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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AET	Agricultural education and training
AgriSETA	Agricultural Sector Education Training Authority
ATI	Agricultural Training Institution
ATIs	Agricultural Training Institutions
ATRs	Annual Training Reports
CAEP	Communicating for Agriculture Education Programs
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GT	Grounded Theory
IKS	Indigenous Knowledge Systems
IRRI	International Rice Research Institute
NAAL	National Assessment of Adult Literacy
NAETF	National Agricultural Education and Training Forum
NAETS	National Agricultural Education and Training Strategy
NASULGC	National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges
NCEE	National Centre on Education and the Economy
NDP	National Development Plan
SAAA	South African Agri Academy
SAE	Supervised Agricultural Experience
SARS	South African Revenue Service
SDL	Skills Development Levy
SETA	Services Sector Education and Training Authority
SSETA	Services Sector Education and Training Authority
TRADE	Trade-Related Agenda, Development and Equity
UNISA	University of South Africa
WSPs	Workplace Skills Plans

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CHAPTER 1
ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The focus of this research is on the role of management of the in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution. Agriculture is one of the most important economic activities in most countries. It has a significant contribution to food security, job creation and Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Due to the historical inequalities in the distribution of farming land, agriculture in South Africa has been divided into commercial agriculture that is mainly practised by the White farming communities and subsistence agriculture which is practised in communally owned land of indigenous farming communities (Directorate Education and Training, 2005)

Agricultural production needs education and training for skills development. In South Africa, there has historically been more need for education and training in agriculture for the commercialised agricultural sector than it was, for the subsistence agricultural sector. White farmers received formal training in agriculture, only a few non-White people received formal training in agriculture. The non-White people who received formal education and training in agriculture were mainly those who were employed by, or those who were prospective employees of the commercial farmers. (Agricultural Education and Training Access Barriers Report. 2006).

It is only after the new political dispensation in 1994 that this situation was changed. Adult learning in agricultural in-service institutions has since been prioritised in South Africa to develop adult skills for the development of farming land. The purpose of these in-service institutions is to provide education and training to the semiskilled and unskilled farm workers and skill them to be productive agricultural farmers. (Department of Agriculture. 2006).

It is now mandatory for the management of agricultural institutions providing in-service training to skill their workers (Department of Agriculture. 2006). There is still no clear

understanding of how the farmers, managers and supervisors benefit or do not benefit from their employee's in-service training. Apart from frequent discussions, little has been written on the subject. There is little known about the role of management of the adult in-service training at the agricultural institutions. Consequently, the problem has not been addressed satisfactorily (National Department of Agriculture. 2011).

This chapter provides an orientation to the research. The chapter outlines the background to the study, followed by the rationale of the research. The research problem, aim of the research, theoretical framework, literature review, research methodology and design, research ethics, limitations and delimitations of the research will be discussed. Concepts of the research will be defined, and the division of chapters will be presented.

1.2. BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

Farming continuously changes to cope with the current pressures of a fluctuating climate, global competition and emerging farmers. It is crucial for farmers to keep up with these changes. Gottfredson and Mosher (2011:2), state that "farmers believe that the best way to be in the market is through training themselves and their employees using in-service training that is accredited and recognised by relevant agricultural departments". These authors have faith in the in-service training and believe that it will help their employees acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to improve their performance.

With regard to farming, companies in South Africa have an obligation to ensure that they have both the policies and the budget to train their employees to equip them with specific skills required for the business. However, the main focus of these companies, as employers, is more on profitability and company growth than the development of their employees. This happens despite the ruling of the Skills Development Levies Amendment Act 24 (2010) that employers with an annual payroll exceeding R500 000 are required to pay 1 per cent of their payroll towards the Skills Development Levy (SDL) to the South African Revenue Service (SARS). Although they continue to contribute monthly towards

the skills development fund, these employers still do not comply with skilling their employees.

