was pointed out in an editorial in Volkshandel that there were three reasons for the critical shortage of technicians and artisans. These were:

- The Whites amounted to only 17% of the population but had to account for almost all the skilled knowledge demand in the country.
- All race groups were being trained too slowly and in the wrong directions.
- There was a lack of needs analysis and appropriate planning and co-ordination of training by different semi-state organisations. SASOL needed 200 chemical engineers that year and all the universities could only produce 30.

(Greyling, 1978,p 9)

In December 1978 the Secretary of the Department of Labour announced a scheme for training white adults as artisans. The scheme would be open to Whites over 21 years of age and the Department of National Education would be jointly involved in the scheme. (Editorial in Oggendblad, 1978, p 9). The role of private trusts also developed and the Urban Foundation will be looked at again later on. (Hannig, 1978,p 21). Self-help schemes were introduced on how to build a house.

The higher technical education received a boost during 1978 with the publication of the Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Training and Status of Engineering Technicians (Goode Committee). New qualifications were proposed, better facilities and better qualified staff.

(Goode, 1978)

The purpose of assessing Government statements and private sector, union response during this period is important as the 1979 In-Service Training Act (No 95 of 1979) followed in July 1979. The first thing that strikes one was the removal of the word black-employees from the title of the Act. The implication was therefore that all the arrangements and concessions of the 1976 Act now applied to all race groups. The Minister of Labour had to establish the Council for In-Service training. The Council had an advisory function to advise him on policy, rules, matters relating to training. A Registrar of Training Schemes was to be appointed and the Act contained details for the approval of training schemes, inspection and exemption from certain provisions. (Republic of South Africa Act 95 of 1979, 1979, p 1 - 14). What is significant here is the departure from Government policy as provision was made in the same Act for the training of all race groups.

6.4 THE PERIOD FROM THE 1979 IN-SERVICE TRAINING ACT TO THE MANPOWER TRAINING ACT OF 1981

This period was one of the most eventful times in nfe in South Africa as a number of commissions reported on aspects of labour legislation and the 1981 Investigation in Education (De Lange Committee) Report was published. It referred to nfe although it had not been dealt with specifically.

The Government appointed the Economic Advisory Council in 1960 and this Council has given attention to manpower matters. It appointed a Working Committee on Manpower Training to report regularly on training programmes in different sectors of the South African economy. In 1969 the Council appointed the Committee for the Better Utilisation of Manpower (CBUM) which in 1971 became a standing committee of the Council and it incorporated the former Working Committee on Manpower Training. The Committee for the Better Utilisation of Manpower had the following objectives:

- The completion of a manpower balance sheet.
- The supplementation and upgrading of white labour through accelerated immigration; accelerated institution of training schemes; re-classification of artisan work so that the less skilled portions of it could be performed by semi-skilled workers; upgrading of semi-skilled Whites by means of training in industry itself; greater use of white female labour in productive fields.
- The upgrading and employment of non-white labour through the training of Coloureds and Asians to work in the framework of collective bargaining (skilled and semi-skilled), in co-operation with the trade unions; the employment of Blacks in more skilled work together with the upgrading of white labour; and the training of black workers in border areas. (Moody, 1984, p 15 - 16). A sub-committee of the CBUM classified education which prepares an individual for a job or a career into four types of training:
 - training by an individual employer to meet his own needs;
 - training to meet the needs of industry;
 - training to meet national economic needs; and
 - training and retraining of individuals whose present skills are deficient or whose skills have become obsolete.

This sub-committee reported the status quo and recommendations in terms of each type. The training to meet the National Economic Needs went beyond the needs of individual employers and industries and related to the training of people in occupations, which were needed in a wide range of industries. The Colleges for Advanced Technical Education (CATED) and technical colleges were seen as the providers of training to meet the National Economic Needs. (Moody, 1984, p 19 - 21). In August 1977 the Commission of Inquiry into Legislation Effecting the Utilization of Manpower (Riekert Commission) was appointed to investigate, report on and make recommendations in connection with all legislation, (excluding only the legislation on which the Wiehahn Commission was working), and rules as they relate directly or indirectly to any economic aspect of the use of manpower. The Government's response to this Report was that it was sincere in its efforts to adopt new approaches to

legislation which might be regarded as discriminatory. The Government accepted that there was a common economic system in South Africa, various population groups had to participate in the labour market and measures and regulations that hamper the effective functioning of the common economic system could not be justified. (Moody, 1984, p 28). This Report and the Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Labour Legislation (the Wiehahn Commission) in 1979 paved the way for further industrial training legislation which followed in 1981. The Wiehahn Commission reported in several parts-May 1979 to September 1981. Both the Wiehahn and Riekert Commissions recommended that a National Manpower Commission for South Africa, should be established as a matter of priority. The Government accepted this recommendation and as a result the Industrial Conciliation Amendment Act 1979 (Act 94), inserted a number of clauses into the Industrial Conciliation Act (Act 28 of 1956), now the Labour Relations Act, 1956, to provide for a National Manpower Commission (NMC) consisting "...of a chairman and as many other members as the Minister may deem necessary to represent the interests of the State, employers and employees". (Moody, 1984, p 30). The NMC is concerned with four broad types of functions (1979):

- advice to the Minister on Manpower;
- the monitoring and evaluation of developments in the labour field and research into a wide variety of labour matters;
- liaison with all relevant organisations in regard to manpower and related matters; and
- reporting on an annual and ad hoc basis. The NMC has the following Standing Committees:

Industrial Relations,
Education and Training,
Employment Services,
International Labour Affairs,
Conditions of Employment and Social Security,
Productivity,
Employment creation.

The two Commission reports referred to in the paragraph above had far

reaching consequences for the South African nfe scene. It is important to gauge the feelings of the private sector about these Reports and possible consequences. An analysis of articles shows that the issues in the Reports received wide publication. At the Emthonjeni in-service training centre in January 1979 it was pointed out that technical training for Blacks, on lines available to Whites, Coloureds and Indians had been advocated by industrial leaders for a very long time and disappointment was expressed that an envisaged technical institute for Blacks had to be funded privately by The Urban Foundation and private sponsors instead of being undertaken by the State. (Eastern Province Herald, 1979, p 8). It was pointed out further that the public sector should also pay a levy towards the maintenance of the same centre. In March 1979 Senator Horwood indicated that the recommendation of the Naude Committee, that an in-service training scheme for all, as was enjoyed by Blacks, would be implemented soon. The Labour reporter of the Star newspaper quoted some figures released by the Chamber of Mines in which it was claimed that within three years the shortfall in artisans would amount to 50 000 (Labour Reporter - The Star, 1979, p 3). The announcement by the Minister of Finance referred to earlier, that legislation would be introduced to allow all population groups to benefit from workers' training allowances was welcomed by the Midlands Chamber of Industries, BIFSA and others (Roffey, 1979, p 14). In the meantime the Government's in-service training centres were expanding, especially in the Transvaal. At the Chamdor Centre the number of apprentices had increased from 875 in 1971 to 1640 in 1978. Large donations were given to this Centre by firms to extend the facilities at the Centre.

(Editorial : Suid-Afrikaanse Oorsig, 1979, p 8)

At the opening of the New Brighton Technical Institute for Blacks Prof Wiehahn, speaking on the issue of Blacks as an integral and permanent part of the South African economy, pointed out further that the right to be trained had been introduced through legislation in many countries. He said that it was also acknowledged that the responsibility for training rested with employers and the Government (Editorial : Oosterlig, 1979, p 2). The Urban Foundation had been the main contributor towards the development of this institute. Three of the commissioners of the Wiehahn Commission brought out a minority report in which they asked for protection of Whites in trades, against the 'flood of Blacks', likely to enter

the artisan training - white artisans should have the right of veto on issues of admission of other race groups to the trades. (Die Transvaler, 1979, p 6). In the Rand Daily Mail of 2 May 1979 the fact that the State had encouraged registered trade union federations to train employees in industrial relations, as recommended in the Commission's Report, was welcomed. The NMC was also asked to undertake research into industrial relations in South Africa. Training in industrial relations is an important ingredient in the development of proficiency in South Africa as work relations between different race groups would have to change if work people had the same artisan status. The response to the Wiehahn Report from some large firms was encouraging. Siemens a large electrical equipment manufacturer announced that the firm was ready to implement the recommendations from the Commission and would start negotiations with their trade unions. (Ferreira, 1979, p 9). The semi-state institutions such as the Department of Posts and Telecommunications, which were already training both Whites and Non-whites complained vociferously in 1979 about the amount of poaching of trained staff from the Department. Rive accused the private sector of not training sufficient manpower and then poaching staff as soon as there was an economic upturn. (The Citizen, 1979, p 13). Mitchell, chairman of BIFSA in 1979 hinted at the fact that in the building industry, restrictive legislation, such as the Act on Bantu - building workers, might be abolished. Furthermore BIFSA had all the facilities and funds needed to undertake large scale practical and theoretical training.

(Die Burger, 1979, p 1)

The Minister of Labour, in addressing the employers' organisations in May 1979 stressed the need for improvement in the professional quality of trainers and that senior staff should handle the training of the workforce.

(Die Transvaler, 1979, p 6)

Two further interesting developments which followed in May 1979 were, firstly, an announcement that steel and engineering employers would on large new projects be able to train artisans outside the apprenticeship scheme, especially for selected applicants over 21 years of age. Drummond (BIFSA) pointed out that in theory the scheme would open up an avenue for Africans to be trained as artisans, but the lack of educational qualifications would exclude many. (Financial Mail, 1979,

p 57). The second was that BIFSA announced that it would start re-training programmes for building artisans. As reasons for re-training were given: poor training in the past; limited training facilities and changes in building techniques.

(Editorial, Die Burger, 1979 p 1)

The Minister of Labour, on introducing the Industrial Conciliation Amendment Bill in Parliament in June 1979, was attacked by an Opposition spokesman who claimed that it had fallen far short on implementing the main recommendations of the Wiehahn and Riekert Reports. Dr Zac de Beer, opposition spokesman on Labour accused the Government's training legislation of remaining tied to apartheid by an umbilical cord. The Minister replied that labour could only be accommodated on a differentiated basis in South Africa as he had given the assurance to white trade unions that they would be consulted on changes and their co-operation sought on the phasing out of job reservation. Thus, although the NMC was to be introduced - which was a step forward, changes in life for all races would be slow. (Battersby, 1979, p 14). The Master Builders Association asked for a formal national appeal to the Government for immediate permission to train black apprentices or resume recruitment of foreigners at high costs. Hannig reported that ESCOM would have to train South Africans of all races to obtain skilled manpower to carry out extensions. (Hannig, 1979, p 6). Training of farmer workers at Boskop in-service-training centre was well under way meeting a need for the proficiency training of the workers - feedback from trainees and employers on this scheme was very positive. However only 15 000 of a possible 250 000 black tractor drivers had so far received training. (Deacon, 1979, p 36). The pressure on the Government for a positive initiative to relax restrictions on the training of Blacks further was mounting from the private sector and the fact that black people were frustrated as they wanted to train to get good jobs. Lemmer, principal of Chamdor Centre pointed out that the black trainees were so concerned about doing well, to compete in the labour market, that the average achieved lay between 60 to 75 per cent. (Agricultural reporter, 1979, p 2). Private firms were also spending more time on pre-vocational training, thus the Barlow Rand Group in November 1979 appointed staff to undertake literacy training for all classes of workers. (Post, 1979, p 19).

During 1979 the Urban Foundation, active in the development of black housing and education, amongst other things, commissioned the Research Unit for Education System Planning (RUEP) of the University of the Orange Free State to investigate the necessity for a multi-purpose centre to promote non-formal education, in-service training of teachers and cultural activities in Soweto. The RUEP undertook this and did a needs analysis and statistical analysis and recommended what infrastructure, and facilities would be needed but however, stressed that the planning of the 'adult education centre', should be in complete harmony with the existing formal and non-formal educational programme - an exact needs survey should be done amongst the inhabitants and the planning should be done in close co-operation with the Councils of Soweto, Diepmeadow and Dobsonville. (RUEP, 1979, p 5) This centre planning was in accordance with the essential criteria for successful nfe as it would involve the community for which it was planned in all respects.

A further important development in nfe was that large firms began to state their policy on manpower training for their company, exploiting the leeway provided by Government. Thus Sasol stated that they '....believe that every man in employment should get the opportunity to develop to the maximum of his ability regardless of race or colour! (Financial Mail, 1979, p 61). Two hundred Blacks, with Standard 10 education were already in training as operators for Sasol 2, at the time.

A real initiative in nfe with supporting infrastructure came from Dr A Rupert when he addressed a Post Graduate Business School at Stellenbosch in 1979. He said that millions of people could be given employment in mass production in the informal business sector (back yard operators). He said it was common practice elsewhere that 'home workers' collected half finished products from factories and completed them. Small undertakings could provide up to 60 per cent of the job opportunities in a country, (60% in the Netherlands) (Die Burger, 1979, p 13).

The In-Service Training Board met for the first time in December 1979 to determine which training schemes would qualify for the tax concessions for the training of all race groups and trade unions and employers' organisations were hopeful that this new ruling would stimulate economic growth (Labour Reporter - The Citizen, 1979, p 5). The South African Government was thus encouraging training through tax concessions. On 9

December 1979, the newspaper POST in an editorial, A glimmer of light on a very dark horizon, welcomed the Government's concessions to train more workers of all races. They predicted an upsurge in training of workers, which would allow for greatly accelerated black advancement. The mining industry, which according to Payne employed 400 000 workers, most of whom had little or no formal education, was one of the largest employing agencies. This industry provided training programmes aimed at improving performance and overall productivity. By 1979, 6000 black artisans aides had already been trained.

(Payne, 1979, p -)

Van Noordwyk in an address early in 1980 on Industrial Training in the 1980s, pointed out that the low formal education standards of the workforce was a very restricting factor in industrial training. In 1970 39% of Blacks had no educational qualification while 82% had less than standard six. (Van Noordwyk, 1980, p 13). He also said that South Africa spent considerably less than most other countries on training; that the National Productivity Institute had also found that the industrial training effort in South Africa lacked co-ordination and drive and that the reason therefore was probably that policy matters were scattered among a number of Government Departments instead of being under the control of one body. He announced that in future all training would be the responsibility of the Minister of Manpower. He reiterated the Government's policy on training, that employers themselves should train their own workers and that the Government would assist through the technikons, technical colleges and departmental training centres; as well as tax concessions. Harsh criticisms on the quality of black education, was expressed by J M Francois in 1980 as ,according to him, in the final analysis the success or failure of any education system had to be evaluated on the accomplishments or lack thereof, of its post education product. Judged by this criterion black education was a failure, if not a disaster, for as one reviewed its potential economic repercussions in the light of predicted skilled labour shortage and the unemployability of millions of unskilled Blacks it could well be a disaster. As a long term solution he proposed career education in formal schools. In the short term he proposed a study of performance deficiencies among black workers and job seekers, particularly when selecting candidates for skilled, technical or professional positions and vigorous action to upgrade

various proficiencies. (Francois, 1980, p 2 - 10). Krige supported this view by saying that provided industry and commerce could identify their specific training needs and develop proper training courses to meet those needs, many tangible benefits were evident, such as reduced learning time to reach acceptable performance standards, improved performance on the job, positive attitude formation and filling manpower needs. (Krige, 1980 p 2 - 3). Vermaak pointed out that mobile workers, i.e. workers with enough knowledge and skills so as to change from one job to another, after taking a nfe course on the new work, were important for example during unemployed times when they could change jobs.

(Vermaak, 1980, p 11)

Specific Government drives to promote manpower development in 1980 include a White Paper on the NMC's report on High-level Manpower (HLM) and the launching of the Manpower 2000 campaign.

The Manpower 2000 campaign was aimed at the whole country to provide information about the manpower problems and to persuade people to act to eliminate the problems. The main aims were seen as:

- to rationalize career guidance and training;
- to improve and stimulate productivity, retraining and in-service training;
- to create more job opportunities and ease the unemployment problem;
- to improve industrial relations;
- to develop trust in the future of the country.

This project was aimed at everyone, not only the state or employers, but schools, educators etc. The project was launched in Johannesburg at the Carlton Hotel. About 360 prominent business, educational, industrial and Government leaders attended. A comprehensive careers guide was planned. It would describe a wide range of professional, technical, administrative and artisan careers. Prof D Vermaak as Chairman of Manpower 2000's Committee for Manpower Development, indicated that a thematic approach could be used in schools. Le Riche, said that the private sector should do more, for example industrial companies serving agriculture

should assist and establish a score of training facilities for say tractor drivers. The Minister of Manpower Utilization, when the project was launched, said that one of the solutions to the manpower problem lay in correct guidance of children, to make them aware of job opportunities and appropriate training. (Manpower 2000 Bulletin, 1980, p 1 - 4). This attempt is an example of the Government's intervention in the school to work transition, at the level of communication, i.e. getting information to schools and making pupils aware of what goes on in commerce and industry of the process intensive model type. Although the effort was aimed at the youth provision for adults for retraining and training would be made. Three hundred special centres for training Blacks would be established. Teams of experts to undertake public speeches and the media would be used. (National Committee for Manpower 2000, 1980, p 1 - 8). The National Development and Management Foundation (NDMF), which after 1980 carried on with the Manpower 2000 effort, arranged various seminars on such topics as 'Registration of training schemes - What is required?', to inform employers (trainers) on how to register a scheme, use a public in-service centre etc. (NDMF, 1980, p 2). Initiatives of this kind seem more successful in the United Kingdom, partly due to the fact that a permanent staff unit, central and regional operate the schemes.

The White Paper on High-Level Manpower, following on the NMC's report was an attempt by the Government to tackle this shortage problem which occurred every time there was an upturn in the economy. In this paper the Government endorsed the message that '...South Africa will not be able to realise its development potential and offer all its people an acceptable standard of living if the country persists in trying to recruit its HLM mainly from the White population group;...'all population groups, ... should have full and equal opportunities to participate in the development processes to the full extent of their abilities and insight and to benefit accordingly.' (Minister of Manpower Utilisation, 1980, p 4). Manpower planning at national regional and enterprise level should be promoted. The guidelines given by the NMC in this respect are significant and stressed the formulation of alternative programmes of action for education, training and re-training of different groups of intervals. Universities and technikons were

asked to play a greater role in the process of continuous training of HLM.

(Minister of Manpower Utilisation, 1980, p 5 - 7)

The National Manpower Commission requested the National Productivity Institute to undertake a national Survey of In-Service training. The survey would be important as the '...future discussions on the question of training and development between Government, Industry, Commerce, and Employee organisations, and the subsequent course of developments in this area, will be based on this research and its interpretation.' (National Productivity Institute, 1980, p 1). The survey covered artisans, skilled occupations and semi-skilled and highly skilled. The findings of this investigation will be referred to later.

The response of commerce and industry in 1980 is again important to see how the Government's role was affecting it. The development of local government in the black areas required training for personnel to make community councils work. The development of these councils was of great importance as they would initiate further community development. (The Star, 1980, p 5). Cain, reported that a veteran training manager, Berry, had complained about the amount of immigrants coming in, which would stifle black advancement and the amount of red tape required to get a scheme approved by the authorities - because of grey areas in Government norms for approval of schemes and employers were unsure of whether they would qualify for a tax rebate on the funds expended on training. (Cain, 1980, p 1).

The State President, Viljoen, in opening parliament in February 1980, indicated that education for Blacks was in need of better facilities. Especially at secondary school level, where the growth rate had been 83 per cent the previous year, urgent improvement of teacher qualifications was needed. He pointed out further that in-service training was making an important contribution towards supplying skilled manpower for commerce and industry. More than 280 000 black workers had received training in approximately 1700 approved courses at in-service training schemes. (Parliamentary correspondent - Daily News, 1980, p 2). A fairly general situation was being experienced by employers who were battling against the lack of interest by workers to take up training for supervisory positions, as Whites according to Clarkson (of Haggie Rand Limited) '...did not believe the change was necessary and Blacks did not believe

it was coming.' (Editorial in 'To the Point', 1980 p 22). He had also found that Africa's Blacks had little need for self-achievement and did not exercise discipline easily. Ron Miller (MP) made an appeal for literacy training, sponsored by Government, as pre-vocational training, as according to him the low attendance at public in-service training centres, was due to the fact that industrialists could not send those who did not have sufficient formal education to training centres. (Parliamentary correspondent - Daily News, 1980, p 11). Stocks warned again in April 1980 that red tape was killing the Government's efforts to launch vital manpower-training schemes. In six months only six out of 95 schemes had won final approval. He said further that many in the private sector said that the training allowances were nearly useless. Some of them objected to the requirements that to qualify rebates only applied to formalised training schemes not 'on-the-job' schemes which accounted for most training in for example large departmental stores. Ward of the University of the Witwatersrand Business School was reported as saying that it was extremely difficult to get an in-service scheme registered as it often involved two or even three Government Departments and approval from one did not necessarily imply approval from all. If, for example, a training programme was multi-racial, approval was needed from both the Departments of National Education and Manpower Utilisation. According to Ward a company had to go through four phases to get a scheme approved:

- Decide which department or departments had to be approached.
- Comply with a rigid form of application and supply a vast amount of documentation and invite inspection by one of the four inspectors who were required to cover the whole country.
- If approval was obtained, the registration certificate with a lot of detail had to be submitted to Inland Revenue and a tax-rebate schedule then had to be negotiated.
- A massive, according to Ward, administration infrastructure then had to be created to manage the whole scheme, in case an inspector called.

(Sunday Times, 1980, p 4)

The discontentment with the cumbersome Government schemes was widely voiced, in particular the involvement with more than one department to approve a scheme and the central control of approval. Trade unions were

making more demands for training. Thus the Furniture, Bedding and Allied Workers Union indicated that it would make representations for more on-the-job training for Blacks to prepare them for more senior positions. He urged the Government to channel more money into training Blacks, as 'job reservation' had been scrapped. (Lolwane and Mtimkulu, 1980, p 2). The electrification project in Soweto would result in 8 000 people in on-the-job training. (Lolwane, 1980, p 3). This type of training which is often lost when a scheme is completed, will be returned to later. Pressure on the Government to streamline procedures led to the take over on 1 June 1980 of the training, according to the In-service Training Act of 1979. In September of 1980 the Government announced that tax concessions for the training of apprentices would apply from October 1980. Mobile training units were being utilised more and more by large companies to deal with training for small operations. Thus Mercedes Benz which depended, as all car manufacturers do, on service facilities expanded their mobile units, with fully trained instructors to visit all their outlets. (The Citizen, 1980, p 3). The Government tried to ease the problem of unavailability of theoretical training facilities for Blacks by allowing tax concessions for the cost of theoretical training obtained through correspondence courses. The Minister of Manpower Utilisation announced in September that job reservations, with the exception of two, would all be cancelled. Of the 28 originally protected only two remained - one in the Mines and one in the Cape Town Municipality. (Pretoria News, 1980, p 3). The Department of Manpower Utilisation came under fire as the take-over had been slow and cumbersome resulting in long delays for schemes to be approved. Van Noordwyk, Director of Manpower Utilisation, responded to criticism by indicating that the number of inspectors had been increased and that the backlog of applications would be dealt with soon. The tax concession issue for in-service training was coming under more pressure, proponents of a levy system, supported by the recommendation on levies in the Riekert Commission Report, were asking for a levy system to replace the tax concession system. Van Noordwyk said it would take some time to phase out the tax concession system.

In December 1980 three draft Bills were published, which would change the relationship between Government, nfe and the private sector. Two of these were of great relevance to this research. The Draft Manpower Training Bill provided for the consolidation of all existing acts dealing with training and a proposed National Training Board. The second Bill,

the Guidance and Employment Bill would aim at the establishment of guidance and placement of all population groups and control private employment offices.

(Breier, 1980, p 3)

The nfe in black areas had increased significantly as was reflected in the Department of Education and Training Annual Report for 1979. From 1971 to 1979 attendance at evening Schools and adult education centres had grown from 6350 in 1971 to 59216 in 1979. In industrial training the figures had grown from 448 in 1970 to 84377 in 1978. (Department of Education and Training, 1979, p 226). Non-governmental initiatives were growing as pointed out by Hunter in his lecture at the University of the Witwatersrand. He noted that there was a substantial increase in the facilities for vocational training within industry directed at greater productivity. A constellation of literacy (pre-vocational) teaching projects in many parts of the country and 'Centres of concern', were providing various types of skills training, mainly for domestic workers. (Hunter, 1978, p 25 - 27). The basic areas for accelerated development by nfe strategies were home-based, community based, school-based and work-based. These were the areas in which a strong need for accelerated development lay if proficiency nfe were to succeed.

Hartshorne acknowledged the positive signs in alternative educational strategy development. He saw as positive factors the programmes developed by the Urban Foundation, NDMF, statements by the Federated Chamber of Industries (FCI), the Association of Chambers of Commerce (ASSOCOMM) and the Trade Union Council of South Africa (TUCSA) on development programmes. He however saw '...the major 'recuperative action', in the next twenty-five years coming from commerce and industry, not basically for altruistic reasons, although these are often genuinely held, but because the free enterprise system cannot exist without a vast expansion of skills.' (Hartshorne, 1978 a, p 145) In 1980 the Department of National Education, responsible for white technical colleges and institutes responded to the initiatives of the Manpower 2000 campaign by indicating that it would provide technical education facilities where needed in industrial/commercial development areas, introduce courses for production workers (non-apprentice types), modify National Technical Certificate Syllabuses, implement the findings of the Goode Report, implement the Schmidt Report for the expansion of staff

structures in technical colleges and institutes and therefore rise to the need for training of Whites to improve the work force. (Education and Culture, 1980, p 6 - 7). This sector of educational provision in South Africa has the biggest potential for nfe development.

Researchers in Education for Blacks were voicing more and more their opinions that the formal education system was totally inadequate. Mdluli who did research in Kwazulu on the retention power and the problem of repetition in black schools, recommended that: 'In view of the high dropout rate in the primary cycle a programme of nfe should be considered. The content of such a programme should be adapted to the needs of the recipients, while taking account of the social and economic world in which the Zulu adult lives.' (Mdluli, 1980, p 216).

He emphasised that the right education for the particular learners at the particular place and time be given. Hodgson pointed out that for the technical training of Blacks research had to be undertaken in the area of training of manpower using little skilled labour for the training but rather employing media such as videotape etc. He said private training enterprise should be encouraged to prepare these training materials. (Hodgson, 1980, p 1 - 2).

Momberg, as early as 1976, had raised various questions on the training of black workers, which had to be researched to make training meaningful. Questions such as: Are black workers trainable?; What is their attitude towards training?; Is it necessary to use a different approach in their training? (Momberg, 1976, p 14). According to the research, as quoted by Momberg, it could not be said that the black worker, did not possess the ability to be trained. In many cases it was only the educational backlog that restrained them from being trained. This inadequacy could be overcome by making adjustments in their training and they would acquire the ability to perform certain kinds of work that were impossible in the past. (Momberg, 1976, p 14). Momberg had found from a survey of black trainees, in 1976, in 121 organisations which employed half a million workers of which 284 121 were Blacks, that:

- there was an increase of 15% amongst black workers over a five year period;

- black workers were mostly trained in an informal way (78%). The need for more systematic training was however increasing and firms which were spending more money on organised training, were showing better results;
- most of the time, money etc was spent in training skilled and clerical people; rather than lower levels of employment;
- certain aspects of systematic determination of training development needs were not considered by the majority of firms;
- only a small percentage of firms had clearly formulated objectives for the orientation, training and development of their black workers;
- black workers were trained mostly on the recommendation of their supervisors, some at own request or through testing;
- a large percentage of firms did not use resources such as schemes subsidised by Government training budgets, training facilities, full time instructors, private in-service training schemes, at all. The survey showed that the firms which obtained more favourable results with training, used these resources to a greater extent.
- A very large percentage of the firms used the different steps of the job type of instruction process; practical demonstration and job instruction were used most often;
- The necessary evaluation of training and follow-up of trainees on the job were not done to a sufficient extent;
- the training of Blacks generally provided satisfactory results.

(Momberg, 1976, p 40 - 44)

This research by Momberg explains to a degree the rigid format required by the Government in allowing tax concessions for training schemes - the purpose is to improve the quality of training.

O'Dowd noted that the private sector had in the past often undertaken its own training, particularly where public sector training facilities had not kept pace with changing requirements. This (in 1980) was currently the case in South Africa as public sector education and training facilities for Blacks had not kept pace with opportunities for the promotion and advancement of Blacks. Anglo American believed in sponsoring broad social development to create a favourable social climate to do business successfully. (O'Dowd, 1981, p 35). O'Dowd's Statement at the 1980: Work for the Future Conference in Durban was supported by Lee in his summary of the small group discussions when he said that the present formal education system was unanimously regarded as inadequate and it was argued that it was responsible for the low trainability of people in employment. Too little attention was paid to teaching the skills and in developing the attitudes school leavers require in the work place. Delegates at this conference argued that the private sector exhibited a much greater willingness to accept responsibility for training than for education proper. Much dissatisfaction was expressed with the apprenticeship system. (Lee, 1981, p 54 - 55).

As the year 1980 was drawing to a close the important draft bills referred to earlier, were released and some statistics on the performance of the Department of Manpower Utilisation and statistics collated by the RUEP were published. In the first the training performance in numbers through Government schemes or aided by Government was given. In private training centres 8879 Blacks were trained; on in-service training schemes, the 2299 courses accommodated, 86924 Blacks; 63 250 White, Coloured and Asian employees were trained on 1098 training schemes. (Department of Manpower Utilisation, 1981, p 18 - 20). The second Report by the RUEP was published to give employers an indication of the present (1980) potential black manpower in schools and the estimated flow of black manpower from the schools. The information reflected was also of use in the sense of establishing closer links between the producer of black manpower i.e. the educational institutions and the employers. The dilemma facing nfe providers for Blacks can be seen clearly from the statistics below which indicate the outflow of pupils at different levels of education (schooling):

<u>Level</u>	<u>Outflow of Blacks total South Africa 1980</u>
Illiterate	125 287
Semi-literate	180 676
Literate	133 991
Junior secondary	105 729
Senior secondary	39 516
Teachers	6 010
Other	1 350

(RUEP, 1981, p 9)

The need for nfe is clear, the clientele diverse in educational standard and the employment potential dependent on Government and private sector initiative.

The Manpower Training Bill, published for general information and comment on 19 December 1980, was the first legislation on nfe in South Africa to provide for training of all races in South Africa in the same Act. This Bill was to provide for the training of manpower and for that purpose to provide for the establishment of a national training board; to provide for the recognition of skilled persons as artisans; to provide for the establishment and registration of group training centres; to provide for the imposition of levies for training purposes; to provide for the registration of contracts of apprenticeship, private training centres and training schemes; and to provide for incidental matters.

(Department of Manpower Utilisation, 1980, p 1)

6.5 THE MANPOWER TRAINING ACT OF 1981

The year 1981 was marked by a tremendous interest in education, both formal and non-formal. On the formal side education received attention from researchers, educationists, private bodies and individuals. The HSRC Investigation into Education Report was published in July 1981 and the Government's response in October 1981. The Manpower Training Act was promulgated in September 1981. Various individuals and groups also reported on overseas visits regarding technical and vocational education and systems of education. In this paragraph the events in 1981 relevant to nfe will be traced in the hope of further establishing the

relationship between the private sector and the system of education. Of most importance probably is the disappearance of discriminatory legislation from Government regulations of nfe, but the retention of separateness in formal education for different race groups.

In January 1981 Smit reported that there was a dire shortage of technical and scientific manpower in the RSA. South Africa's performance in production of technicians was 21 per million employees whereas Taiwan had a record of 876 technicians produced per million people. (Smit, 1981, p 9). Bell, senior general manager of ARMSCOR, indicated that South Africa's problem with a lack of technically qualified personnel stemmed from its traditional values of the importance attached to humanities education, such as teachers, ministers etc. People educated in this field held positions of power and not those trained in technical or scientific fields. (Bell, 1981, p 14). The attendance at Government, public technical centres was improving as was reported in the 'The Friend' of 26 January 1981. It was stated that 1200 pupils a week were attending the Bloemfontein Technical Centre. In February 1981 the Convenor for the Manpower 2000 effort in Natal, Taylor, said that the system for apprenticeship training needed a major shake-up. According to him the National Apprenticeship Board had adopted too rigid a policy to ensure uniformity of training and the Olifantsfontein trade tests were alleged to be unsatisfactory and in need of updating. New concepts of training, (modular systems for example), had been stifled and resistance to change had been too strong. Technological changes had rendered many apprenticeship syllabi obsolete. (Financial Editor - Natal Mercury, 1981, p 11).

While the investigation into education under the chairmanship of Professor De Lange was underway, some academics such as Prof W L Rautenbach, called for a total revision of the education system in South Africa. According to him the '...solution lay in redesigning the educational system to give vocational and technical training to as many as three quarters of school children in standards eight to ten ...' (Forrest, 1981, p 8). According to Pincus of 'Beeld' the Government had started to change the education system in Soweto to align it more with the needs of industry the business world and science. In-service training of black teachers and selection of only matriculants in Soweto for teacher training was seen as progress towards improvement of education for Blacks.

(Pincus, 1981, p 21)

In April 1981 the Minister of Manpower Utilisation, indicated that legislation, which would combine the training acts and a Government fund from which firms could borrow money for training, would be launched later in the year. He also re-affirmed the Government's view that in a free-market system, the private sector, not the Government was responsible for training. (Volkshandel, 1981, p 59). Barker, assistant-director of the NMC, indicated in April 1981 that a levy system and a body to control it was under investigation (Oggendblad, 1981, p 3).

Before dealing with the De Lange Report on Education some important developments which indicate the concern of the private sector regarding aspects of nfe will be looked at:

- The Afrikaanse Handelsinstituut (AHI) proposed policy on Manpower training

In April 1981 the AHI published their views on manpower training. The claim was made by their Manpower Advisory Committee that in technical training there was a lack of development of supervisory skills and an overemphasis on manual skills. The trade test only evaluated about 10% of what a tradesman in the mining industry did. The system of training of apprentices was totally dated (Volkshandel, 1981, p 17). The AHI proposed a new approach to training of artisans and grades of other workers. The new approach would have as its aim the replacement of the dated apprenticeship system, with a new system suitable to the S A economy. Secondly the approach would strive to improve the knowledge, attitudes and skills of workers to improve productivity and job satisfaction and include supervisory training skills. It would also aim to improve the tradesmanship of artisans; to optimize manpower utilisation regardless of colour or race; to provide each worker with a better chance to progress on merit and to reduce the shortage of manpower as soon as possible. The basic principles to be used would be:

an employment structure which provides for workers along a continuum from untrained to highly specialized;

a modular training system through which workers are trained to be promoted into the employment hierarchy;

an artisan's work could be divided into management skills and manual skills - the latter to be limited to only that which lower level manpower could not do;

the supervisor's role must be stressed;

unnecessary specialization must be avoided;

the criterion for promotion must be based solely on competence;

a worker's competence must be used optimally;

effective training technology must be used;

the national training effort must centre around universal skills;

the responsibility for control should rest with the State, selected employers and employer organisations;

the cost for training should be shared;

(Volkshandel, 1981, p 17)

A modular system was proposed as indicated in the table 6.1, page 217, which identifies the module, the post level, the admission requirements, the training and the responsibility. This model which was proposed in 1981 was very similar to the one proposed in the Government Investigation into the Training of Artisans in 1984.

- The Rautenbach model for vocational and technical education in South Africa

After visits to Israel and Taiwan and a careful analysis of their systems of education, Prof Rautenbach analysed the problems and factors affecting vocational and technical education in South Africa. He found that the educational system in the RSA was producing too few and wrongly qualified vocationally directed

DESCRIPTION OF THE UTILIZATION AND TRAINING MODEL

The training model is set out in table form to facilitate description and comprehension

Module No.	Proposed post		Approximate post level (Paterson)	Entrance requirements		Training		Responsibility for training	
1	Technical worker GR I		A3	Must be able to read and write		Practical in-service training/workshop		Employer	
2	Technical worker GR II		B1	Std 6 and pass module 1		Practical and theoretical training (standardised)		Employer/Industrial organization	
3	Technical worker GR III		B3	Std 8 and pass module 2		Practical and theoretical training (standardised)		Employer/Industrial organization	
4	Technical worker GR IV		B5	N1 and pass module 3		Prescribed national curriculum for trade (Universal skills)		Employer/Industrial organization Government trade test	
5	Technical worker GR V		B6	N1 and pass module 4		Prescribed national curriculum for trade (universal skills)		Employer/Industrial organization Government trade test	
6	Artisan		C1	N2 and trade test. May also achieve artisan status by way of traditional apprenticeship.		Approved industrial training programmes. Training in one or two additional trades		Specialist training in a trade/subtrade Employer/Industrial organization Controlled by industrial organization.	
7	Multi-trade Multi-trade Artisan GR1	Specialist Specialist Artisan GR1	C2	Pass module 6	N3 and pass module 6	Further training in one or two additional trades plus supervisor training	Specialist training Training on specific equipment	Employer	
8	Multi-trade Artisan	Specialist Artisan	C3	Pass module 7	T1 and pass module 7	Managerial training	Prescribed national diploma for technicians	Employer	State
9	Foreman	Technician	C4	Pass module 8	NDT and pass module 8	Theoretical training usually by correspondence		Government testing and certification. Individuals are responsible for own training by means of training colleges.	
10	Engineer (certificate of competence)		D1	Government Certificate of Competence and pass module 9. May also be appointed on academic qualifications.					

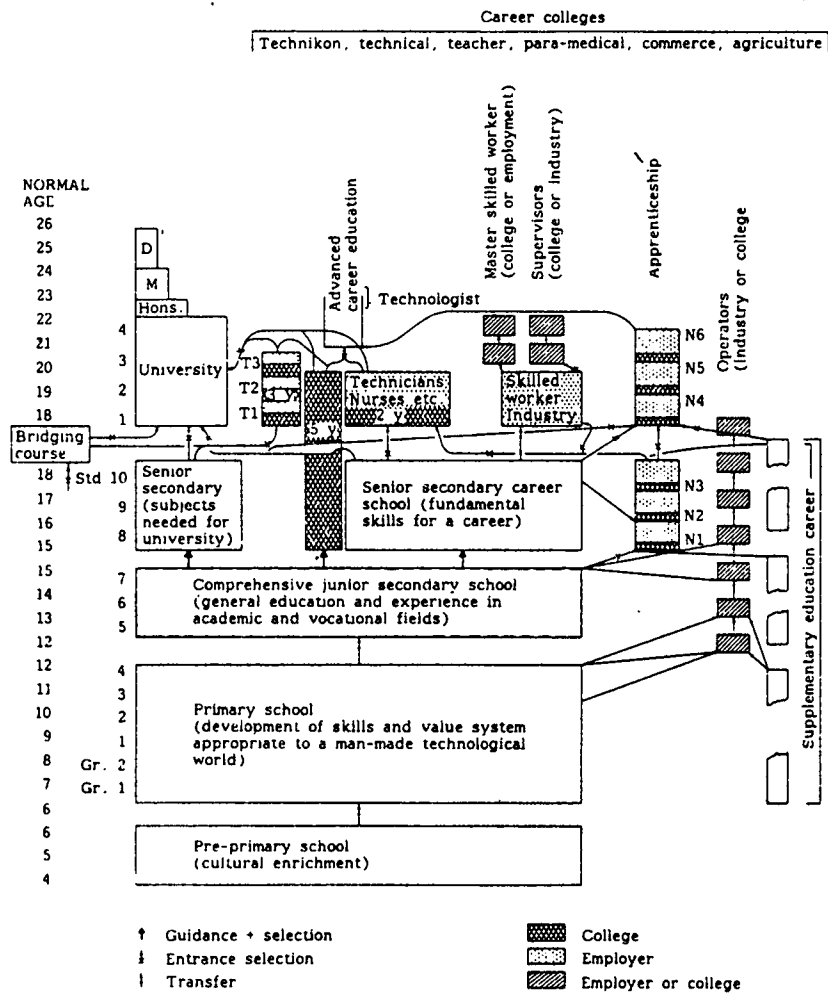
TABLE 6.1

school leavers. The present (1981) academically oriented systems of education in South Africa (all race groups), despite their rapid growth, were not designed for the needs of a developing country. (Rautenbach, 1981, p 14). According to him a basic problem facing developing countries was the modernisation of culture. Developing countries were the latecomers in the fields of industrialisation, technology and science. He stated further that a balanced system of education in a developing country should take into account the needs of cultural modernisation at all levels of the educational system. He put forward a self explanatory model for an education system which would channel the majority of the pupils, (50 to 80%), over a 15 year period, into some form of career directed education. This model is an example of a requirements intensive approach to the development of an educational system. The problems associated with such a system would be a radical break with the traditional approach, resistance to change to lower status education, the problems associated with the early selection from parents and pupils, bridging the gap from schooling to training especially at the age of 12, re-entry into the system, transfer from one type of institution to the next and a host of others. A system like this could work in a homogenous type of society, which holds similar views and morals, but is unlikely to succeed on a large scale in South Africa which is, culturally, politically, racially and religiously divided.