As a result of the employers' stalling tactics in subjecting their workforce to training programmes, there is less money paid to them from the skills fund for compliance with Workplace Skills Plans (WSPs) and Annual Training Reports (ATRs). Engelbrecht (2012:1) states that as a consequence of this stalling, the pool of funds available to directly fund training initiatives in the sector has grown drastically. "In monetary terms, it means that where the Agricultural Sector Education and Training Authority (AgriSETA), which is a body in South Africa that regulates the agricultural institutions, had approximately R90 million available in its discretionary fund. Thus, AgriSETA would in the new financial year have an estimated R180 million in this fund. AgriSETA would now be in a position to approve more applications from various stakeholders over a much wider spectrum of training interventions. Over the years, the AgriSETA has simplified the WSP/ATR process as much as they could while still operating within the boundaries of the Act. AgriSETA's WSP/ATR was also known among skills development facilitators to be a process of simply completing and submitting" (Engelbrecht 2012:1). However, since the release of the new funding regulations, the farmers as the employers were dissatisfied because they now had to claim 20 per cent of the levy back and not 50 per cent. This has changed the mindset of some of the farming employers. They no longer believe that training is crucial (Engelbrecht 2012:1).

The Skills Development Act and Skills Development Levies Act (2010) directs employers to invest in the skills development of employees using training. The managers, as leaders and accounting officers of their companies, are expected to give all their employees the opportunity to be educated and trained using in-service training, among others. In pursuance of this legislation, managers are increasingly demanding accountability. They want to be shown evidence of how training interventions benefit their companies financially as a result of the impact of their employee performance.

The researcher's workplace trains people in livestock farming, poultry and crop raising. Here, the skills training arrangement is as follows: the farmer as the employer arranges the training of the workforce. The farmer tasks the facilitators of an adult in-service training institution to train his employees. Evaluation of the employees is done at the end of training by the in-service institution. The employees then go back to work with the farm manager who is keen to know how the knowledge gained from training impacts on the employees' performance. The farm managers are also expected to be knowledgeable and well equipped enough to do their evaluation on the impact of the in-service training on employee work performance. Most of the employees in the farming sector do not have formal education. They, therefore, learn practically on the job by being instructed or by demonstrations on what to do.

The farming industry cannot succeed unless they are supported, skilled and enabled to train employees in order to deal with the demands, unprecedented regulation, and policy changes in the country. They need to be capacitated, to be able to train adult employees under their employ and management respectively in the farming industry. To keep up with the demands of change, these farmers and managers have to train employees to operate the latest agricultural technologies. It is consequently expected that the trained employees apply and implement their newly acquired skills to the workplace. "This implies that issues that will enable competitiveness such as adult education in the agricultural sector require multi-dimensional, comprehensive, cross-cultural content and system approach that guarantees increased food production" (Abubakara, Baraua, Makintab & Jegab 2013:69). Consequently, to comply with policy imperatives regarding training and development, the agricultural institutions have to consider training people in all strata of operations.

Farmers are practical people who understand their work from what they produce. It takes a manager who is fully engaged with the employees to be able to evaluate them according to what the training has added to their performance. Most of the assessors who are supposed to be evaluating the training of the adult learners at a farming site are engaged

elsewhere. The researcher observed that when the portfolios of the service providers were requested, one assessor appeared in two or three different portfolios of the service providers. The assessors seem to concentrate on assessing the learners theoretically and then moving on to the next engagement of assessment. The responsibility lies with the employees in the farming sector to apply what they have learned. It was mentioned earlier that the line manager and the manager play an essential role in evaluating those employees who are trained to test their knowledge, above all, seeing if they can apply that theoretical knowledge to practical situations.

It is expected that the employees should be able to apply and implement what they have acquired from training for the mutual benefit of themselves and the company. For many adult farm workers, learning at work forms a large portion of their education and training and needs to be assessed. Bersin (2008:13) confirms the importance of assessment by stating that “the purpose of measuring any business process is to obtain actionable information for improvement”. Different researchers have also examined the aims and objectives of workplace learning. Robinson-Pant (2016:15) states that “adopting this holistic perspective on skills development for agriculture and rural livelihoods was a necessary step before investigating how and whether formal educational providers took account of and built on those skills”.

The National Agricultural Education and Training Strategy (AET) was launched with the aim to address the needs of the country’s economy and improvement of agricultural production through quality agricultural education and training (Directorate Education and Training 2005). The relevance of the training is not only to develop the employee but to be more effective in executing the given duty for the company to grow and benefit. Scott and Reynolds (2010:27) mention that assessment, whether for selection or development, can play a critical role in elevating an organisation from mediocrity to excellence. Scott and Reynolds (ibid) believe that “an organisation’s investment in human capital through the education and training of its members is, therefore, a central component of competitive strategy.”