Interesting features of the Rautenbach model are:

- it is an open system with a number of exit and entry points;
- it provides for supplementary career education for the early school leaver;
- strong emphasis is placed on the development of skills and a value system appropriate to a man-made technological world;
- various bridging possibilities appear at pre-career entry level.

DESIGN OF A POSSIBLE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION FOR SOUTH AFRICA



(Reproduced from Rautenbach, 1981, p 22)

Training of trainers

In June 1981 the National Institute for Personnel Research published its report on the Training of Trainers. This had been requested by the Permanent Committee for Productivity of the N.M.C.

According to training legislation, the training of a trainer at an approved course could be tax deductible. The NIPR therefore undertook a survey of all courses and institutions involved in the training of trainers, with the exception of courses run by the

private sector as in-house courses. It reported that the majority of courses, with the exception of one or two, were short (less than seven days). The NIPR itself had researched and designed a course for trainers. The NIPR recommended that training staff should be encouraged to improve their own professionalism and that they should aim at developing minimum standards for training. (NIPR, 1981, p 1 - 6).

This issue received a lot of attention in the next few years and the trainers worked towards improvement in the professionalism. The numbers of trainers, training managers etc needed were high.

- The Manpower Foundation

Towards the end of the effort on the Manpower 2000 campaign, it was felt that a permanent body should continue with the sort of activities undertaken during the campaign and the Manpower Foundation was formed. It would be a small, but useful aid and umbrella body to co-ordinate manpower development in the private sector. (Manpower 2000, 1981, p 1).

6.5.1 The Human Sciences Research Council Report on the Investigation into Education

This Report and the Government's reaction to it in the form of a Whitepaper, are of importance to the relationship of nfe, formal education and the private sector, as it contained principles and a model which could, if implemented, change the transition from school to work.

In July 1981 when this report was handed to the Government, it was predicted that a structured nfe system could be one of the recommendations: '....to compensate for the inherited inequalities of the present system and to encourage a strong social and economic growth.' (Daily News, 1981, p 16).

Amongst the principles for the provision of education in the RSA as contained in the Main Committee Report, two important principles were included:

'Education shall endeavour to achieve a positive relationship between formal, non-formal and informal aspects of education in the school, society and family', and

'The private sector and the state shall have a shared responsibility for the provision of non-formal education.'
(HSRC Main Committee Report, 1981, p 15).

The report indicated that the neglect of career education in the education system was a direct cause of the serious shortage of manpower. (HSRC Main Committee Report, 1981, p 30). It noted the need for training of nfe teachers. It stated that nfe must become an indispensable part of the planned provision of education in the RSA if the overall demand for education was to be satisfied to any reasonable extent (page 96). It listed as shortcomings of the present educational structure of formal education, amongst others, the limited ties with non-formal education and the limited outlets to the differentiated vocational world. The Committee recommended that bridging modules should be built into the provision of education in order to assist entry into the occupational world and non-formal education at lower levels and also to support and promote course changes and re-entry into formal or non-formal education at higher levels (page 99). The possibility of compulsory education and compulsory school attendance, which will be referred to later, was suggested. A more open education system which allows vertical but also horizontal flow, was suggested (page 104). More points of withdrawal from formal education were proposed, with a rounding-off module to link the educational level already achieved by the learner, to appropriate occupational possibilities and/or vocational training possibilities within non-formal education and vice versa (page 114). Outlets would occur after Standard 4 (formal education), Standard 7 and Standard 10 of the current levels. Appropriate nfe modules would be provided for each level. On technical and vocational education the Report recommended that there should be a balance between general formative preparatory academic education and general formative preparatory career education, which relates better to the manpower needs of the country. Secondly that by means of appropriate curriculum design the mathematical, natural science and technical

development of the learner should be made possible, from as early an age as possible (page 139). Furthermore

'that during the junior intermediate phase the learner should be introduced to a wide spectrum of possibilities, including the more career-oriented study directions, and receive effective guidance before he decides on a field of study for the senior secondary phase or moves towards the occupational world and non-formal education.

That the preparatory career fields of study, backed by thorough curriculum development, should take their rightful place in the senior intermediate phase.

That in a 'school district', created for this purpose, learners should have available to them the most complete spectrum of preparatory career fields of study possible, from which to make a choice.

That the non-formal provision of education should be placed on such a basis that career training of direct relevance will be available to learners moving out of the formal system and for adult learners.

That the instability of non-formal education should be reduced so that training can continue during cyclical conditions of economic recession and not only get into gear (usually late) when the economy has already progressed well into the 'boom' phase of the economic cycle.

That the proposed South African Council for Education should give immediate attention to the report of the Work Committee : Technical and vocational education (12T).

That the South African Council for Education should create a specialist committee for this purpose.

That seeing that the development of this sector of education is dependent on qualified teachers, ways should be found of satisfying this need, including allowing technikons once again to train teachers.

That in view of the vested resistance against this kind of education in the RSA, a well-planned publicity and guidance programme be embarked on to place it in the right perspective'.

(HSRC Main Committee Report, 1981, p 141)

Two of the work committees, the Committee for Education System Planning and the one for Technical and Vocational Education provided detailed descriptions of an educational model which would allow a flow of pupils in an open ended way between formal and non-formal education and the committee on technical education also indicated how the technical and vocational balance could be brought into the current academic type of system.

The Main Committee Report acknowledged the importance of nfe in a developing country such as the RSA in which compulsory education had not yet been instituted for all population groups and in which the dropout rate was as serious as was evident in the RSA. Consequently there is a special demand for nfe of all types at different levels:

First level: literacy programmes;

general primary education for adults (compensatory education;

basic adult education (life and occupational skills, including community education and development.

Second level: general secondary education for adults (Compensatory education at junior secondary and senior secondary school level;

occupational programmes at semi-skilled and skilled levels.

Third level: advanced occupational programmes;
continuing professional training;
part-time courses at university degree - level;
public non-formal cultural education programmes at
advanced level.

(HSRC Main Committee Report, 1981, p 24 - 5).

This Report received a great amount of interest in the press and expectations ran high. The Government responded in October 1981 and this response will be dealt with later.

A major criticism of this Report was that although a reference was made to the role of nfe it was not properly researched. As a new education system was being proposed, which falls within the incorporating type of classification of linkage (relationship), nfe should have been included in the research project. Subsequent research was undertaken by the Urban Foundation which linked with the HSRC Committee for nfe, but it is still incomplete and some research was undertaken by Prof Van der Stoep which was completed in 1983 and will be referred to later.

6.5.2 Syncom report : Towards viable systems for education and training for Southern Africa

At the same time as the HSRC Investigation into Education, a private firm was requested to research education in the RSA and make recommendations. The objective of this exercise was presumably to get a 'neutral' or outsider professional view.

This Report was to be seen as a second opinion to the HSRC Main Report. This Report found that education could neither exclusively serve economic purposes, nor should it be divorced from the realities of the future society; a sensible mix of national and individual needs should serve on a design basis. The private sector (learner/student - parents - business - institutions) was making insufficient contribution to the total art of education. Present Black demands for education were economically unrealistic. The cost of new industrial job creation would be so high as to enforce the creation of more than 50% of new jobs in the informal sector through self-employment. Key recommendations included:

- '1 The Government's financial role in Education should concentrate on two areas:
 - Equal amounts for each child for pre-primary - primary and junior secondary education (Foundation Course) and continued education (partly);
 - Investment in the peripheral inputs: job creation - infrastructure - food and social opportunities.

- 2 Further Education beyond the Foundation Course should be a joint responsibility of learners and the private sector, with tax concession support in areas of particular national concern.

- 3 Continuing Education and Remedial Education/Training of the present Black Labour Force is a top priority, since this resource CAN make an immediate impact on economic growth and performance.

- 4 Community Learning Centres should in the medium term replace the present school system.'

(Spier, 1981, p x to xii)

On the relationship between education and training the overriding principles, according to Spier, seemed to be to do nothing under the umbrella of formal education that can be done better, cheaper and quicker with an incompany or industry based training scheme (Spier, 1981, p 56). An important point raised in this Report is the one dealing with the current black adult situation. It was stated that if there were drastic improvements in the present schooling system, it would have a marked effect on the economy (availability of educated manpower) from 1986 onwards. A concerted crash education/training programme for the black adult worker would be felt sooner. Secondly the present (1981) workforce still had reasonably conciliatory attitudes, which would become more radicalised as youths entered the workforce. This could, with union support, destabilise production. The establishment of a large scale adult and continued education system would not only

benefit the group of uneducated Blacks, but also the coming generations (Spier, 1981, p 85). The Report recommended that the State's responsibility should be concentrated on two sectors:

- '1 Those areas which improve the ability of the individual to fend for himself: Basic Education, Job Creation, removal of all unnecessary and discriminatory legislation, labour relations and productivity improvement;

- 2 Those areas whose improvement feeds positively into a health situation: population management, food, safe water, housing and infrastructure (amenities), information technology.'

(Spier, 1981, p 102 - 3)

6.5.3 The Manpower Training Act of 1981 (Act No 56)

In August 1981 the Department of Manpower Utilisation became the Department of Manpower. The proposed new Training Act was being launched through Parliament and was commented on by politicians, employers, unions and others. According to Miller (MP), the greatest obstacle in the way of the positive vision contained in the Manpower Training Bill was the low literacy rate that would thwart its objectives and the Department of Education and Training could not be relied upon to solve the problem of low literacy amongst Blacks. He urged the Minister of Manpower to provide incentives to industry to provide in-house literacy training. (Daily News, 1981). The official opposition supported the second reading of the Bill, pointing out the sad neglect to afford opportunities for training to the majority of its work force - not too long ago, it was claimed by Dr Boraine, that blacks were regarded as 'replaceable units of labour'. Dr Boraine also advocated that control of all technical training, including technical colleges and technikons, should be removed from the Department of National Education and put under the Department of Manpower (Parliamentary correspondent - Daily News, 1981). In the NMC's Annual Report of 1981 the new Act on Training was seen as:

'It is a comprehensive measure that provides for the training of all population groups on a non-discriminatory basis; all occupational groups are involved; it places the responsibility for training squarely on the shoulders of the private sector (employer and employees) with the State playing merely a supplementary role'.

(NMC, 1981, p xix)

The manpower development and therefore the nfe, private sector relationship reached a milestone when parliament passed the Manpower Training Act, 1981.

(Manpower Training Act, 1981, p 1 -)

The Act provides for the effective training of the country's total workforce, irrespective of sex or population group.

In accordance with the Government's policy of maximum consultation and deliberation, the draft bill was published for general information and comment. The constructive comment which was received proves the ready co-operation between the state and the private sector in the Republic.

Four previous training acts which had been administered by the Department of Manpower - the Apprenticeship Act, 1944, the Training of Artisans Act, 1951, the Black Employees' In-Service Training Act, 1976, and the In-Service Training Act, 1979 - have been consolidated into the Manpower Training Act, 1981. The most important aspect of the Act is that it affirms the tripartite involvement of employers, employees and the state in the training task.

In accordance with free enterprise principles, the responsibility for training rests mainly with the private sector, which enjoys the greatest degree of freedom to tailor its training actions to best meet its own needs and circumstances.

The state's role in the training field is threefold:

- The establishment of a legal framework for promoting order, co-ordination and the maintenance of standards.

- Supporting and encouraging the private sector's training effort, among others through financial assistance in several forms.
- The establishment of state institutions for training of workers to complement the private sector's training efforts.

An important step for which provision is made in the Act, is the establishment of the National Training Board as an advisory body in respect of the application of the Act and the formulation of policy regarding training on a broad labour front.

Representatives of employers, employees and the state, as well as people with expert or special knowledge of manpower training and development serve on the Board. Having replaced the National Apprenticeship Board, the Co-ordinating Council for In-Service Training of Black Employees and the Council for In-Service Training, the Board plays an essential role in the co-ordination of all forms of manpower training. (In this series of information pamphlets full details of the Board appear in pamphlet no 1).

The main manpower matters further provided for in the Act are:

- Apprentice training. This comprises the designation of trades and the prescription of training and other conditions for apprenticeship.
- Trainee training. The Act provides for the training of adult trainees in trades and other occupations in terms of special schemes if it is deemed to be in the public interest.

In consultation with the National Training Board, arrangements may also be made for training minor trainees who have completed their first period of service in terms of the Defence Act or the Police Act.

- In-service training centres and schemes. Employers whose employees are trained at registered training centres or

schemes, qualify for attractive tax concessions. To employers this means a deduction of at least 200% of their training expenses from their taxable income. Employers in certain industrial areas may claim a tax-free cash allowance instead of a tax concession.

The registration of training centres and schemes is not compulsory, except in cases where private training centres, with the exception of centres of educational institutions, industrial councils and registered trade unions, employers' organisations and federations, offer training in labour relations.

- Labour relations training. Owing to the great demand for meaningful training in labour relations, registered trade unions, employers' organisations and federations are accommodated through qualifying for grants-in-aid.
- Training of workseekers. With a view to easing the manpower shortage and facilitating the placement of unemployed persons who want to work, the Act provides for the training of workseekers who comply with certain requirements (e.g. as regards age and educational level) in terms of training schemes up to a level where they can be placed in service and may be eligible for more advanced training.
- The Manpower Development Fund. Through loans the fund can finance training centres and schemes recognised in terms of the Act, in respect of capital expenditure. It obtains its funds from interest on such loans, donations by the private sector and from other sources, and from amounts voted by Parliament.

By its nature this financing system implies considerable advantages for industries and employers who want to train their employees but who do not have the means to do so.

- Training levies. The Act empowers the Minister of Manpower to impose a levy on employers in general or in any category,

in consultation with the National Training Board, for the purpose of achieving the Act's objectives or to finance training schemes for which the Act does not specifically provide.

The National Training Board was to be implemented. The broad purpose of the National Training Board is to advise the Minister of Manpower on the optimal development of the knowledge, skills and talents of South Africa's total workforce, taking into consideration individual aptitudes and preferences and the needs of the national economy.

The main function of the Board is to advise the Minister on policy matters concerned with, or arising out of the application of regulations under the Manpower Training Act of 1981, and any other matter concerning manpower training.

The establishment of the Board, for which provision is made in the Act, was a milestone on the path of orderly evolution in South Africa's labour sector and a cornerstone of the country's future economic development.

Composition of the Board

The Board, at present, consists of a chairman and vice-chairman (full-time members appointed by the Minister of Manpower) and 20 other members appointed by the Minister in consultation with the State, employers and employees organisations on the strength of their special or expert knowledge of manpower training and development.

Chairman,
Vice-chairman,
Eight employers' representatives,
Four employees' representatives,
Five State representatives,
Three independent specialists.

Concerning alternate members, five represent employers, four employees, two the State and one is an independent specialist. The

Minister may also appoint additional members at his discretion.

Board members do not represent any specific organisation, but are appointed for their expert knowledge or experience of manpower training or development and the interests of the respective sectors of the national economy which they represent. There are more representatives of employers than of any other group in view of the key role which employers have in the training of the country's workforce.

Structure of the Board

In terms of the Manpower Training Act, the Board can appoint committees to implement its functions. At present there are five committees:

Executive Committee: Since the full Board normally sits only four times a year, the Executive Committee handles urgent matters.

Research and Development Committee: The functions of this committee include the determination of training needs and possible research projects.

Artisan Training Committee: In the main, this committee continues the activities of the former National Apprenticeship Board, and sees to - the promotion of artisan training;
- the constitution and reconstitution of manpower committees;
- the determination of apprenticeship provisions;
- the training of persons other than apprentices and minors in artisans work and related occupations.

Committee for In-Service Training: Its activities include the functions of the two In-Service Training Boards established in terms of two earlier Acts which have been replaced by the Manpower Training Act.

Trade Test Committee: It is this committee's task to liaise with the Central Organisation for Trade Testing. Olifantsfontein,

concerning the trade testing of apprentices and trainees, in particular on pass levels and the structure and contents of trade tests.

The Board's committees may appoint sub-committees. Members of a sub-committee need not be committee members.

Personnel

The Board's upper personnel structure is as follows:

- Chairman and Vice-chairman;
- Registrar of Manpower Training;
Assistant-Registrar of Manpower Training;
- Secretarial personnel;
- Specialist divisions for:
 1. Development;
 2. Artisan Training;
 3. In-service Training;
 4. Training Development, Research and Statistics;
 5. Advisory Services and Guidance.

Functions and powers of the Board

In the Manpower Training Act the Board's task is clearly described as "the co-ordination, encouragement and facilitation or promotion in any other manner of training". Its main function is, as already mentioned, to advise the Minister on policy matters concerning or arising out of the application of the provisions of the Manpower Training Act and any other matter concerning manpower training.

The Board is, inter alia, empowered to:

- do research on its own or in co-operation with the National Manpower Commission on training and training needs;
- take steps to establish uniform training standards with the object of control and the promotion of effectiveness of training;

- investigate the desirability and feasibility of a system in which different training levels are established and persons tested at various levels of their training;
- co-operate with the Department of Manpower and other Government Departments and statutory bodies on matters concerning manpower training;
- instruct anyone, in writing, to furnish such information as the Board may require in terms of the Act in connection with any investigation or research.

Representatives of the Board, may in the execution of the Board's functions, visit any premises where an apprentice, minor or trainee is or has been in service, or where a group training centre, training centre or training scheme is offered or has been offered, and may at their discretion institute an investigation.

Besides these functions, certain other functions and tasks have been assigned to the Board by the National Manpower Commission, the White Paper on Manpower Training and the Report on High-level Manpower in South Africa.

The Minister of Manpower pointed out that the private sector had to give top priority to labour affairs so that they could play a decisive role in the field. He said that it had been found that many employers were totally uninformed when it came to labour matters.

(Parliamentary Correspondent, Daily News, 1981, p 4)

The Guidance and Placement Act of 1981, was published on 16 September 1981. It was to provide for the establishment and control of guidance and placement centres and advisory employment boards and for the registration and control of private employment offices. (Guidance and Placement Act 1981, p 2 - 14). The Act was aimed at regulating the activities of such centres and offices and gives guidance for the establishment of advisory employment boards.

6.5.4 The Government's interim memorandum on the HSRC Inquiry into the Provision of Education in the RSA

In October 1981 the Government responded to the HSRC Inquiry into

Education Report and endorsed the principles on nfe and the private sector as they were contained in the Report. Comments on the Report were called for and the Government would respond through a White Paper to be tabled in Parliament.

(Interim Memorandum as quoted in SATA Bulletin, 1981, p 1 - 2)

The response to the Interim Memorandum was extensive, rather negative, but positive in its recognition of nfe and the role of the private sector. It certainly served to draw the attention to nfe. Hartshorne pointed out that, looking at the demography, the figures, the neglect of the last thirty years, the millions of black adults who got no education, or who dropped out it was quite clear that the school alone was not going to solve the country's educational problem (Hartshorne, 1981, p 183). The issue about formal schooling and education, referred to earlier, was raised by Muir who questioned whether there could be parity of status between the formal schooling of the post-basic phase and the non-formal education. He questioned whether in the case of white children who currently had ten years of compulsory schooling, there could be a meaningful change to a 6 + 3 pattern for Whites - if there could not be such a change, the recommendation could not result in equal treatment for all.

(Muir, 1982, p 2)

The HSRC Main Committee Report seemed to acknowledge that the old Bantu education system could no longer provide enough skilled people. It was geared to the simpler economy of the Fifties and Sixties when the call was for a large, semi-literate mass of unskilled workers. The present time, according to Dr P J van der Merwe of the NMC, structural change in the economy demanded a different kind of labour force. The high-technology firms and the manufacturing and public services, demand both skilled black labour and a higher general level of literacy. In terms of the De Lange proposals such a work force would be produced. In terms of the plan, most Blacks would probably receive six years of basic schooling, aimed at fitting them into the bottom of the occupational pyramid, while a growing number of them would fill

high-level vacancies, broadening the apex of the job structure (Van der Merwe as quoted in the Sunday Tribune of 13 December 1981).