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The development and evaluation of supervisory training is the responsibility of line managers. According to Bavainis and Morkvenas (2008: 93 -106) “business does not have one single methodology for evaluation, and it depends on the suitability of its employees and the need. It takes knowledgeable and educationally qualified managers to evaluate their subordinates when they return from training or after being trained locally at their respective farming sites. The managers should be able to observe the impact of the training when they evaluate their staff before and after training”. Bavainis and Morkvenas (ibid) further state that training evaluation is a system for measuring changes due to training interventions by the service providers. They maintain that the managers would identify and know from the evaluation what type of training was necessary and when it should be done. Workforce is the most crucial resource of an organisation. All organisations should allocate a sizeable budget, time and plan for training individuals in various aspects. According to Hasan (2012: 4) “in-service training is a systematic effort that leads to, coordinate, and sets ambitions, interests and following desires of people with needs and goals of organisations according to people’s expectations”. Hasan (2012: 4) also supports the need for evaluation of training. According to the author, a short evaluation conducted each time an employee comes back from training is of benefit to the managers. The impact shows if the employee was correctly chosen for that particular training.

AgriSETAs responsibility is to ensure that AgriSETA accredits all the service providers of training before any farming business can make use of those service providers. It is taken for granted and trusted by the farming community that because AgriSeta accredits the service providers, they are knowledgeable and they have the required expertise for what they do. The service provider will always evaluate or assess the learners to determine if they understood the training. It is, however, the responsibility of the farm managers, where the adult learners were employed, to evaluate the adult learners’ ability to implement the knowledge gained, and whether there is any benefit to their job. The key

to effective evaluation is to use the methods and procedures that are relevant and appropriate to the information, and the need that warranted the training.

1.3. RESEARCH PROBLEM

The research problem can be complicated at times if it is not correctly identified. Creswell (2009:98) states that a research problem is a problem or issue that leads to research being conducted. Additionally, he posits that a research problem can originate from many potential sources. The research problem for this research originates from the lack of proper management of adult in-service training at the agricultural institutions.

The researcher argues that there is no evaluation that is conducted for the adult learners participating in in-service training at an agricultural institution. There is no clear understanding of how the farmers, managers and supervisors benefit or do not benefit from their employee's in-service training. This research seeks to examine the role of management of adult in-service training at an agricultural institution. It is not expected of the employees to go back to school because the classroom is primarily seen as a place for children. More adults are, however, going back to school to improve their education and better their lives. The stigma around adult education is diminishing as more people continue to pursue skills development, and training later in their adult life (https://www.skillsportal.co.za/content/benefits-adult-learning). It is, therefore, crucial that the impact of adult training be effectively managed.

The researcher experienced the problem at her workplace and realised that a gap in the body of knowledge exists that needs to be studied and researched. The gap of existing knowledge could not be left unchallenged. Thus, the researcher sought to explore if the managers and supervisors in the farming sector effectively play their role of managing the in-service training of employees.

The question that was probed in this research is:

What role do managers play on in-service training of adult learners? In responding to the above problem, the following questions were explored:

- How do managers identify the in-service training needs of adult learners?
- What strategies are used to manage the in-service training of the adult learners?
- What are the experiences of managers in managing the in-service training of adult learners?
- What are the experiences of adult learners from in-service training?

1.4. RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

The research sought to examine the role of managers or supervisors in the adult in-service training at an agricultural institution. The research is to benefit the farming community, which are both employers and employees. The government and the country could benefit because the economy may improve. South Africans could benefit from paying less for locally produced agricultural products than buying imported products. The farming community will be able to produce food for the country. More people may be employed and trained for exports to take effect. Many organisations providing training or trainees may benefit from the results of the research. The beneficiary organisations include AgriSETA private training providers, the Department of Agriculture, agricultural universities and colleges. The beneficiaries include marginal farmers and landless labourers living in risk-prone areas that are not only resource-poor but also illiterate and lacking in development contact. The in-service training is expected to close the skills gap. The research is expected to enlighten the farm managers about the need to work with employees who are knowledgeable rather than those who come to work for the sake of earning an income. The farming employees may be empowered.

The importance of training for adult learners as farmers was explored in this research. However, it should be noted that the “evaluation of training is a continuous process and does not only occur at the end of the training period” (Scott & Reynolds 2010:3). Through an evaluation of in-service training of adult learners at an agricultural institution, the research determines if the training has contributed to changes in attitudes and to the improved performance of the farmers, which includes both the managers and the employees in the agricultural sector. Therefore, from this knowledge, the research makes recommendations for improved practice and change of attitudes for both the employees and management.

1.5. AIM OF RESEARCH

This research aimed to explore the role of the management of adult in-service training, by:

- Explaining and describing the way managers identify the in-service training needs of the adult learners
- Identifying the strategies that are used to manage the in-service training of the adult learners
- Establishing the experiences of managers in managing the in-service training of the adult learners
- Exploring the experiences of adult learners in in-service training.

1.6. LITERATURE REVIEW

To achieve its aim of investigating the role of managing in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution, reference was made to relevant and related sources for a deeper understanding of the research problem. The literature review is divided into the following topics:

1.6.1. Managing In-service Training in Agricultural Institutions

Farmers deal with different people, crops and different animals daily, thus they do not have the same challenges and needs. The managers need to observe and know their employees' needs, strengths as well as weaknesses (https://www.skillsportal.co.za/content/practical-skills-training-critical-sa%E2%80%99s-it-leaders). The concern of the researcher is that training of adult learners in farming is planned for by the agricultural department without prior investigation as to whether farmers need the training or not.

It is, therefore, the farm manager's decision to advise the agricultural institution about the employees' training needs. The manager needs to know more than the employees to be able to evaluate them when they have completed the training. Training, particularly on the job training, is the best way of developing and up-skilling people. As a result of rapid changes, companies have to recruit productive employees and continue to make development measures accessible on-site or through training institutions to provide theoretical and practical training (https://www.skillsportal.co.za/content/practical-skills-training-critical-sa%E2%80%99s-it-leaders).

To avoid the waste of money and time associated with the company sending all their employees for training, in-service training was developed to help the employees improve their skills and knowledge while on duty (Seiden & Sowa 2011:3). According to Seiden and Sowa (ibid) the gap between the actual skills that the employees have, and the skills and knowledge that are required by the company, can be narrowed by the in-service training. This training is created for a specific sector, the farming sector in this context. The impact of managing in-service training for adults does not benefit the farmers or its employees if not appropriately managed. The impact might be a loss or gain to the company.

The agricultural department cannot provide training that is the same in all aspects of farming through the in-service training without assessing the needs of the farmers. The

agricultural department has to fulfil its duty of training and to develop the farmers through the service providers. The agricultural institution does not take the initiative of evaluating the in-service training of the service provider. Non-profit organisations, in both the public and private sector, are facing increasing pressure to demonstrate how well they perform and to identify their plans for future improvement (Seiden & Sowa 2011:3). No perfect employee fits well for every job in a company. Employees are not hired with all the skills and knowledge needed for their work to be done appropriately.

Agricultural departments have a duty to fulfil which is to ensure that the farmers are contributing to the economy of this country. If the agricultural institutions are sending the accredited AgriSETA facilitators to go out to the farmers and train them, for example on how to feed day old animals, the facilitators must ensure that evaluation takes place to establish the impact of that training on work performance.

1.6.2. The Importance of Employees' In-service Training

In-service training is training that takes place while employees are working. It means that skills can be gained while trainees are carrying out their jobs (http://businesscasestudies.co.uk/aldi/business-expansion-through-training-and-development/on the job-training.html). Companies all over the world are rising to improve and develop their employees by equipping them with essential skills (Gottfredson & Mosher 2011:2). This is important because organisations are threatened by a churning pool of constant, unpredictable changes (ibid). In this continuously changing external environment, companies are expected to improve the conditions of learning, training and development of their employees to adapt to these changes and succeed. It can be surmised then that the driving force behind any successful company is on the job training using intervention programmes and support from managers.

Employees are adults that can be educated. Saroj and Sharma (2012: 22) suggest that adult education provides a means to address the development challenges. They further say that adult education enables people to acquire knowledge, skills and values (ibid)

hence companies train their employees at work to save money and time. It is also said to be on the job training that takes place at work.