The situation in the Department of Education and Training meanwhile had improved, but from the figures below, with a population of several million to cater for in the black population, they are still insignificant.

Attendance at technical centres improving from 12747 pupils weekly in 1978 to 23300 weekly in 1981 (Department of Education and Training Annual Report, 1981, p 132), shows a good growth, but not nearly enough to orientate more Blacks with a Western cultural backlog, to modern urban society needs.

6.5.5 National Manpower Commission's initiatives to training of un-employed

During 1981 the informal sector in South Africa was looked upon as a possible way to ease unemployment. The informal sector is distinguished from the formal business/industrial sector by the following:

- case of entry;
- family ownership;
- reliance on indigenous resources;
- small scale operation;
- labour intensive and adapted technology;
- skills acquired outside the formal school system;
- unregulated and competitive markets;

It should not be confused with the small business sector, which usually falls within the formal institutional sector. As far as South Africa and the Homelands are concerned, the NMC reported that the persons in the informal sector were mostly women. The Kwazulu Training Trust for example, trained these women to sew, do pattern design and knitting so as to set up a home industry. Many, in this sector, were of low educational level, old and had another full time job. Most operations were in the trade and manufacturing service. Very limited facilities were available, the capital investment to start off with was very low, the turnover per week

was in the range of R100 to R50 and they did not ask for or provide credit. (NMC Annual Report, 1981, p 95 - 96). The conclusions drawn about this sector in terms of unemployment, was that it had potential as it was labour intensive, training was provided free and use was made of waste materials.

In the more organised field the NMC has developed support programmes for training of the unemployed. In 1981 R9 million was used for this purpose. The Urban Foundation community service projects had received funds to pay for workers on residential improvement projects. SEIFSA received R750 000 for training of welders at Sasol II.

Regarding training of the unemployed in the RSA, the policy is to first try to find a job for the workseeker and then to offer training to the workseeker, after ensuring that he does not leave his work in order to undergo training. The type of training provided is basic and general (pre-in-service training) to try and improve placement potential of the unemployed persons. The State will carry the greater part of the financing of the scheme, but employers have to do their share.

(NMC Annual Report, 1981, p 97 - 102)

In the same year the NMC reported on the improvements in manpower training. In the training of Blacks, 495 apprentices were indentured in 1981 compared with 82 in 1980. The new training legislation was beginning to change the pattern of nfe for all race groups. In 1981, 150244 people were trained by means of registered in-service training schemes.

On the issue of training and re-training also of the unemployed, De Wet pointed out that the need for both skilled and unskilled labour, capital, natural resources and entrepreneurship changed consistently. The training structure must therefore be flexible to adapt rapidly to changing needs. Training should not just be aimed at delivering manpower but also entrepreneurs. Education also had to convince the public of the merits of free enterprise (De Wet, 1982, p 1). In terms of the problem of education and training

seen from a demographic point of view Oosthuizen considers that urbanisation of large numbers of Blacks is one of the major problems of the 80s in South Africa, as these new urbanites have to be accommodated and find work. He expects Third World cities to spring up, with all the typical characteristics of rapid population growth, low-employment levels, inadequate industrial base, poverty, housing shortages etc.

(Oosthuizen, 1981, p 3 - 4)

A further aspect of the unemployment problem is that more and more career information centres are beginning to develop. The Career Information Centre (CIC) in Durban is a good example. This Centre helps jobseekers develop the skills, such as interaction and communication which are important for a black workseeker in a white job environment. Little is done, apart from the skill training, to ease the trainee into the job and CIC is providing that type of training (Maistry, 1983, p 1).

6.5.6 The Buthelezi Commission Report

The Buthelezi Commission was formed in 1980, to include all race groups to explore the possibility of finding a way, within the overall framework of South Africa, of developing a regional constitutional arrangement which might provide an alternative to the programmes to which the white political parties had become committed. It reported in 1982 and proposed a school structure which it thought would suit the requirements of the region.

- The provision of at least one year of compulsory pre-primary schooling.
- The provision of compulsory basic schooling of at least seven year's duration.
- Three years of compulsory post basic schooling as a goal.
- Two years of subsidised specialist schooling.
- The institution of a common school leaving examination for all pupils.

(Daily News Reporter, 1982, p 6)

It advocated the urgent establishment of a comprehensive programme

of non-formal education, as a vital aspect of an education system. Nfe should cater for those who have little or no schooling, and for those who do not proceed with the full term of formal schooling (Mentor, 1982, p 84).

6.5.7 The role of the Urban Foundation in nfe

The Urban Foundation, according to its National communication manager, du Plessis, combines the principles of private enterprise as benefactors supplying financial backing for a host of projects yet untouched in South Africa. It is an organisation established by the private sector to:

- improve the quality of life of millions,
- to act as a catalyst for peaceful socio-economic and other changes, over a wide front in the South African community.

In the five years since its inception in 1976, it has become involved in Housing and residential development; education and training; securing access for all to the free, enterprise system; selected community facilities; community self-help development. (Du Plessis, 1982, p 2). It is an organisation which has done a tremendous amount of work in the true spirit of nfe, creating facilities where needed, infrastructure etc to promote nfe. It has drawn up valuable directories of nfe agencies on a regional basis and provides literacy proficiency and other forms of nfe throughout South Africa. Its main function lies in the promotion and co-ordination of the private sector's involvement in the improvement of the quality of life.

In 1982 it undertook the task of a Design Study for the Provision of Non-formal Education in South Africa. The Foundation's interest in nfe is that it sees a role for nfe as an element of structural change, in South Africa. In the study, the Urban Foundation attempted to give a description of the present situation in nfe in South Africa. Various categories of nfe were used to do this and the category of proficiency nfe is of interest to this research. The Report describes the following:

a. General observations : Provision sponsored by agencies other than employers

1. It was found that little information was available to employed or unemployed workers, or to educators, concerning the skills and information required for particular jobs in commerce and industry.

It is assumed that more schooling is needed and people undertake courses which may only vaguely relate to jobs. There is often no information on what a labourer for example should do to improve his earnings. There is also some indication that lack of paper qualifications could be excluding people from training.

2. There seems to be a great need, from the survey, for assistance to young people choosing their first job. Some agencies provide counselling but few can arrange a 'trial system' or 'visit a factory'. An example of such a scheme, according to the (UF) report is the Centre for Developing Business at the University of the Witwatersrand which runs a Junior Achievement programme.

(UF, 1982, p 59)

3. It was found that there was a large variety of courses available to businessmen.
4. In some areas organisations have been established to provide advice and courses for small (often black) businessmen.
5. Some universities assist trade unions to provide courses designed to help union workers gain a wider perspective.

(UF, 1982, p 61)

b. General observations : Provision sponsored by employers

The UF Report on this sector was based on the NPI research into in-service training on behalf of the NMC. Over 2000

companies, employing 2 million people, responded. It was found that:

1. the selection of current employees for training was, in the majority of cases, made by the employer. Selection was mainly through work experience, intelligence/ aptitude, specific expertise required and basic educational level (UF, 1982, p 62).
2. Two main categories of training were found, namely on-the-job training often 'sitting by Nelly', and off-the-job training by employers or at centres.
3. Some 14000 trainers were employed in the 2000 samples. Two thirds of the trainers did not have post school qualifications (UF, 1982, p 64).

Dr Lee, of the UF, in a talk at Technikon Natal on the challenge posed by nfe in South Africa, stated that a systematic approach to the design of a new provision was needed. This design, as in other countries, must be based on the essential assumption '...that most adults have only the resources, the ability, the self-discipline or motivation to undertake limited sequential and continuing learning activities on their own initiative. It is because of the machinery of facilitation and encouragement, which has been built up over many years, that so many adults now engage in such a wide range of learning activities' (Lee, 1982, p 5). He also pointed out that strong links had to be created between the formal system of education and the wide variety of nfe opportunities.

6.5.8 The national manpower reports and nfe at the end of 1982

Interesting growth figures were revealed for the period 1978 to 1982:

	1978	1982
Group training centres	6638	35664
Private training centres	19	164361
Training schemes	1628	247750

Training for unemployed

unemployed people:	<u>No. started</u>	<u>No. completed</u>	<u>No. placed</u>
	860	749	242

(Dept of Manpower, 1983, p 33 - 36)

The number of trainees on the tax concession training schemes had grown significantly over the five year period.

The second interesting set of statistics from the Research Institute for Education Planning, revealed a changing pattern of school leaving. Retention was improving. Estimates indicated that there were over 5 million black pupils in school and the compulsory school attendance of four years could stem the outflow even further.

(RIEP, 1983, p 16)

The NMC reported, in its Annual Report for 1982, that the National Training Board was giving attention to the compilation of a comprehensive training manual for training advisers. It was also indicated, in this Report, that the overlapping in work between the NTB and the NMC was to be eliminated. The areas of control would be divided as follows: (NMC, 1983, p 135)

a. Matters taken over by the NTB:

- Training of training staff;
- Institutional training of apprentices and technicians;
- Training of black farm workers;
- Certification of training;
- Decentralisation of the trade testing centre;
- Module system for the training of apprentices;
- Financial assistance for black technikon students;
- Training of operators;
- Promotion of apprenticeship training;
- The intake of trainees at training centres;
- Promotion of the establishment of training schemes;
- Training in labour relations;

b. Matters to be dealt with by the NMC

- Sandwich courses in commercial sciences (NTB is involved);
- Supervisors' training;
- Re-training of graduates;
- Investigation into in-service training;
- Communication in the labour set-up;
- Better utilisation of engineers and scientists (NTB is being consulted on the training aspects);

Technological change and the manpower situation;

Liaison with the national states on training (NTB is involved);

Co-ordination of post-school technical training;

(c) Matters to be dealt with jointly by the NTB and the NMC:

The optimum utilisation of training facilities;

Manpower planning;

Cash grants for training;

Advice on recommendations by the Riekert and the Wiehahn Commissions;

Determination of manpower needs;

From figure 6.2 on page 242a it is evident that the NTB would concentrate largely on matters related to the Act on Manpower Training of 1981, while the NMC would advise the minister on all manpower issues, including the manpower policy.

(NMC, 1983, p 2.3 attached between p 6 - 7)

On the role of the new National Training Board, Mr Botha, Minister of Manpower, indicated that this Board would have executive powers and would be required to perform functions assigned to it by the Act or by himself. It had already established four very important standing committees which would deal with:

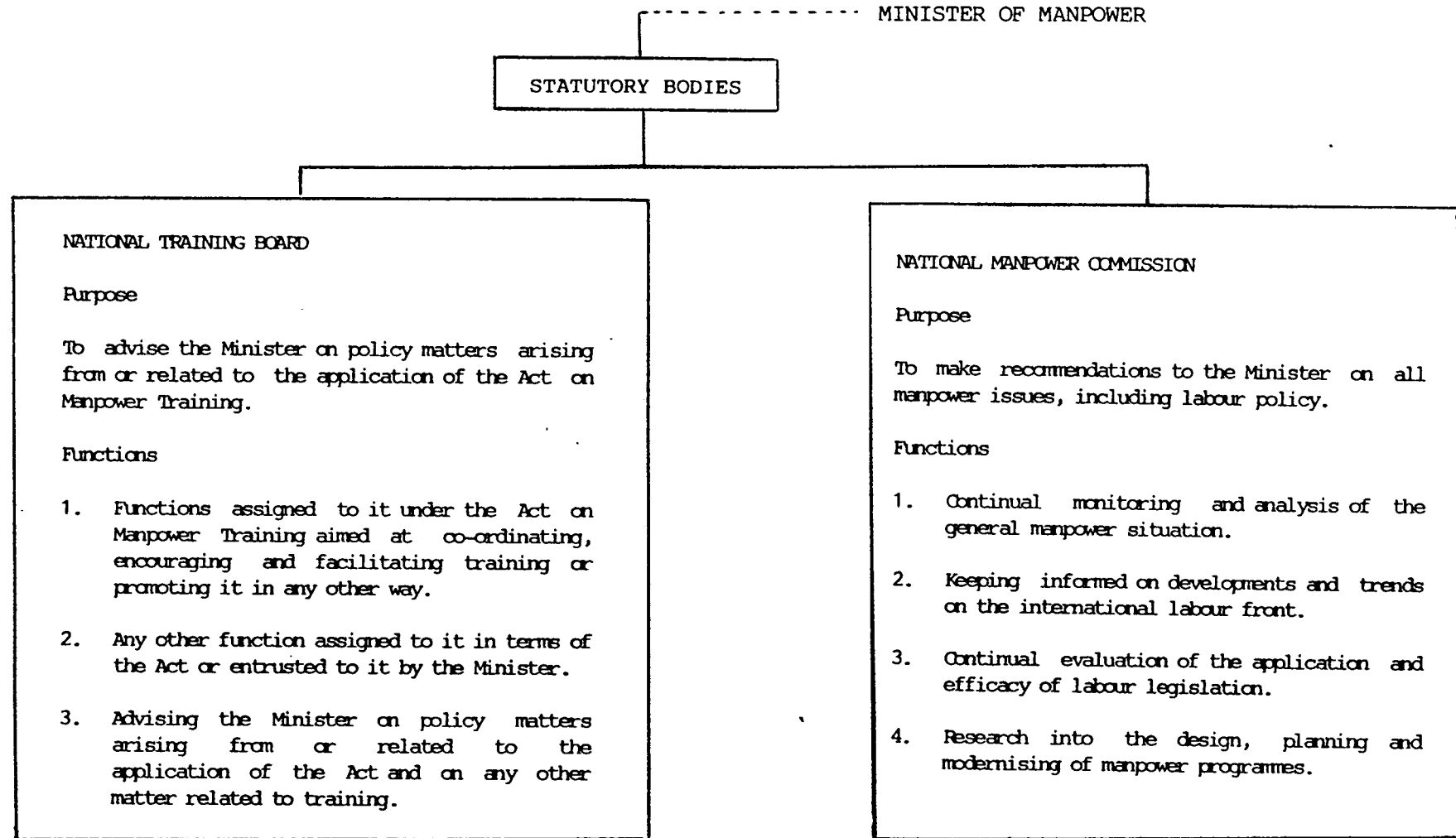
- the training of artisans;
- in-service training;
- liaison with the trade testing centre;
- research into matters relating to training and manpower development.

(Botha, 1981, p 6)

6.5.9 The scope and the task of technical colleges:

In May 1982 Eksteen, spelt out what he saw as the scope and task of technical colleges for Whites. Considering the important role that this sector plays in life in the United Kingdom, it is important to establish what their role in South Africa amounts to. According to Eksteen a permanent need exists for a continuous process of training and retraining at all levels. This is a

FIGURE 6.2



(Translated from NMC, 1983, page 2.3)

requirement from the business sector, from people who had lost jobs and to raise productivity. One of the factors which places an obstacle in the way of training could be eliminated by means of training in management. His department is therefore re-designing existing courses with a view to increasing their management content; provision of new management courses and training college staff who have technical or non-technical qualifications to enable them to present management courses. He said further that the technical colleges, of which there were 70 in 1982 for Whites, in a differentiated educational system at post school level, would play their role to provide for:

- the total trained manpower of the state;
- the needs for the ever-developing science, technology and economy, and
- the need for post school education, keeping in mind the differences in ability, aptitude, and interests of the population, as well as the needs of the state.

(Eksteen, 1982, p 3)

6.6 Developments in nfe from 1983 - 85 which have a bearing on the relationship between the Government and private sector

Towards the end of 1982 a series of questions on Training - Where's it at? were put to the Director General of the Department of Manpower Dr van der Merwe, Mr Applebee from the private sector personnel affairs, Mr L Khumalo an Industrial Relations Consultant and recent executive of the UN 3rd World Training and Development Project and Prof De Lange, Chairman of the HSRC Investigation into Education Committee.

Regarding the state of nfe in South Africa (in particular the proficiency type), Van der Merwe indicated that a lot of training was going on but the major problem was that it was being done on an unco-ordinated basis, with one company not knowing what the other was doing, nor was there certainty on the standard of training. He saw the Government's role in planning to improve the level and standard of training as being firstly, that as a major employer it had to train for its own needs, promote and co-ordinate training across the board and supplement the training efforts of the private sector. He saw the NTB and NMC as important in the co-ordination and development of training. Van der Merwe thought that a

better standardization of training could be achieved in 18 months, by means of registration of courses and elimination of duplication of training. A directory of approved courses would be drawn up by the NTB, but the contents of courses would be confidential as considerable effort and money was invested by individual firms. As priorities for training, he saw HLM and management, supervisory and industrial relations training. Regarding the gap between first and third world training, Van der Merwe stated that for many years training had not received the priority it needed, however, favourable tax concessions helped to make up the backlog. Large firms especially, had developed significant training schemes but problems still existed in medium and small firms.

(Training and Development Forum, 1982, p 4 - 10)

Mr Applebee saw the state of training and development as being hampered by a lack of suitable formal qualifications for trainers and secondly by the fact that not enough training was focussed on results. Focus should be on what the trainee should know and a lot of the trainers did not make a proper needs analysis of what the training should contain. He said that the Government often pointed out what it was doing in training, but that it was a drop in the ocean. He felt that Blacks aspired to white collar jobs, as blue collar jobs were associated with their historic role as labourers. To close the gap between first and third world jobs he felt that commerce and industry had to get more involved in black advancement.

(Training and Development Forum, 1982, p 4 - 10)

Khumalo felt that very little had been done about training - it was disjointed with no unified national planning. He said that, with the exception of Chamdor, the other in-service-training centres were underutilised, as even in the private sector no-one knew what anyone else was doing. He acknowledged that there had been improvements in training over the last five years. The greatest need for training he said was in the basic and technical skills. He voiced the opinion that because of a lack of education, Blacks were disadvantaged in many ways and that no large scale production of black artisans would occur until 1990 for the following reasons:

- '- There is an almost total lack of career guidance in Black schools, with the result that kids don't understand the

artisan's role. Then, of course, there is an historical bias away from 'manual', blue-collar jobs.

- The Black education system is geared to produce teachers, nurses, social-workers and the occasional doctor.
- The gap between Black and White kids with the same formal educational standard is such that the Black would need greatly to upgrade his knowledge to compete on an equal footing.
- There are few technical schools in the urban areas, where Blacks can go for the theoretical knowledge. And few want to spend extended periods away from their families. Then, of course, many of the schools are ill-equipped and understaffed.
- Even when trained, there is no assurance that the Black artisan will enjoy the same employment opportunities.

So, for the immediate future, I believe Blacks will regard with scepticism any 'golden opportunities' offered them by White industry and will continue to favour jobs where they compete amongst themselves rather than against Whites.'

(Training and Development Forum, 1982, p 7)

De Lange stated his views on the current state of training that training was very sensitive to the economic situation with high activity during the economic high and low during recessionary periods. Secondly, there was very little sharing of knowledge about training and the quality of training was as good as the trainers. Thirdly, the private sector needed to improve the organisation and focus on its training. He saw the relative un-trainability of much of the labour force as the greatest problem. The greatest need therefore, according to him, was to establish a framework to upgrade the basic educational standard and to give people a second chance to obtain at least basic literacy. As far as the responsibility for training was concerned, the private sector, he said, had the primary responsibility and, as for nfe, the private sector had a first and the State a secondary responsibility.

(Training and Development Forum, 1982, p 4 - 9)

In a further article, Dr P J van der Merwe stated that in South Africa training was the only way in which the individual worker could find escape for his family and himself from the poverty circle in which he was

caught. He said that annually the State's efforts regarding training were increasing dramatically (through tax concessions). He said that, in 1979, the State was involved with the training of 100 000 people through tax concessions and predicted that, in 1982, the figure would be near 500 000.

(Van der Merwe, 1983, p 5 - 7)

The differing views expressed here, give an indication of the different perceptions of training and highlight the fact that co-ordination of training is essential. In the final section to this paragraph the following will be looked at:

- Government announcements on formal/non formal education following on the inquiry into education and some conference and research findings;
- The training of trainers;
- Trade union activities in training;
- Certification in nfe;
- The HSRC / NTB investigation into the training of artisans in the RSA;
- The NTB activities on a regional basis;
- Some reference to nfe in Third World countries.

6.6.1 Government announcements on formal/non formal education following on the inquiry into education, and some conferences and research findings

In November 1983 the Guidelines of the Interim Education Task Group appointed as a recommendation from the De Lange Committee Report, released their findings on the De Lange Report and the comments received from the public. On nfe the recommendations of the De Lange Report were re-stated in the same format. Possible entry and exit points from formal education to nfe, as was indicated in the De Lange Report, were recommended. (Dept of National Education, 1983, p 26). On the same day the Government White Paper on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa was released. The Government re-affirmed the acceptance of the principles, including those that have a bearing on nfe, as previously stated. A single body, the South African Council for

Education (SACE) for education at school level, including teacher training, was to be created (thus for all race groups). It would deal with general education matters (Government White Paper on Education, 1983, p 8). A Certification Council, which would also certify post school qualifications, was to be set up (page 10). On nfe the recommendations by the Education Working Party were:

- '(a) The identification of the need for and planning and provision for non-formal education for adults who are not of compulsory school-going age should be done by a subregional body which -
 - (i) should identify those adult learning needs for which provision does not yet exist;
 - (ii) should provide a basic guarantee of standards for programmes and/or certificate courses for which special financing has to be found; and
 - (iii) should find sources of finance for programmes and/or certificate courses.
- (b) Initially, since it is necessary for non-formal education to be placed on an orderly footing but enough research has not yet been done on non-formal education, subregional educational bodies and other employers and employee organisations as well as cultural bodies and similar groups should be involved in the constitution of a subregional body.
- (c) SACE should, through its recommended committee for non-formal education, give substance to all aspects of non-formal education."

(Government White Paper on Education, 1983, p 18)

The Government's response to the provision of nfe is that it is an own affair and should be dealt with at that level. It did point out, however, that it sees technical colleges as the institutions pre-eminently suited to the planned presentation of nfe programmes. The view of the Government is:

- (i) With regard to Whites: adequate facilities and programmes exist under the Department of National

Education;

- (ii) With regard to other race groups: The Government view is that nfe for other population groups is still in its infancy, but is given high priority within the education departments concerned. The Department of Education and Training (Black Education) concentrated on the special needs of adult education at over 400 centres throughout the country.

The Government felt that the link between nfe and formal education should be fostered through the use of the same facilities and possibly the same staff for teaching. The SACE and each education department would require co-ordinating advisory bodies in respect of nfe. (Government White Paper - Education, 1983, p 20). On the flow (interaction) from formal education to nfe and back, the principle was accepted, but the Government would not express itself on the particulars of proposed opportunities for withdrawal and rounding-off modules (page 24).

On technical/vocational education, especially for Blacks, the Government stated that, by 1987, there would be 42 technical centres in operation under the Department of Education and Training (page 34). Various other initiatives in this field were in operation or planned. The Government accepted that the private sector, which was clearly contributing to the development of training, should be given an appropriate say in decisionmaking on education at university, technikon, and technical college council level and their advisory and subject bodies and on the SACE and the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council (UTAC) (page 47).

At the SAAAE Congress in 1984, already referred to earlier, Dr Garbers of the HSRC gave some guidelines for the control and co-ordination in the implementation of nfe in a system of education. These guidelines have already been summarised earlier on this research. At the same conference, Dr Jacobs of the Department of National Education, gave his views on the role of post-school and tertiary educational institutions in nfe in South Africa. He stated that nfe should fill the gaps that are not normally filled by formal education. According to Jacobs:

'The objectives of non-formal post-secondary education are implied in the SASPSE-definitions given in the previous section. Briefly stated these objectives are:

- * The improvement of persons with respect to the knowledge and/or skills required in professional or vocational occupations.
- * General academic development in academic disciplines, not towards formal qualifications, such as general adult education.
- * The cultural enrichment or development of the community in terms of social roles, home and family life, personal interest and leisure.
- * Preparatory/remedial instruction towards entry into formal qualification programmes.'

(Jacobs, 1984, p 7)

All post school and tertiary education institutions could offer nfe on a self supporting basis along similar but tertiary lines as above.

A major research project on the provision of non-formal education was, as mentioned earlier, undertaken by Prof F van der Stoep and published in 1983. In the recommendations in his research report he notes that South Africa has, as yet, not got an umbrella policy or umbrella organisational infrastructure for the provision of nfe which is comparable with the provision of formal education. He lists a number of aspects which require urgent attention. These include the implementation of a plan for the provision of nfe over the full spectrum; mobilisation of forces to facilitate the participation of learners in nfe programmes; there is a need for strategies to co-ordinate all nfe efforts to identify gaps; a directory of participating nfe organisations need to be drawn up; a policy of support of all participating bodies is needed; encouragement of research in nfe is needed; priorities for nfe should be determined; formalisation of nfe should be avoided; the status of nfe should be developed; the problems surrounding nfe certification need attention; an infrastructure for nfe should be developed; link mechanisms between nfe and formal education should

be investigated and programmes for social, political and cultural development should be designed.

(Van der Stoep, 1983, p 324 - 329)

It would seem therefore that there is a greater awareness of nfe and its potential at Government, academic, private and practical (community) level.

6.6.2 The training of trainers

Since the development of the National Training Board the training of trainers has become an area of vigorous activity, research and development. The South African Society for Training and Development (SASTD) has, on a regional and national basis, done a sterling job to establish the professionalism of the trainers (instructors, training officers, training managers etc). Their publication Forum appears regularly and is informative. The National Training Board had drafted a training manual in 1983 for the guidance of trainers. The detailed document provided definitions of training, the National Manpower policy and training policy. The details on training advisory, financial schemes and tax concessions for training; the design and development of a training scheme; the role of the trainer; training in industrial relations; aids for training; training opportunities and information sources and evaluation and research on training were provided. The document was circulated for comment.

(National Training Board, 1983)

In 1984 the Compendium for training which contained up to date information on the same topics as those which appeared in the draft document was published. It also contained copies of all the relevant documentation required to develop training programmes and to register them for tax concessions. (National Training Board, 1984).

6.6.3 Trade union activities in training

In South Africa registered trade unions enjoy general recognition in both the public and private sectors. It is acknowledged that

they form important links in employee-employer relationships and the regulation of labour relations (Manpower 2000, 1982, p 1). The role of the white trade unions has already been mentioned several times in connection with nfe (apprenticeships) and the powers these unions had over entry to their trade, to the exclusion of Blacks until very recently.

The Trade Union Council of South Africa (TUCSA) annually publishes the Trade Union Directory and industrial relations handbook. It contains the TUCSA Constitution, details on international labour conventions; details of the work of the NMC; details on codes of conduct by foreign governments and bodies related to South Africa such as the European Economic Community Code; the Sullivan Code, the Urban Foundation and other codes; details on minimum wage guidelines; details of conditions of The Employment Act, Training Centres and schemes and a host of other information useful to members (TUCSA, 1983, p 11 -). From several references earlier in this research it is clear that the trade unions play and have played, a major role in nfe in South Africa, protected by legislation.

6.6.4 Certification in nfe

A possible certification board for nfe at post school education level was referred to earlier in the text. In August a report on the composition and function of a National Certification Board was published. The Committee had acted in accordance with the Government's decision, and was given a brief to investigate a statutory certification board for the establishment of norms and standards for syllabuses and examinations and certification of qualifications. The Committee reported on certification in all sectors of education including certification by institutions in nfe. Reference was made to all the professional bodies such as the South African Institute for Civil Engineers etc, and their role in professional qualifications.

(Department of National Education, 1984, p 52)

Certification in nfe is used as an incentive to trainees in private training in firms, but is compulsory for any approved training

scheme for which a company wishes to qualify for tax concession. The Department of Manpower therefore plays a regulatory role on standards of training approved by it.

6.6.5 The HSRC/NTB investigation into the training of artisans in the RSA

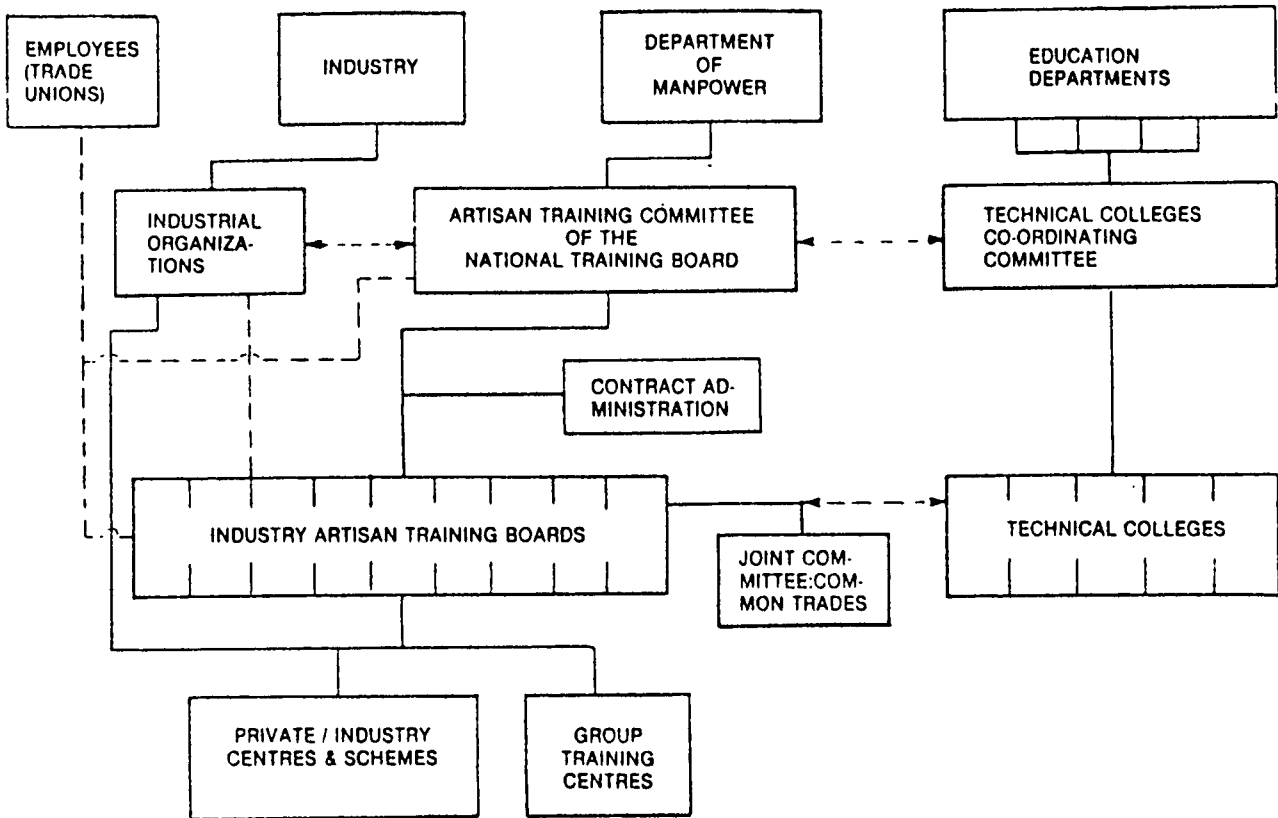
In November 1982 the NTB requested the HSRC to conduct an investigation into apprenticeship and artisan training in the RSA. The report of the investigation will have an effect on nfe as it sets new standards for entry to training, proposes a modular training basis and requirements to be met for certification at different exit levels. The research itself was comprehensive and involved representatives from the public and private sector and formal education. In the report the current status of artisan training, as it developed historically, is described. A section is devoted to the training of artisans, based on a survey amongst firms and bodies training artisans, as to how artisan training could be improved. Similarly a section deals with qualification as an artisan and proposals on trade testing. Selection and pre-apprenticeship training is also dealt with and finally the cost and funding, and legal implications are addressed. Of particular interest for this research is the structuring and control (sector by sector) of training which is proposed.

(HSRC, 1985, p 1 -)

It is proposed that the major co-ordination and control of artisan training should be through the NTB Artisan Training Committee (NTBATC) which should have the following composition and functions and relations to the involved parties:

(HSRC, 1985, p 114)

Proposed organizational structure: apprentice training



(Reproduced from HSRC, 1985, p 246)

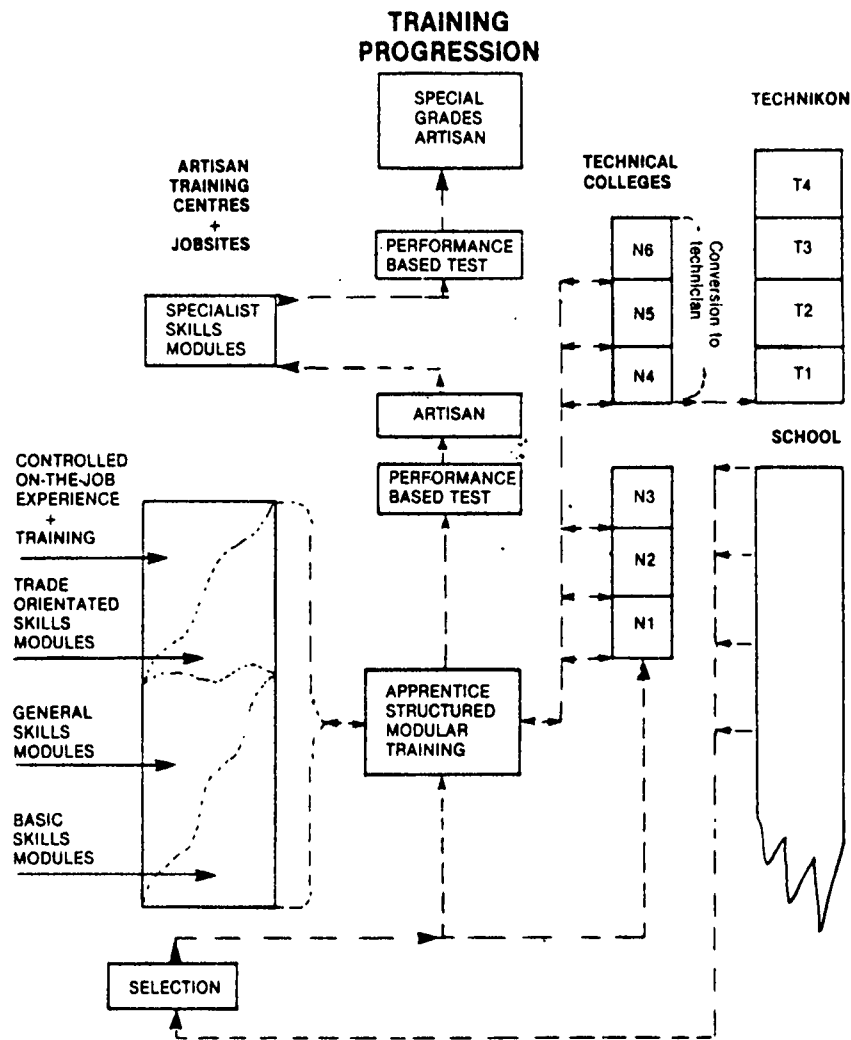
The following functions should be added to the existing functions of the NTBATC:

- Guidelines and requirements for accreditation of modules and courses for artisan training at centres and colleges;
- Guidelines and requirements for accreditation of training centres and test centres;
- Approval of criteria for final evaluation;
- Monitoring of testing;
- Co-ordination of common trades;
- Liaison with technical colleges;
- Any other aspects of artisan training identified where a control/co-ordinating function is necessary.

Industry Artisan Training Boards (IATB), are proposed for each industry. Could this be the starting point of overall statutory industrial training boards, not only for artisans?

The training is proposed to be undertaken on a modular basis with various grades of training and certification.

Proposed modular training scheme



(Reproduced from HSRC, 1985. p 112)

A disappointment is the section on pre-artisan training which mostly repeats the informations and proposals contained in the HSRC Report on formal education, some of which had already been accepted by the Government (although little signs of implementation have so far appeared) and some of which had received a cold reception from the Government, e.g. the linking modules and rounding off modules

before entering nfe. To change an education policy in formal education from largely academic to technical/vocational, especially with the chequered history of the latter in the RSA, will take a very long time.

6.6.6 NTB activities on a regional basis

Since its inception the NTB has been active on the national as well as the regional front. It has given guidelines for the establishment of the regional training committees, on how to establish local training needs, deciding on what should be achieved, how to set priorities, action programmes and how to maintain and evaluate progresses and the format for reporting back to the N.T.B. Better co-ordination of training activities therefore seems to be getting more attention. The regional committees have been given questionnaires to use to establish regional manpower needs by industry and company. This valuable information could be used for the manpower planning and training to be established in an area.

The trends in the black education outflow from schools for 1983 - 84, which within a few years will change the product which enters the job market, are interesting.

	<u>Outflow</u>	
	Semi-literate	literate
1983	28.1%	19.3%
1984	7.0%	10.9%

This improvement will most likely affect the junior secondary category in the next few years.

(RIEP, 1984, p 16) and (RIEP, 1985, p 13)

6.6.7 Some reference to nfe in Third World countries

Although it was stated that some attention would be given to Third World countries, the South African economy is such that, for proficiency training in urban areas, the typical, rural, Third World Countries nfe is hardly relevant. Some general statements from research in this field will be made here which could be of use

in typical black Third World cities.

Regarding educational planning in Africa Hartshorne refers to the 1960 - 70 period as the period where the emphasis was on economic development - the period of manpower planning in education. The second decade, 1970 - 80 - Second Development Decade, was the period where there was a change in emphasis to community development of which economic development (in that community) is a critical part.

(Hartshorne, 1978, p 147)

Sheffield and Diejomaoh described a successful scheme in Nigeria, called the Opportunities Industrialization Center (OIC). (Sheffield and Diejomaoh, 1972, p 19 - 21). A group of researchers from Lagos investigated the scheme and reported the following interesting (and typical) characteristics of a successful initiative in Africa.

The Opportunities Industrialization Center is a privately run, community-based response to the problem of massive population drift resulting in large population groups living in marginal conditions on the urban fringe.

What captured the interest of the Lagos group was that:

- The OIC program was created and developed by a cross-section of private citizens like themselves;
- the program was not only structured to provide technical training, but also concerned itself with the attitudinal problems of the poor and unemployed;
- the program attempted to train people in the shortest possible time for work that was already in demand in the labour market.

The objectives of the program are:

To meet the needs of those who have a basic education but cannot advance in job positions;

To meet the needs of those who have completed their formal school training but have no marketable skills;

To help those who cannot continue their education because of financial hardships;

To develop a relationship with the industrial community so that the OIC trainee will be provided with job opportunities;

To provide training that meets the needs of existing or developing industry;

To eventually develop a management training project to assist OIC trainees and other in establishing and managing their own business or in finding upward mobility in existing firms;

To assist in the development of new business and industries;

To assist demobilized armed forces personnel in learning a trade.

Spier makes the following observations on nfe in the Third World:

- Nine years is probably the minimum required to develop and sustain adequate reading comprehension.
- International experts agree that for developing countries, more practical (non-formal) education is good for economic growth; however most of the national educational policy-makers are against it. (Spier, 1981, p 94 - 95)

According to the Urban Foundation, in developing countries nfe is primarily seen as an alternative form of basic education, geared to development. They refer to Nyerere's view that it is the adult, rather than the child population which holds the present destiny of development in its hands and cannot wait for a generation to grow up before implementing new programmes and courses of action - increasingly greater proportions of educational budgets are being spent on nfe (UF, 1982, p 43). According to the UF the historical development of nfe in African Third World Countries went through 3 stages. Most former colonies began their nationhood with a formal education system based upon that of the colonial power. In the 1960s these countries began to realize the enormity of the task and unsuitability of the systems in use. The emphasis in adult education was critically on nation building and political aims. The second phase was nfe related to the development of social

awareness and during the third, from the late 70s onwards, nfe concern returned to job-related efforts. A strong expatriate influence is still felt in nfe in Third World Africa as international organisations use foreign advisors and trainers of local educators.

(UF, 1982, p 44)

Van der Stoep, on nfe in the Third World, points out that it is often connected with people in poor socio-economic conditions, land renewal schemes and school elitism such as Nyerere's Education for self reliance! On a policy for nfe in this sense, he stated that the following had to be considered:

- Training in knowledge and skills which will lead to improved productivity in the manual labour categories;
- Supply of useful and relevant knowledge and skills to backward communities;
- Development of positive work attitudes;
- The development of character qualities which will improve stability;
- Part funding of nfe through the selling of products resulting from training;
- Improvement of schooling and general education by introducing into the curriculum contents which are relevant to the community to be served.