Agricultural Education and Training (AET) providers and industry, posit that low research base and poor access to AET by emerging and new entrants into the agricultural sector makes it harder for people to get proper agricultural training (Directorate Education and Training 2005). Underlying these difficulties is the negative career image of agriculture that is painted by society. This is exacerbated by the shortage of critical skills in agricultural fields such as production, engineering, economics and development (http://www.ngopulse.org/blogs/agricultural-training-institutions-atis-response-small-scale-agriculture-south-africa).

1.6.3. Adult Learners' Participation in In-service Training

Adult learning in the farming industry is difficult because adult learners feel that learning is for children. They grow up being farm workers and learn everything through observation; practically by watching their managers and supervisors. The adult learners participate in training in the agricultural sector when they are told that training is essential. They expect some reward after training such as a certificate of attendance, even if they cannot apply what they have learned. It is, therefore, essential that managers ensure that adult learners practice what they have learned through training to sharpen their skills and possibly improve their artistry.

1.7. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

The research adopted a qualitative approach. Qualitative research is exploratory and is useful when the researcher does not know the critical variables to examine (Creswell 2009:18). The researcher was prepared to explore the topic as it was new hence the qualitative research method was chosen for this research. Creswell (2009:18) supports this, stating that a suitable method for a new aspect or topic is a qualitative method. The researcher was able to gather the data directly by using focus group discussions,

document analysis and individual interviews or key holder interviews. Creswell (2007:38) confirms that researchers are the ones who gather the information. They do not use or rely on questionnaires or instruments developed by other researchers.

The qualitative method is recommended by Creswell (2007:39). For a research problem that needs to be explored because of the nine (9) common characteristics, namely, natural setting, researcher as key instrument, multiple sources of data, indicative data analysis, participants' meaning, emergent design, theoretical lens, interpretative inquiry and holistic account. It is clear that the researcher needed to adopt the qualitative research approach to explore the role of managers of adult in-service training at an agricultural institution.

1.7.1. Sampling

In this research, cases were selected from focus groups. There are three forms of case research; the exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research (Hamilton & Corbett – Whittier 2013:6). Explanatory research takes the previous two forms a step further as it proceeds to answer or explain the how or why of the issue (Amilton & Corbett – Whittier 2013:7). In this research, the researcher selected case research because the information collected was from the participants' responses.

Sampling for this research was purposeful by using adult learners of the Agricultural Training Institution. Creswell (2007:125) clarifies that the concept of purposeful sampling is used in qualitative research. He further explains that this means that "the enquirer selects individuals and sites for research because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the research" (Creswell 2007:125). The institutions that were purposefully chosen were both agricultural institutions because they could understand the research problem and the prepared questions.

Different samples of participants were used after considering the various factors such as time, funding, as well as access to subjects and to the target population (Soriano 2013:81). Because of differences in the structure of management and the number of employees as well as the size of the farm, there were two chosen training institutions. The participants were selected because they were directly involved as adult learners, trainees or managers of the agricultural institution. Prepared questions were asked from adult leaner trainees in a focus group. Samples of five to six adult leaner trainees were selected for the focus group in each of the agricultural institutions identified. The researcher purposefully selected and approached one line manager, one supervisor, a senior manager and two AgriSETA managers to be interviewed.

1.7.2. Individual Interviews

Individual interviews were conducted with eight (8) participants using an interview guide. One supervisor and two managers from each of the two participating agricultural institutions and two departmental managers at AgriSETA were interviewed. Supervisors, line managers and managers were interviewed about training assessment and its impact on their staff members to influence productivity, skills and knowledge. The departmental managers at AgriSETA were interviewed on the quality of the material used by the agricultural training institutions.

This semi-structured interview method involved the collection of information from participants through real time face to face contact. Utilising interviews requires establishing rapport with participants before querying them (Soriano 2013: 22). With the above mentioned qualitative research interviews, the researcher interrogated the information collected from the participants' point of view. The researcher was able to know from them whether training helped them improve their work or not and to uncover the meaning of their experiences. Interviews allow people to convey to others, individuals' experiences from their perspectives and in their own words.