(Van der Stoep, 1983, p 286)

He distinguishes a difference in the policy for an industrialised country. In the latter the emphasis would have to be on:

- Acquiring practical skills of a scientific - technical nature and aiming at a particular occupation;
- Diligence, a positive attitude and loyalty development

- this had paid off in countries like Japan;
- Extension of the child's polytechnical horizon, development of creative ability and the interaction of work and scientific knowledge;
- Active introduction with the world of work;
- Orientation regarding the industrial processes;
- The active involvement of the learner in the contents and organisation of the learning activities in a practical work situation including group work;
- Co-operation between the teachers and employers to integrate the learning programme to establish the concept of 'learning by working'.

With these few general comments the situation in the African Third World countries is summarized and will be referred to in Chapter 8.

SUMMARY

The South African Government, as could be seen from the description of nfe policy, so far played a very decisive role in nfe, maybe because of a certain political ideology, more openly, than in other countries.

Secondly, definite patterns of involvement through legislation were clear and different for the various race groups.

CHAPTER 7

THE RESPONSE OF A CROSS SECTION OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY TO ESTABLISH THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NFE, FORMAL EDUCATION AND THE PRIVATE SECTOR IN THE RSA

7.1 SOME PERSPECTIVES FROM THE PRIVATE SECTOR

In chapter 6 the research related to the relationship between the Government and the private sector in nfe, was undertaken from the Government legislative and policy angle. Some private sector, trade unions and general public viewpoints on particular issues at the time were given. However, it is necessary to look at the response to this relationship from the private sectors angle. This will be done by looking at statements and opinions expressed by leading businessmen and firms, as well as looking at the activities in nfe by private bodies and the organised industrial training (ITBs).

Certain sectors of industry and commerce have developed very extensive training schemes, keeping within the legislative framework on nfe as exercised by the Government. A sector which from its earliest days provided organised training, is the mining industry which has employed a fairly large number of people, 390 412 in 1983 (HSRC, 1985, p 21). Organisations such as the South African Transport Services, the Department of Posts and Telecommunications, ISCOR, SASOL and similar semi private organisations are well established as trainers of their workforces. Large private companies in industry also hold good track records on training, both in quality and quantity. A sector, which has probably the most opportunities in nfe, is the professional, semi-professional and technical including managerial, executive and senior administrative sector for which in-house and professional training is available. The sector which receives little structured training off-the-job, is the clerical and sales sector, which in 1983, comprised nearly a million people. The distributive sector, thanks to public training centres, has a good variety of quality training available. The supervisory sector which comprised 326 586 people in 1983, is a sector which requires far more off the job training and the service capacities, sector - public, personal and domestic - which employed 519 034 in 1983 (HSRC, 1985, p 18), is the worst off in respect of training.

If one looks at the following statements one gets an idea of the private sector's views on training. Plumbridge, chairman of Gold Fields S A Ltd, in 1981, said that, during the period of high economic activity in South Africa, an acute shortage of skilled and professional manpower was experienced while, at the same time, there continued to exist a high level of unemployment amongst the unskilled. He said that there was no easy solution to the problem, but there were three major areas which required urgent attention:

Firstly, the non-white racial groups must be trained as rapidly as possible to fill an ever-increasing number of skilled and professional positions. Inevitably this will be a slow process due to the shortcomings in the educational background of many of the people concerned;

Secondly, a major programme to increase the inflow of skilled and professional immigrants in the short-term. The current net rate of immigration is about double the level of a year ago but it is necessary to aim for a rate two to three times the current level if continued bottlenecks are not to restrain economic growth;

Thirdly, the creation and not destruction of job opportunities for unskilled workers whose wages must be set in relation to the economic value of their output in a free market economy.

(Plumbridge, 1981, p 11)

Oppenheimer, chairman of Anglo American, in his annual statement in 1981, noted some progress in educational reform but said that the gap between black and white education remained large. He observed further that the bias towards academic, rather than technical education was a handicap to the economy. He also felt that the improvement of facilities for black technical education suffered from lack of finance and racial prejudice as there were surplus places in well-equipped technical colleges and technikons for Whites. (Oppenheimer, 1981, p 29). In 1983, Maher in an article called Industry and the blackboard jungle , blamed the Government for dragging its heels on implementing the De Lange Committee's blueprint for the urgent overhaul of black education. As a result, he claimed, the burden was growing and private enterprise was being forced to shoulder what the Government was unwilling to do.

(Maher, 1983, p 35). In the same article Relly, Anglo Chairman, was quoted saying that the Chairman's Fund of the Mining Houses had spent R22 million on black education as the State had limits as to its activity and the private sector had to contribute. Etheridge, chairman of the Gold and Uranium division of Anglo, said that since the Carlton Conference in 1979, where the Government met with 500 prominent businessmen, it has become clear that the private sector should be more involved in areas of development which previously had been dealt with by the State (Etheridge, 1982, p 9). He suggested that the private sector should make contributions in four directions with help from the State, particularly in regard to tax incentives and subsidies. These areas are:

- (i) as now, the private sector should be responsible for industrial training and in-service training based on theoretical education provided as necessary by State institutions as in the case of apprentice training.
- (ii) as proposed in the de Lange Report, the private sector should become more involved in non-formal education i.e. adult education to uplift the millions of workers who had none or little schooling and who need education from literacy upwards to fit them better for industrial training.
- (iii) the private sector should be prepared to help in the financing of experimentation and innovations which will lead to breakthroughs in cost, speed and quality. I think, for instance, of the English languages project in Soweto, the "Rogan's" Science education project, the use of computers in education and training, etc.
- (iv) the private sector should continue as necessary to support the private school system with particular emphasis on existing or future schools which enable non-white children to have the opportunity of a private school education.

(Etheridge, 1982, p 9)

He also pointed out that international aid for education should be sought, but that it was not readily available for South Africa.

In August 1981 the Urban Foundation spent R9,1 million on 158 education and training projects. A fair share was spent on nfe and technical education. These projects were aimed at people who

- never had the opportunity to obtain education,
- were never able to acquire work skills,
- dropped out of school for reasons beyond their control.

(Urban Foundation, 1981, p 2)

In its 1984 Annual Report the Urban Foundation indicated that the Foundation financed a large number of projects in education for which they had done the research and developed, for example, the course work. An important area of proficiency training was INSET, the in-service education and training of teachers to upgrade the standard of professional competency of teachers. The Teacher Opportunities Programme (TOPS)d,undertaken with the organised teacher associations aid, was already reaching 1000 teachers.

(Urban Foundation, 1981, p 2)

D W de Beer in talking at a conference on the use of instructional computing, said that in his experience and after some research he had to move away from the traditional training models and develop training technology which worked for adult education. These included the following principles:

Adults already have considerable experience. During further training, this experience should be utilized and expanded on.

There are differences between students - the learning process should therefore allow enough room for differentiation.

Every student is a potentially responsible person - they must therefore all be given responsibility, also with regard to this personnel learning process.

Clear objectives increase the applicability of the learning material and the motivation of the student.

Immediate feedback on successes and failures increases retention and understanding.

Active participation increases involvement during the learning process.

Independent discovery and experimenting increase understanding and retention of skills.

Adequate practice of skills is essential.

Adults are critical and think for themselves.

Learning must take place in an orderly and systematic fashion.

(Compare De Beer, 1981, p 25 - 26)

Together with these, according to De Beer, modern training technology was applied in the private sector to bridge the education gap at basic skill level. Criterion referenced instruction, experiential learning, mastery learning, behaviour modelling, learner controlled education and group dynamics were used increasingly.

This aspect highlights the ease with which nfe can use modes of education that the formal education system would not easily apply.

Looking at the planning of South Africa's future in 1982, Van Zyl expressed the view that the principle objective of education was that it should fit people for life. He saw education as a major building block in the process of transforming the manpower base of the economy to permit higher economic growth and, in turn, to create employment and prosperity. For him education must fit the individual for employment and to fill a meaningful role in society and, from the point of view of the employer, education must form the base on which vocational professional skills can be grafted (Van Zyl, 1982, p 1). Andrews of the University of the Witwatersrand expressed his views on strategies for survival for South Africa in 1985. He sees only one major strategic approach to survival. This overall, or basic strategy, according to him, requires that until the total South African labour force should be treated, managed and guided as an homogeneous body or else South Africa would be heading for disaster. All racial discrimination has, he says, to be eliminated. In addition to and supporting his strategy the development of the executive

group is required and the traditional training of artisans must be revised - crash programmes that will 'force feed' artisans must be established (Andrews, 1985, p 9 - 11). Along these lines Venter had already, in 1982, presented a paper indicating the manpower policy of Gencor. In it the first priority is due to the shortage of managers and professional people, training, development and optimal usage of the leader group. Secondly the extension of the schooled labour force through training is required and, thirdly, the expansion of the semi-skilled labour force through training of unskilled labour is a priority. To achieve this Gencor had developed a whole range of courses.

(Venter, 1982, p 1 -)

7.2 THE SURVEY BY THE NMC ON IN-SERVICE TRAINING 1980/81

Finally, in 1984, the NMC report on the 1980/81 in-service training in the RSA was released. The survey report undertaken by NPI was extensive, carefully defining in-service training as '....training which has been systematically planned and is formally carried out by a trainer within the organisation or externally on behalf of the organisation.' To analyse the results three questionnaires were used: one for the business sector, the hospitals, municipalities and public corporations, one for Government and Provincial authorities departmental use and one for training agencies. The latter were identified as organisations whose primary function was training. The report in each sector dealt with labour and sources of trainees, recruitment and selection for training, the extent of training, the infrastructure for training, the cost of training, the planning and control of training, the responsibility for training and the training of apprentices. The findings were extensive and significant to obtain an overview of the extent of nfe in the RSA. Some of the findings in the business sector and the training agencies are relevant to this research.

In the case of the business sector the survey on where the responsibility for training lay, provided the following views:

- Training responsibilities it was felt with one exception should not rest with one single party, but rather be shared by several parties. Training should be seen as a matter of partnership and

it ought to be accomplished through firms, and training organisations, the Government and employer organisations. The idea of a partnership which endorses the current Government policy, seemed therefore well accepted.

- Employee and employee organisations were not seen by many as having a responsibility for training.
- The employer was seen by most as an important partner in training.
- The areas in which most participating organisations saw no need for a partnership were selection and sending of trainees for training. Organisations felt that this should be left to employers and employees themselves were not seen by many companies as partners in these decisions.
- The survey shows that the involvement of the Government as partner in nfe, where it was seen as such, is very prominent. The areas where Government should assume responsibility are:
 - the financing of training;
 - co-ordination of training activities between the educational sector and business and/or within specific industry and the provision of industrial relations training.
- Except for industrial relations training, it is clear that the responding organisations do not want the Government to share responsibility in administrative or professional matters relating to training. The Government is not asked to share responsibility in the development of training programmes, the training of trainees or the determination of standards of practice. Rather it appears that what the responding organisations seek, is Government's financial aid, on the one hand, and, on the other, the freedom to conduct training largely as they and other partners deem fit. In the case of co-ordination, the responding organisations would like to see the Government, together with employer organisations, as the parties responsible, but the Government - probably owing to its great influence on the educational scene - is seen as the major party.

- After the employers and the Government, the most important party in terms of shared responsibility for training is employer organisations. The responding organisations see themselves, jointly with others, responsible not only where training policies must be designed and activities co-ordinated for specific industries, but also where training programmes must be developed and where specific occupations are to be taken care of.
- According to the responding organisations, training agencies should share the major responsibility mainly in the actual performance of training operations. Training agencies are seen as responsible for the training of trainers, for actual instruction and for the work involved in developing training programmes and aids. They are not seen as being as important as employers, the Government or employer organisations in the process of establishing a national training policy.
- The above information provides clear indications as to the areas where the involvement of the Government is not only acceptable to, but also sought by business organisations. Furthermore, it provides indications as to which parties should be incorporated into future national, sectoral or industrial bodies that could be set up or modified to carry out the various activities highlighted by the areas of responsibility.

(Compare, Department of Manpower, 1984, p 144)

The importance of these views give clear guidelines as to what the private sector thinks the nature of the relationship between them and the Government on nfe should be. This information will be used in the next chapter.

Of interest as well for this research are the factors which private training agencies see as inhibiting to training. In order of priority they are:

- Lack of company training policy;
- Lack of sufficient information on existing training opportunities;
- Lack of sufficient numbers of trainees with potential for training;
- Quality of existing trainers;
- Quality of existing training facilities;

Inadequate candidate selection procedures;
Inaccessibility of existing training facilities;
Inappropriateness of current courses;
Lack of programmes/courses;
Employees' lack of desire for training.

(Department of Manpower, 1984, p 242)

7.3 ACTIVITIES IN THE ORGANISED INDUSTRIAL TRAINING SECTOR (ITBs)

The organised industrial training sector in the RSA, for which legislation on a voluntary basis exists, i.e. where an industrial council exists a training body may be established, or in terms of the Manpower Training Act of 1981, falls into two classes:

7.3.1 Training schemes not subject to Industrial Council control

Training schemes for a group or association of employers not subject to Industrial Council control are financed by a training levy. In terms of the Manpower Training Act of 1981 such a levy becomes binding on all employers. Four schemes exist under this arrangement. They are:

- The Business Equipment Association of S A. This scheme consists of in-house technical skills training, training courses at technikons and at in-service training centres for Blacks.
- A BIFSA scheme which applies to some magisterial districts only.
- The Civil Engineering Industry scheme which includes technical and skills courses run centrally by the training board, packaged Training Board courses, employer's own in company courses, national courses for apprentices and technicians and training material for the use of group training centres.
- The Mining Industries Engineering Trades Training Board which aims at promoting apprenticeships in the mining industry, developing a competence based instructional system to ensure satisfactory trade testing and to elevate the status of the mining industry.

7.3.2 Training schemes in terms of Industrial Council agreements

These schemes operate in terms of the Industrial Council agreements in terms of the Labour Relations Act, of 1956. Ten schemes exist. They include the Metal Industries Scheme, SEIFSA Technological Fund for the assistance of students at technikons and universities and the Artisans Training and Recognition Agreement for the Metal Industry (ATRAMI); BIFSA the oldest and one of the most extensive schemes which serves the building industry - it operates from training centres; the Training Fund for the National Industrial Council of the Printing and Newspaper Industry which makes refunds to employers whose apprentices attend 11 week block release courses over three years at technical colleges; the Furniture Industry Training Board which administers the training funds and offers courses at its training centres; the Motor Industry Development Fund and the Automotive Engineering Development Fund which together cater for the training of all employees in the motor industry; the Clothing Industry Training Board which operates a training fund and three training centres; the Industrial Council for the Motor Transport Undertaking (Goods) scheme; the Industrial Council for the Retail Meat Trade Scheme and the Jewellery Industry Scheme.

7.3.3 Examples of training schemes and activities

To gain some further insight into their activities some specific examples will be described.

a. Furniture Industry Training Board

In 1984 the Furniture Industry Training Board (FITB) opened its third training centre. This centre was established by means of a loan from the Manpower Development Fund. The chairman of the NTB, Mr Naude said at the opening that the FITB was, through its co-ordination of the training function in that industry, helping to achieve one of the goals of the NTB which was to promote the co-ordination of training. Instructor training courses at three levels, of which the first level had been completed, were envisaged (FITB, 1984, p 1 - 3). The Printing Industry had developed a three year diploma through their own Institute, at management level - apprenticeship training falls under the National Printing Apprenticeship Committee (South African Institute of Printing, 1981, p 1).

b. Clothing Industry Training Board

Annual or periodic reports appear from time to time to inform member employers of the development and status of training in the industry. The Clothing Industry Training Board in its review from 1977 to 1981 reported on progress regarding the establishment of its first centres and the range of courses which had been developed. The CEITB catered for courses in:

Basic Machinist to specialised level;
Machinist training instructors and supervisors;
Basic management skills and work study;
Mechanics and production management including courses at Technikon level.

The CEITB keeps their members informed on labour and legislative measures.

(CEITB, 1981, p 1 - 9)

c. BIFSA

BIFSA has developed a very wide classification of the workforce in their training and has developed centres which are extremely well equipped and which provide very high quality training. In the Annual Report for 1980 R50 000 000 was envisaged for the present five year plan, (Die Burger, 1981, p 1). Apart from training, BIFSA also provides an important economic overview for the industry and undertakes and sponsors research (BIFSA, 1980, p 30 - 31). When opening its new training college in Pinetown, Mr Davis, executive director of BIFSA pointed out that even the employees' wages were paid by BIFSA during his training. BIFSA also provided accommodation and modern facilities during training. He said that BIFSA had to train some 200 000 people over the next 17 years at a cost of R450 million which would be collected from the building industry as no funds were received from the Government (Nanackchand, 1983, p 1).

d. The Plastics Federation of South Africa and the CEITB.

The Plastics Federation of South Africa in their 1982 Annual Report, indicated that the biggest training need was at shop floor level. This

applied to operators, artisans etc, and short courses seemed to be preferable to apprenticeships. This information was obtained from an industry survey to establish what problems existed (Plastics Federation, 1982, p 1). The Civil Engineering Industry Training Board, through its journal, keeps members informed on matters including training. In December 1981 the implications of the new Training Act was analysed as a guide to members (CEITB, 1981, p 43). In the Annual Report for the industry in 1980/81 the chairman of the CEITB indicated that there had been an increase of 35% in the number of trainees from the industry (SA Civil Engineering Contractors, 1981, p 5).

e. SEIFSA

SEIFSA operates an extensive and successful bursary scheme for training technicians and graduates. SEIFSA also maintains a Communications Unit which assists member companies to maintain harmonious in-company industrial relations as one of the many diverse services to its members (SEIFSA, 1979, p 16). SEIFSA, as a member of the Council for In-Service Training, offers a service to members to help get in-service schemes registered for tax concessions so as to avoid time being wasted on red tape (SEIFSA, 1980).

f. The Manpower Management Foundation

The Manpower Management Foundation (MMF), formerly the National Development and Management Foundation, had as its broad objectives, until it was closed in 1985, the following:

- to promote, encourage and assist in the development of the manpower and management resources of all people and communities throughout Southern Africa;
- to advance their fullest attainment of material prosperity and achievement;
- to improve their social, economic and cultural standards.

The MMF was the outcome of the NDMF and Manpower Foundation which was supposed to continue with the work of Manpower 2000. The MMF upheld

three fundamental principles. It believed the free enterprise economy system is the system to which will generate the greatest economic growth in the shortest time. Secondly it believed that business leaders must accept the growing responsibility to become involved in the development work by investing time and money and that each individual had a role to play in improving his skills and thereby his productivity and earning ability (MMF, 1982, p 15). It offered a wide range of services, including a library, a film library, publications and information. It had a training division which offered a large range of courses which cover supervisory skills, industrial relations skills, training of trainers, and communication and management skills (NDMF, 1981, p ii - iii). In the 1979/1980 period through its training programmes, conferences, member services and regional activities the Foundation reached 408 000 people in commerce, industry and the public sector (NDMF, 1980, p 1). This organisation which fell in the agency category, therefore contributed extensively to nfe in South Africa.

g. National Productivity Institute

Another organisation which is of great value for nfe is the National Productivity Institute which has a mission to help increase productivity in the RSA and thus to improve the standard of living. It undertakes productivity studies and research on productivity and related matters such as diagnostic surveys on productivity in specific industries or segments of the economy or firms, collates data banks containing productivity related information and provides productivity programmes and training programmes on productivity (NPI, 1983, p 6). In 1982 the NPI produced a guide for the training practitioners - a framework for training. In it was distinguished between the training manager, training officer (diagnostic skills), training officer (course skills) and the training instructor (Parkinson, 1982, p 4). The work of each category was systematically analysed and described as well as how the training team, (which in a small operation could be one person) could work together to design modular training for a company.

h. The Mining Industry Engineering Trades Training Board

The Mining Industry which was amongst the first to start training, e.g. for apprentices, this century, has become very sophisticated in its

training. Thus in 1983, to execute the agreement reached in 1981 with the trade unions to shorten the apprenticeship period in the industry from five to four years, it introduced a criterion referenced system of instruction. The Mining Industry Engineering Trades Training Board (MIETTB) which consists of eight members - four representing employers in the mining industry and four from the Federation of Mining Unions, has the following tasks:

(HSRC, 1984, p 2)

- to monitor the selection and promote the engagement of apprentices in the mining industry;
- to investigate, make recommendations on and, if agreed, monitor the introduction of a competence based instruction system for the training of apprentices in the mining industry;
- to investigate and monitor the specification of performance standards in training curricula;
- to liaise with the Central Organisation for Trade Testing, through the Department of Manpower and the Department of National Education, to ensure that trade tests are compatible with the prescribed performance criteria and that the process of trade testing is conducted on an educationally sound basis;
- to introduce and monitor the certification of trainers in the industry's training schools;
- to introduce, monitor and issue certificates for the recognition of practical training and theoretical courses undertaken by apprentices;
- to make recommendations on the elevation of the status of the artisan in the mining industry since such status should be commensurate with the value of the work he performs;
- to liaise with other apprentice training organisations to

ensure that the mining industry is keeping pace with new developments in the apprentice training field; and

- to investigate the shortage of skilled engineering personnel in industry in South Africa and the mining industry in particular, and to study and recommend methods of overcoming such shortages through adequate training methods.

(HSRC, 1984, p 2)

In 1981 the MIETTB undertook a visit to the United Kingdom and Germany to study training in the industry and enrich the training in South Africa regarding artisan training (MIETB, 1981, p 2). The mining industry had very successfully introduced a modular system for training. Burrows analysed the traditional artisan training scheme and quotes Steyn who stated that this system led to malpractices such as:

- its ultimate aim is grading not mastery;
- it does not have specific learning objectives;
- it avoids teaching the test;
- it is a disguised form of obtaining a normal distribution of results;
- it creates a condition of "cumulative ignorance";
and
- it maintains mediocracy.

To change this, a competency based modular system was introduced

(Burrows, 1982, p 3)

Earlier in this research some mention was made of the technical and vocational education model submitted by Prof Rautenbach of Stellenbosch. At the end of 1979, at a meeting of businessmen, the idea of a foundation for career education was formed - something similar to the Isreali Organisation for Rehabilitation through Training (ORT) which operates private industrial schools. The South African Career Education Foundation was formed. It has as its aims:

- the promotion of technical and vocational education in the RSA, and

neighbouring areas;

- improvement in status and quality of technical and vocational education in this area;
- the execution of research and dissemination of information to improve (i) and (ii) and
- the establishment of schools, colleges and other facilities where technical studies and training of technical teachers could be undertaken (HSRC, 1984, p 21 - 22). Since its inception the Foundation has made several inputs into research / enquiries into education and planned an industrial school in the Vanderbijlpark area. Funds for the work of the Foundation is obtained from the private sector.

i. The Small Business Development Corporation

In order for nfe to succeed, integration is a major factor. Often programmes fail due to lack of cash etc. The Small Business Development Corporation plays a vital role in establishing small organisations in many of the developing areas. It specializes in financing of small businesses, provision of business accommodation schemes and advice to clients. It has established several industrial parks in which space is let to entrepreneurs (small scale) who may use it and expand or move to larger premises as their undertakings grow (Kleinsake Ontwikkelingskorporasie, 1984, p 1 -). This organisation is providing a vital ingredient to successful nfe.

j. Other organisations

A large number of similar organisations such as the Afrikaanse Handelsinstituut, ASSOCOM and others play a vital role in nfe.

In concluding this chapter it would seem that the co-ordination in nfe could be achieved by sectoral grouping of industries to avoid duplication.

CHAPTER 8

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NFE, FORMAL EDUCATION AND THE PRIVATE SECTOR IN A SYSTEM FOR THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION IN THE RSA COMPARED WITH THE UK

The patterns of provision of nfe in general and in the United Kingdom and South Africa in particular, were explored in this research. The approach used was to analyse the role of government through policy statements, legislation and finance, to determine the cycles of involvement by government which intervenes at various possible points and influences the relationship between formal education, nfe and the private sector. In the second instance, the influence of the private sector through organised training, individual efforts and surveys, was analysed to establish to what extent it plays a role in determining the relationship referred to.

In an attempt to establish the relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector in South Africa from this research, the patterns of provision described earlier will be analysed in terms of the theoretical model for a relationship. Some attention will be given to specific problems and related government actions to overcome them by intervening at specific points in the linkage or relationships.

The important aspects of the model used is, as indicated earlier, the relationship between nfe and formal education. This relationship, according to Evans could be:

- Complementary - nfe extends and rounds off formal education;
- Supplementary - nfe is an application of formal education;
- Replacing - nfe replaces formal education;
- Incorporating - nfe and formal education is grouped together in one system.

It has been seen that these broad categories could be refined by looking at the structures of education where linkage could occur. These include the following which could affect the relationship:

- Educational structure. - The measure of horizontal flow allowed.
- Financial structure. - Government finance of one or both modes of education.
- Organisation and administrative structure. - To what extent nfe is formalised; for example certification as a control measure etc..
- Physical structures and support services. - The degree of sharing of physical facilities and support services.
- Training structure for teachers. - The development of standardised (professional) training criteria for nfe teaching staff.

In the relationship between the private sector and the system for the provision of education, Ferrin and Arbeiter, as stated earlier, indicated a number of points at which a government might intervene in this relationship to influence the relationship. They pointed out further that, to improve the relationship, a government might act directly upon segments of a system at certain points, or all of them, to become a giant linking mechanism, acting legislatively, administratively and judicially to adjust the parts of a system, or it might mandate, encourage or subsidize other linking mechanisms, processes, or products to do so. The points of intervention, which will be used in analysing the patterns of involvement in the RSA and the UK, are to:

- Modify education entry requirements;
- Modify the education process;
- Modify the education exit requirements;
- Modify occupation entry requirements;
- Modify the occupation process;
- Modify occupation exit requirements;
- Modify school-based institutional links;
- Modify independent institutional links;
- Modify employer-based institutional links;
- Modify school-based individual links;
- Modify independent individual links.

Ferrin and Arbeiter further proposed different approaches to the forging of the relationship between the private sector and the system for the

provision of education. Basically they are:

- The process-intensive approach because its primary emphasis is on the processes of education and work and concentrates on developing ways in which individuals in the education sector can participate more fully and more satisfactorily in the work sector.
- The requirements-intensive approach where the emphasis is on the outcomes of the educational process and which concentrates on ways of changing education exit requirements to match more closely with work entry requirements and vice versa.

They also drew up a scale to measure the degree of linkage which ranges from separation on one extreme to integration at the other:

- Separation - no contact between education and work;
- Communication - those in education are informed about the world of work;
- Participation - those in education actually engaging in activities in the work setting;
- Substitution - students here actually use the work setting and procedures as the primary avenue for learning;
- Integration - here one system performs the functions of both education and work;

Ferrin and Arbeiter designed an authority continuum with which the authority required to perform a certain service function in the linkage, is measured. Again the range varies from basically providing written information (low authority level) to certifying standards (high authority level).

On the types or modes of nfe in the transition from school to work and continuous training, a number of categories appear in the literature. The most common are:

- Pre-vocational training in which the object is to produce trainable individuals;
- Job-entry training which seeks to instill specific information and skills needed for a particular job or class of jobs;

- Career-long further training for the advancement of job-competence.

Finally the work by Ducray on the changing relationship between training and employment, is important for setting guidelines. It has been stated that both education and the world of work are continually shifting variables and require continuous alignment. Ducray found that the spread of education since the 70s had raised the problem of what level of educational development was compatible with the proper functioning of the economy and that, because pupils were kept from the constraints of working life for much longer before entering, it gave rise to negative results in adjustment. He established that training provided in preparation of entering a job was often not used in that job due to the particular management and other arrangements in a particular firm. He said that governments, due to the uncertainty of their economies, from time to time, erred in two ways:

- they attached excessive importance to academic instruction and relied on the development of personal qualities as preparation for the future; and
- a system of general education was used to avoid the problem of being able to forecast the occupational opportunities for specialized trainees.

Ducray introduced the idea of the skills complex. This includes the form and content of human labour, the idea of job analysis in terms of skills and classification of posts according to skill levels, but more importantly the qualitative changes in jobs for which the adjustment of training programmes can effectively prepare young people and in the event of rapid changes adults as well. Hence the idea that information has to be obtained from the point of view of the individual in a work situation referred to as the skills complex. Slow acting important factors which have a decisive role on national development must be kept in mind.

The role of private bodies, training boards, trade unions and others have been described in Chapter 4 and will be referred to.

In this chapter therefore, with the previous paragraphs as background (model), the descriptions of the relationship of nfe, formal education

and the private sector in the UK and the RSA will be assessed to establish what intervention, at what point(s), for what reasons and with what success, occurred.

8.1 THE INFLUENCE OF GOVERNMENTS ON NFE THROUGH LEGISLATION, POLICY STATEMENTS AND SELECTIVE FINANCE

In the formulation of the problem for this research it is postulated that governments influence nfe through legislation, policy statements and selective finance of programmes. It is the intention, in this paragraph, to identify and list examples of evidence which point to this phenomenon. These examples will be viewed in the context of their environment and an indication of the success or failure of a government's intervention, to influence nfe, will be given. It is not the intention to juxtapose the findings on the two countries studied, but to establish whether intervention by a government influences the relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector, significantly. The synthesis will be done under three headings, namely legislation, policy statements and selective finance of programmes.

8.1.1. Legislation

In both the United Kingdom and South Africa legislation, regulating some aspect of nfe, appeared periodically and had significant effects.

In the case of the United Kingdom the legislation which brought about the most significant changes in nfe must undoubtedly be the following:

a. The Industrial Training Act of 1964.

This was the first sign of the UK Government's intervention in the transition from school/unemployment to work. The reason for this direct intervention was to improve the organisation, volume and quality of training to improve economic competitiveness. The solution adopted in the 1964 Act represented a good compromise in leaving control in the hands of those directly concerned with the results of training and secondly providing a self-financing (levy) mechanism, thus avoiding direct intervention from the centre (Government). Both the control and the financing mechanism of the

1964 Act, however, ran into problems as there was duplication and administrative confusion as the industrial training boards lacked co-ordination. They did not succeed initially to facilitate the much needed transfer of labour from declining to expanding industries. Secondly the levy system had an unfavourable reception in many industries.

b. The Industrial Training Act of 1973.

Through this legislation the UK Government corrected some of the problems created by the Industrial Training Act of 1964. The 1973 Act changed the way industrial training boards were allowed to operate. It brought greater central control through the introduction of the M.S.C. This Act provided for boards to exempt from levy companies which satisfied their own training needs. The problem of training in cycles, depending on the state of the economy, however, was only resolved when the ITBs undertook large scale off-the-job training, to ensure a more secure flow of labour.

The introduction of the MSC brought a new dimension to nfe. It had the ability to address national training problems, such as unemployment of 16 - 19 year olds. It had the power and finance to establish training programmes, to involve the private sector and the formal education sector to develop programmes to meet job-entry problems, mid-career updating needs and thus achieve the integration of nfe programmes. Integration of training to solve a national problem, which was linked to job opportunities, productivity during training and suitable finance, was achieved.

In the case of South Africa the most significant legislation was the ideologically based legislation.

c. The Apprenticship Act of 1944

This Act effectively separated the provision of nfe across ethnic lines. The opportunities for development of the white race group was secured while nfe for blacks was restricted to undeveloped Third World conditions with little opportunities for them. Although this legislation secured development for

Whites, it created a widening gap between nfe development needed for Third World people in Third World cities to take part in a First World economy, which developed in the white sector.

d. The Manpower Training Act of 1981

Through repeated respresentation the ideological approach of separate development was gradually reduced through the 1976, and 1979 legislation. This approach was finally, in theory, reversed in the Manpower Training Act of 1981, which made provision for training of all race groups in one act. This Act also introduced the NMC and NTB with extensive powers to analyse training needs, but which lack co-ordinating powers.

Although only two countries were examined and the solutions to problems through legislation is particular to the environment which prevailed and surrounded the problem the following is noticeable. Through legislation nfe could be:

- brought under control e.g. certification;
- made to finance itself;
- adapted to solve particular problems, such as unemployment;
- used to influence the nature of formal education;
- made to enforce ideological principles;
- used to co-ordinate training sector by sector;
- used to finance particular policies;
- entrench class structures and prevent upward mobility;
- advance/retard development; and
- restrict/advance the role of the private sector.

The relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector, it would seem, is affected by legislation.

8.1.2 Policy statements

The second factor which is used by a government to influence nfe is that of policy statements on government support.

a. Examples of significant policy statements in the UK.

In the United Kingdom ample evidence of policy statements, which had significant impact on nfe, were found. The 1944 'Employment policy' attempted to right the alignment of training of workers dislodged from previous positions due to the war. During the period from 1944 to the 1964 Training Act, several policy statements on the role of the Government in training were made, for example the Government undertook responsibility for vocational training through the further education system in 1956 and set up off-the-job apprenticeship training to aid smaller firms.

Since the inception of the MSC the role of the Government has become much more prominent. The MSC as part of their policy to co-ordinate training, has set up Dialogue Teams to review ITB rolling plans and discuss strategic training requirements. The Training Services Division of the MSC has set up different types of training courses, with the aid of commerce and industry, who make 'training places' available. The policy of the MSC is to help with the re-training and pre-vocational training to ease unemployment.

The M.S.C. has through an active policy for bridging the gap between school and industry, promoted work experience programmes. These programmes have as their aim the improvement of the relationship between industry and education. Some policy statements by the MSC have influenced the very nature of the secondary, further and even higher education. For example:

- (i) the introduction of the BEC, TEC, BTEC etc, to conduct a certification role;
- (ii) the introduction, into the sixth form secondary school curriculum of the subject called Industrial Studies; (Department of Education and Science).
- (iii) the Unified Vocational Preparation programme, which affected the further education system extensively.
- (iv) In the New Training Initiative the Government stated the targets of training for apprenticeship, a move towards nfe

for all school leavers and extended opportunities for adults. These statements became the criteria for future financial support from the M.S.C.

- (v) The 'Open Tech' statement is an example of the influence of the MSC on the public sector of higher education.
- (vi) The sector by sector analysis of training led to a change in MSC policy. Statutory training for some industrial training boards was removed and became voluntary.
- (vii) Through the statement on Technical and Vocational Education Initiative the MSC influenced the curriculum of the formal secondary education programme.

b. Examples of significant policy statements in the RSA

The early part of this century saw a reversal in the Government policy on nfe and protection of employment for different race groups. From the 1920s certain categories of labour were restricted for Whites - jobs which had previously been done by members of other race groups. This job reservation led to a policy on nfe, which favoured Whites up to the 1981 Manpower Training Act.

Government policy advanced white development while it restricted nfe for Blacks to their own undeveloped areas. These areas did not contain the potential for First World training opportunities. The policy from 1955 to phase out nfe for Blacks in white areas, diverted the activities in nfe to the black areas.

In spite of warnings in the 1960s, that there would be shortage of skilled labour in white areas which would restrict economic growth, the Government's policy on limited training for Blacks remained in force for another 10 to 15 years. The Government through its policy on homelands restricted white industrialists to training Blacks in the homeland areas.

The Government policy on in-service-training from 1976 opened up nfe for Blacks in white areas, where they were employed, to certain levels of training. Training was extended to larger numbers of Blacks.

The Government's policy to stimulate an interest in nfe and industry through the Manpower 2000 campaign, drew interest across a wide spectrum.

The Government introduced training facilities, in trades, for adults in 1978 and were forced to allow partial trade training of non-whites in areas where large constructions, such as SASOL 2, were in progress.

The Government had to respond to the recommendations of the Riekert Commission, on legislation on training and some significant changes, which were included in policy and legislation from 1979, were made. These included relaxation on influx control, better entitlement to training and financing of training which was aimed at the development of people in lower levels of employment. The NMC, which was created by Government, has undertaken valuable surveys and research, which has led to changes in policy, for example streamlining the system for the approval of in-service-training schemes, under the tax concession policy.

In the White Paper on Education the Government accepted the proposal of an open education system. This would allow greater flexibility between formal education and nfe. No policy statement has as yet been made.

It would seem that apart from influencing nfe through legislation, governments can influence nfe through their policies. The extent of this influence ranges over a wide area and include, amongst others, the following:

- (i) The curriculum in secondary, further and higher education.
- (ii) Solutions for particular problems, such as unemployment, accelerated development of groups etc.
- (iii) The standards required for training, before financial support is given.
- (iv) The initiative to undertake surveys and research before policy changes are made.

8.1.3 Selective finance for programmes

The third factor stated, in an attempt to find a solution to the problem of this research, is selective finance, to steer nfe in a desired direction. Legislation and policy statements give the direction to nfe, but finance promotes it.

a. Examples of programme finance in the UK

The involvement of the UK Government, at various stages in the history of nfe, through legislation and policy statements has been marked by financial support in many cases.

Even the non-interference policy period, before the 1964 Training Act, saw some Government funding of the further education system and the apprenticeship training off-the-job. From the promulgation of the 1964 Act and in particular the 1973 Training Act, the Government has selectively financed nfe to achieve the manpower training objectives. During the 1973 - 1981 period the MSC has financed the running expenses of the ITBs. This was reduced and phased out from 1981.

The MSC has played a big role in selective financing to steer nfe and find solutions for problems, such as unemployment. Schemes which the MSC has financed to develop certain policy principles are numerous. Some examples are, the UYP, YOP, TOPS, YTS, 'Open Tech', school-industry liaison projects, research projects into further education and integrated nfe programmes such as 'Create your own job'.

b. Programme finance in the RSA

Although the South African Government has a different policy on financial aid to training, it has been involved in selective support for certain programmes. The Government has operated a tax relief system for training of apprentices for a number of decades. On the issue of finance for the training of Blacks, the Government's involvement was initially very small. Since the 1976 and further legislation on tax concessions for training, the financial

assistance has been very generous. Cash grants for training in growth areas, represents a further example. In 1985 - 86 larger amounts of aid were made available for training and support of trainees, during the poor economic climate and to counter high unemployment.

The Government holds the view that training has to be of a good standard before finance (through tax relief), is granted. This is an attempt to selectively improve the quality of training.

From the examples referred to it would seem that through selective financing nfe could be directed in terms of:

- (i) quality of training;
- (ii) directions for training;
- (iii) level and type of training;
- (iv) the type of person to be trained;
- (v) research on training; and
- (vi) the place for training - on the job, in further education etc.

In concluding this section it would seem that strong evidence was found, in the two countries studied, to support the fact that governments direct the relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector, through legislation, policy statements and selective financing.

8.2 CLASSIFICATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NFE AND FORMAL EDUCATION IN THE UK AND RSA.

In looking at a classification of the nfe/formal education systems in the UK and the RSA, it must be remembered that the former is a first world country, while the latter is a first and third world country with the majority of the people in a third world situation.

Before the intervention of the MSC the relationship between nfe and formal education, could be described as complementary and supplementary. The interventions of the MSC has however led to integration, to some extent, of nfe and formal education through the UVP efforts. Learning

interspersed with practical work has opened up the system to some extent. The YOP and YTS has had the same effect. The TVEI has introduced a new link between nfe and formal education at the secondary school level. These efforts, from the MSC, has led to the introduction of CPVE, which is a response from the formal education sector to the YTS. All these signs point towards a narrowing of the gap, between school and work and development towards greater integration of nfe and formal education.

The South African white and indian education systems could be seen as complementary and supplementary. In the case of the coloured and black education systems sectors may be said to be complementary/supplementary. In the majority sector of black education the nfe in the form of alternative formal education could be regarded as replacing a large majority of black adults and youths have never received formal education.

With the exception of the few instances referred to earlier, concerning the UK, in both instances the educational structures could be regarded as closed systems with few exit points and no re-entry points into formal education. Neither system allows for much in the way of horizontal flow. In the UK and the white education in the RSA separate facilities exist for secondary schools, for further and higher education and physical facilities are seldom used for more than one type of education. In the black system there is a greater tendency to use physical facilities for both nfe and formal education. In both countries budgetting for nfe is separate from the budgetting for formal education. Separate facilities for training trainers or teachers exist in both countries.

8.3 POINTS OF INTERVENTION IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NFE, FORMAL EDUCATION AND THE PRIVATE SECTOR : UK AND RSA

The Ferrin and Arbeiter model on linkage, identifies a number of points where intervention in the linkage could occur. Examples of intervention at various points, which affect nfe in the countries researched, appear in many instances.

a. Government intervention in the nfe, formal education and the private sector relationship : UK

From the research on nfe, formal education and the private sector involvement in the UK it is noticeable that the Government

involvement changed from a reluctance, in the sixties, to become involved to intervention at several points in the relationship, at the present time.

The earliest Government involvement came from concern about the quality and need for alignment in training. The intervention was therefore at the point of job entry requirement to prepare people, who had been dislodged from previous positions by the war, for re-employment. Secondly, concerning quality of training, further education colleges were extended to play a bigger role in upgrading training of apprentices.

In the early sixties co-ordination of training within industry/commerce was brought about through the intervention of the Government. The industrial training boards, which could be seen as employer-based or as independent institutions, were therefore affected by Government intervention. The nature of the intervention is, firstly, the statutory requirement that ITBs had to be formed and secondly that certain powers were given to the ITBs. These powers included, the levy grant system, the right to call for information on training etc. In the early seventies and again in the eighties the Government intervened, in the same area, to change the levy system and later to change the statutory aspect of training to a voluntary basis.

The Government intervened several times in the financing of industrial training. The first time it was concerned with the levy-grant system. This was followed by the levy-grant-exemption system and the financial support of institutions, the ITBs. External agencies were therefore funded. In the eighties MSC funding was used to intervene in the education process.

Of the most significant intervention by Government, appeared in the education process at the pre-vocational level, the job-entry level and continuous training level. The Government reformed the further education system through demands from the MSC. The changes were recommended from outside the formal education system. The UVP brought the further education and training in industry much closer to one another. The YTS, TVEI and CPVE are good examples of

intervention in the education process, in the education exit requirements and occupation entry requirements.

The modular apprenticeship system, which consists of a common core of general modules, followed by specialised occupation directed training, is a further example of intervention. In this case the intervention is in the occupation process and exit requirements.

In the area of independent institutional links, the development of numerous projects to improve school-industry links, such as Project Trident, indicate another type of intervention.

On the success or failure of the interventions different opinions occur. In terms of the volumes of people trained the success cannot be denied. Accusations of 'cheap labour' and that the unemployment problem was not solved, give an indication of dissatisfaction with this type of intervention.

b. Government intervention in the nfe, formal education and the private sector relationship : RSA

Intervention by the Government in the RSA has been largely in the development of white nfe and up to the mid-seventies to restrict nfe, at the proficiency level, for blacks.

Early signs of Government intervention in the entry level to occupation requirements (for apprentices), appeared in the mining industry in the twenties and for many other apprentices in the 1944 Apprenticeship Act. Minor concessions for blacks in homeland areas were made. Apprenticeship training also received financial aid from the Government from the early stages, to the present day.

The De Lange Committee put forward proposals which could affect both the education process and exit requirements as well as the occupation entry requirements. No policy statement on the implementation has, as yet been made. The inquiry into apprenticeship training in 1984, is a further example of potential intervention by Government to change the occupation process.

In the area of independent institutional intervention the Government has, through legislation on guidance, laid down principles for the operations of guidance centres. The Manpower 2000 campaign is a good example of intervention, initiated by the Government, to draw the attention to school and industry links. The creation of in-service training centres, technical centres and approval of training schemes, indicate the Government's intervention at pre-vocational and job-entry level.

The Government's White Paper on high level manpower and a call for in-service training at mid-career level, is a further example of intervention at the occupation process level.

From the examples stated above and many others in the text, it would seem that Government intervention in nfe, to steer it is justified and serves as a driving force to ease manpower problems.

8.4 PROCESS-INTENSIVE AS OPPOSED TO REQUIREMENTS-INTENSIVE APPROACH TO LINKAGE

In both countries studied, the predominant approach to the relationship between formal education, nfe and the private sector, is the process-intensive approach. The emphasis in most cases is on the processes of education and work and is concentrated on developing ways in which individuals in the education sector can participate more fully in the work sector. Secondly many examples of school-industry links, attempt to bring representatives from work into the education process.

In the UK the UVP, YOP, TOPS, YTS activities fall in the category of process intensive approach. Some elements of YTS, and more so of TVEI and CPVE, are inclined towards the requirements-intensive approach. Some subject material is aimed at preparing pupils in skills, especially 'soft core' skills, required for work entry requirements.

In the RSA very little attention is given to the requirements intensive approach. Where practical work is done at secondary school level, it is of the process-intensive nature. 'Hard core' skills are practised. The proposed changes to apprenticeship training may affect the type of approach. Technician training on the co-operative education basis is a further example of the process-intensive approach.

8.5 THE DEGREE OF LINKAGE BETWEEN EDUCATION AND WORK : UK AND RSA

In the Ferrin and Arbeiter model the scale for measuring linkage ranges from separation to integration. By separation is meant that there is no contact between education and work, while integration implies that one system performs the functions of both education and work.

In the United Kingdom strong evidence was found of communication, participation and to some extent substitution. There appeared to be a large number of projects, which create opportunities for pupils in the formal education system, to take part in commerce/industry linked experience. This was achieved through business games, industry visits, short term work experience for teachers and visits from commerce/industry representatives to schools. The YTS and TOPS could be seen as actual participation and even substitution, if the scheme is industry based. The pupils and young school leavers (16 - 19 years of age) seem to be involved.

In the RSA the degree of linkage is in its infancy, as the only evidence found is at the level of career exhibitions at schools or neutral venues. Commerce and Industry representatives have very limited opportunity to contact pupils. Hardly any work orientation opportunities for pupils exist.

The technology orientation centres for Blacks are an example of exposure to technology, but it is a small project compared with the number of pupils in the school systems. The co-operative education technician training is about the only type of linkage at the substitution level. A prototype of integrated school, as proposed by Prof Rautenbach, is the only example of the integration level of linkage. Integration level of linkage, in the case of Blacks, appears to some extent in pre-vocational and job-entry level training, where some education, such as basic literacy, social skills etc. are taught. The emphasis in these cases, is however more in job related skills training.

8.6 PROBLEM SOLVING THROUGH NFE PROGRAMMES : UK AND RSA

Non-formal education, is as has been stated before, often seen as a means of solving problems, which the formal education system cannot cope with.

It is also seen as a means to solving other developmental problems. The two countries studied are no exceptions.

In the UK one of the major problems is unemployment, in particular at school leaving age. (16 - 19). In this research it has become evident that nfe is used to address this problem. Large amounts of money, often billions, are spent annually on nfe in an attempt to resolve the problem. The TOPS, 'Create your own job', YTS and previous efforts, are good examples. Indications are that a fairly good percentage of the young people, who enter a nfe programme, find employment. The key to the success is most likely the fact that the schemes involve the private sector. The private sector also has the opportunity to assess the young person's potential and he has the opportunity to decide whether he likes the job or not. Nfe is definitely contributing towards solving this problem. Other examples of problem solving through nfe, are the PICKUP programmes aimed at mid-career updating and the 'Open Tech' scheme, which brings higher education to many disadvantaged people.

In the RSA the accelerated development of the Blacks for entry into the proficiency type of nfe, is a major problem. The Government's tax concession scheme is one attempt, which has had a major effect on this problem. Private sector initiatives, such as the Urban Foundation and others, have helped with the development of Blacks. Numerous smaller schemes contribute to the development. An overall development programme, is however needed.

8.7 THE ROLE OF THE PRIVATE SECTOR IN NFE : UK AND RSA

At the proficiency level of nfe extensive evidence was found of private sector involvement, in the UK on a more systematic basis than in the RSA.

The history of the development of the ITBs in the UK, was traced from the early voluntary stages, through the statutory period to the return to voluntary training in the eighties. The ITBs and other employer organisations have played a major role in the co-ordination of nfe and in the improvement in the quality of training. The private sector has responded effectively, to Government initiatives to training programmes such as YTS etc.

In the RSA the private sector, in particularly those sectors, such as the mining industry, SEIFSA, BIFSA etc., has excepted responsibility for training. The tax concession scheme for in-service-training is being used to a greater extent and larger numbers of trainees have received well-structured training of a good standard. The role of the private sector in the socio-cultural development and basic education of adult workers is receiving some attention, but needs to be extended.

8.8 POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS IN NFE IN THE RSA

In analysing the relationship between nfe formal education and the private sector, after a comparative study as undertaken in this research, the temptation would be there to suggest certain actions for development, based on the results achieved in another country. This will be avoided here by using the theoretical model to establish what can be done in South Africa and merely indicating what was achieved in the UK through intervention at a particular point.

8.8.1 The relationship between formal education and nfe

It seems evident from the work by Van der Stoep, the De Lange Report, the guidelines by Garbers and the general trend in nfe, to suggest that a system of education which incorporates nfe is advisable. The Government policy of dealing with nfe as an own affair makes sense however in only one instance in that, because of the inequality of educational provision, specific needs assessment for nfe amongst the population groups will have to be undertaken. It is predictable that the demand for basic education will vary from Whites to Indians to Coloureds to Blacks. It is however also clear that the least equipped sector, that for Blacks, will have the greatest demands made on it.

In respect of the actual relationship between nfe and formal education at the proficiency level, an opportunity has been created by the Government's acceptance in principle, of an open horizontal flow system for fruitful interchange between the two sections and their integration. It is however disappointing that four years after of the publication of the De Lange Report, very little has been done to develop the proposed interface of formal and non formal education. It may be the appropriate time for joint investigation by the Department of Manpower and the

various education departments in order to approach this problem together, through the establishment of a joint committee such as the FEU in the United Kingdom. The purpose would be to design the curriculum for the transition from school to work through a qualifying module, which could be similar to the CPVE and TVEI initiatives in the UK. Such a curriculum would have to consist of 'soft skills'-enabling skills and 'hard skills' - vocational skills. The private sector, as in the UK, would have to be included in the design process, to attempt achieving more of a requirements intensive linkage rather than mere process-intensive training which reproduced off-the-job what is actually done on the job. The current proposals for an open system with bridging modules, as proposed in the De Lange Committee Report, lends itself to such a development. However, the opportunity must not be lost to achieve the joint effort between the education departments, the Department of Manpower and the private sector. Development of these modules by either the education departments or industry in isolation, without the nfe planners (Manpower Department) could result in inappropriate training and syllabus contents which do not meet with the changing requirements of commerce and industry. It would also offer the opportunity of incorporating some of the adaptability of nfe in the rather static formal education. Above all, it will help to achieve the integration at national level needed for the successful implementation of nfe.

8.8.2 Development of the degree of linkage

As regards linkage between school and the world of work, the South Africa system shows almost no linkage at all. A state of near separation exists. As pointed out in the De Lange report, the South African system, especially when compared with the situation in a country such as the United Kingdom, shows almost no contact between the schools and commerce and industry other than through inadequate school counselling. This is a field in which a large amount of contact at the levels of communication, participation, substitution and integration, would have to be achieved for an integrated system, as proposed above, to have any chance of success. The amount of activity and interchange in the field in the UK shows what success can be achieved. In South Africa formal education at secondary level is the level at which far greater exposure to commerce and industry should be achieved. The white education system will have to set the example, as all the other systems are based on that system.

Introduction of technika subjects in schools is a first step which has been undertaken by educational planners, however, actual exposure to the world of work, to how industry and commerce and the free enterprise system operate; to how a trade union functions etc. is essential to prepare young people for that transition to work. The Manpower 2000 campaign is an example of what needs to be done, but it has to become a permanent feature of the school programme, not an ad hoc effort. The area of pre-vocational training is one which requires urgent development.

8.8.3 Job-entry level of training

The centres for technological exposure for Blacks initiated by the Government, seem to be paying off in that part of the cultural gap, in particular the technological one, seems to be narrowed. It has been established though, that the other skills required for social acceptability of Blacks, in white working environments, require attention and initiatives by large firms and agencies, in this respect, should be encouraged. As Blacks are recognised as an integral part of the South African economy and the socio-economic conditions under which they live are primitive, in many cases, development should not only concentrate on skill training but also on socio-economic and educational upliftment essential to successful life. Large scale literacy programmes by employers should be encouraged.

8.8.4 Career-long further training

The NMC requested universities and technikons to respond to its call for easier access to higher and further education through an 'open' approach, for training and re-training of high level manpower. The response from universities and technikons is largely that this service is available through short courses etc, but the idea of relaxation of admission requirements seems to be the main stumbling block. The achievements of the Open University and Open Tech in the UK indicate that the need for further training at post school, further and higher education level could be met in this way, or by means of such schemes as the PICKUP programme. There is definitely a need for a South African equivalent to be developed, but, first of all, the limitations of admission would have to be removed. This might happen, if the people concerned would realize

that there are more relevant factors which should play a determining role. Only then could success be guaranteed.

8.8.5 The role of the Department of Manpower

From the description of the development of the policy on manpower and nfe since the start of the twentieth century it is clear that the Department of Manpower has developed its policy within the confines of the separate development policy of the Government. Until 1981, discriminatory policy restricted nfe and a lack of formal education for Blacks has impaired the rapid development of artisan training of Blacks ever since. The establishment of the NMC and NTB is a step forward and it is important that, as was the case in the UK, their powers should be extended to achieve the co-ordination in nfe required for manpower planning. It might be advisable to enable one of these bodies to enforce sectoral training for an interim period until it is well enough established to return to a voluntary basis. The investigation into artisan training and the report on in-service training both point in that direction.

Because of the lack of progress regarding the De Lange Committee Report recommendations on formal education - non formal education links, the Department of Manpower should take more initiative in order to achieve the development of the school-industry link. Its achievements regarding the manpower training might serve as a good background against which this work might be undertaken as they have some mechanisms towards and experience in, developing nfe-private sector co-operation. In many instances such as in Israel, Japan, Taiwan etc, the direct involvement of industry and commerce through manpower planning has resulted in a high economical growth rate. The 'void' between schooling and the world-of-work can be filled meaningfully through the co-operation between nfe, formal education authorities and the private sector.

8.8.6 The role of the private sector

The private sector has had to develop their work force under the restrictions of the Government's policies. From the research it is clear that the manpower problems resulting from the Government policies and poor education facilities for Blacks have been pointed out to the Government regularly and that the private sector has responded to each

concession made. What role could they play in the future? It would seem that co-ordination of training is one problem area which would have to be ironed out. The organised training bodies such as BIFSA, SEIFSA and several others, have achieved a lot in the sense of standardisation of training, planning of manpower for their industry, avoidance of duplication, modernization of training (Mining industry) and other achievements. It would seem necessary for the industries which are not co-ordinated, to undertake some form of training co-ordination or to press for legislation to enforce it. The success of the UK efforts in the development of training boards, in spite of the bureaucracy, seems to have paid off. Private sector initiatives to overcome lack of formal education, such as the work of the Urban Foundation and several other efforts would have to be extended as the rapidly developing black education system is unlikely to meet the demands of adults with little or no education.

8.8.7 Large scale initiatives

As in the United Kingdom large scale efforts to deal with particular problems, such as the unemployment of 16 - 19 year olds, should be considered. A large scale campaign such as literacy training, skill training for self-employment and teacher upgrading utilising available resources in the country should be considered as a priority which should be attended to either through Government initiative or pressure on the Government to initiate such schemes for specific periods of say five years. It would have to be on the scale of a national appeal to utilise as many resources as possible. The MOBIL scheme in South America is a good example of how to fight illiteracy. This could be seen as a temporary measure to achieve a major goal, but would require insight, tolerance and co-operation on a very large scale, across the limits of separate development policies.

AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The study undertaken in this research is an attempt to trace the history and development of nfe from the legislative, policy statement and financing point of view to determine how they influence the development of the relationship between nfe, formal education and the private sector. In doing so it is realized that this field of research is wide open and

that research still has to be undertaken in many areas on aspects of nfe in South Africa. The following are but a few of the many possibilities:

- (i) Research on nfe from the point of view of the individual who tends to be manipulated by both the employer and the authorities influencing the nfe;
- (ii) The sectoral development of nfe under training boards;
- (iii) Co-operation between the Department of Manpower and the education departments on an integrated national manpower development plan;
- (iv) Curriculum research on the pre-vocational preparation of pupils;
- (v) The transition from school to work for different population groups;
- (vi) Financing of large scale initiatives such as a literacy campaign and how to obtain international support;
- (vii) Collating of data on nfe and development of a nfe directory;
- (viii) Regional development problems and the role of nfe.

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SUMMARY

As a study in the field of Comparative Education, the research deals with the patterns of provision of non-formal education which evolved as they developed in South Africa and the United Kingdom, influenced by historical factors. The problem of the relationship between non-formal education, formal education and the private sector is approached from the angle of identifying the relationships between the various providers of nfe, the legal and financial framework in which it is found, and the real centres of initiative and policy. It is postulated that government to a large extent directs the relationship through selective policy statements, legislation and finance. The study is restricted to proficiency non-formal education, that which can be classified as pre-vocational, job-entry and continuous retraining, particularly in the urbanised sector.

In the theoretical analysis of non-formal education it was found that non-formal education is in general intended for education that is integral and direct. It was seen that traditionally non-formal education seems to be associated with stasis and negatively with differentiation. As differentiation in a society increases, the incidence, duration and frequency of formal education increases. Education tends to be mostly reactive rather than pro-active and the more complex a society is, the more extensive schooling becomes. Increased symbolization in a society expands the formalization of schooling and in almost all historical instances the emergence of the State as a mode of political organisation has led to formalization of education. It was found that the relationship between formal education and non-formal education could be complementary (where non-formal education extends formal education), supplementary (where non-formal education is an application of formal education), replacement education (where non-formal education replaces formal education) or incorporating (where formal and non-formal education are incorporated in one system). It is possible to analyse the structures e.g. educational, physical, administrative etc, to classify the relationship further. Concerning the relationship between education and the world of work, it is possible for government to intervene at a number of points to modify the educational process, the work process and other factors. Different relationship (linkage) approaches are possible. The process-intensive and requirements intensive approaches of Ferrin and Arbeiter are used. The degrees of linkage, according to Ferrin and Arbeiter, which range from separation through

communication, participation, substitution to integration are applied to the countries studied. The Ferrin and Arbeiter classification of service functions along an authority continuum is used to establish government and the private sector involvement. The manpower development approach to policies which could influence the non-formal education, formal education and private sector relationships, is referred to and the characteristics of a modern training policy are identified.

In the research undertaken it was found that in the United Kingdom the Government intervened selectively at different times to influence the control and co-ordination of training, the financing of training and to solve particular problems such as unemployment. The responsibility for training is said to be that of industry, but the initiative to get large scale training in particular areas going often comes from the Government. The Government's role increased through the establishment of the Manpower Services Commission which helped to co-ordinate training. The MSC then withdrew its control of training to leave it in an organised way to industry and commerce, to continue voluntary. The MSC influences the type of further education, 'Open Tech' education and mid-career (PICKUP) retraining. Through various schemes it influences the content of pre-vocational and secondary education. It was found that the nature of non-formal education and the relationship of nfe with the private sector and formal education are strongly influenced by the Government.

In the case of the RSA it was established that separate legislation provides for non-formal education of the different race groups and that Government policy and legislation restricted non-formal education, in the proficiency area, for Blacks employed in white areas until 1981. The Government's policy in the period from 1922 to 1981 went through a complete circle as the restrictions imposed in 1922 were finally reversed in 1981. It was found that the Government, through selective legislation and finance, steers the relationship between non-formal education, formal education and the private sector. Concerning the future of nfe in the RSA, it was felt that an integrated system of education incorporating non-formal education, should be developed but that closer co-operation between the Department of Manpower, the education departments and the private sector in designing pre-vocational education was needed. Secondly the degree of linkage or transition from school to work through instruction on the nature of industry, industry/commerce work exposure similar to the UK should be developed to

enable an open horizontal flow system of education to work. Career-long further training through technical colleges and an 'Open Technikon' approach should be developed. The Department of Manpower should work closely with the education departments to ensure a more meaningfully integrated national manpower plan and a school-industry-link group should be established to develop that relationship. The private sector has an increasingly important role to play in skill, as well as socio-economic development. Finally it would seem that, as in the UK, initiatives should be taken for large scale non-formal education programmes, such as basic education, pre-vocational training and mid-career re-training.