The questions were clear, simple and adequately organised because the participants were farmers who were in or from training. The participants were adult learners who were

literate, semi-literate or even illiterate. The questions asked were focused on the main research question to help the researcher to record and eventually organise data for analysis. As this was qualitative research, no questionnaires were developed. However, participants were asked questions that were developed by the researcher. The questions were either structured or semi-structured and open-ended for the focus groups and the interviewed individuals.

1.7.3. Focus Groups

Schreiber and Asner-Self (2011:97) posit that “a focus group is a small gathering of participants who are related to your phenomenon of interest and can answer questions for one or two hours in general and genuinely encompasses both a technique for collecting data and a sampling process”. Focus groups, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:450), are a method of obtaining qualitative data from a selected group of individuals. In this research, the two focus groups chosen are in the agricultural sector. “The technique can be used to obtain reactions to planned or existing services, policies or procedures or to learn more about the needs and circumstances of the participants” (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:450). In this research, the focus was on the participants as well as the service providers of agricultural institutions.

The participants, who were given the time to attend in-service training within the company, were interviewed about training in the workplace. The researcher visited the two participating AgriSETA accredited in-service training institutions. Supervisors, line managers and managers were invited to the focus group interview in their respective institutions. During the focus group interviews, there were discussions on how the employees accept training and how willing they were to be trained on site.

1.7.4. Trustworthiness

In this study trustworthiness was obtained through a process of testing the data analysis, findings and conclusions (Nieuwenhuis 2011a:113). Therefore, trustworthiness is defined

by Hinckley (2011:299) as “the way in which the inquirer is able to persuade the audience that findings in the study are worth paying attention to and that the research is of good quality”. The participants were included to gain credibility that refers to confidence in the truth value of the data and interpretations as is stated by Guba and Lincoln (1985). They further add that credibility cannot be attained in the absence of dependability that refers to the stability of data over time and over conditions verifying and validating the findings and controlling for bias. Generalisation will be avoided by seeking to understand from the participants’ perspective, choosing quotes carefully, maintaining confidentiality, anonymity, and stating the boundaries of the study beforehand. Guba and Lincoln (1985). Authenticity emerges in a report when it conveys the feeling tone of participants’ lives as they are lived Guba and Lincoln (1985). The participants’ voice and the conditions of the inquiry and not the researcher’s biases.

1.8. RESEARCH ETHICS

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:142) mention that “ethics generally are considered to deal with beliefs about what is right or wrong, proper or improper, good or bad”. According to Neuman (2003:116) “researchers need to prepare themselves and consider ethical concerns as they design research so that sound ethical practices are built into the research’s design”. The relevance of ethics for this research is that the participants are adult learners. According to Creswell (2007:141), the qualitative researcher has to gain support from the participants and let them know that they are participating in research. The researcher should further be transparent to the participants by explaining to them the nature and purpose of the research. The researcher intended to assure the participants that their consent in participating was strictly for collecting information for the research.

Ethical conduct depends on the individual researcher and his or her morals and integrity. The researcher must respect the works of other researchers and academics. Creswell (2007:141) mentions that “a qualitative researcher faces many ethical issues that surface during data collection in the field and analysis and dissemination of qualitative reports”. It is the researcher’s responsibility to build trust and rapport with all those that are

participating in the research to avoid losing them. The researcher also had to respect the personal dignity of the participants, which in this case are the managers and the employees in the farming and agricultural institutions. The confidentiality and anonymity of the participants and officials were observed during written correspondence and when talking to the members of the selected institutions, and the people to be interviewed before, during and after the research. The work was subjected to the TURNITIN software to check and avoid plagiarism at all costs.

Permission was requested from officials of the agricultural institutions and the in-service providers to interview the employees as a focus group. Ethical clearance for the research was also obtained from the ethical committee in the College of Education at the University of South Africa's Research Ethics Committee before the empirical research commenced.

1.9. LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

1.9.1 Limitations

This research was limited to the Gauteng Province only. According to AgriSeta, there are 805 registered training providers throughout South Africa in the farming industry. The research focused on two agricultural institution that is a training institution and practically farming chickens and vegetables. The information about the institution was collected from AgriSETA. The research focused on the employees' training concerning chickens and vegetables.

1.9.2. Delimitations

The scope and boundaries of this research depended on the relationships and rapport that the researcher built with all the participating institutions. The time allowed and agreed upon had to be fully respected and adhered to by all the parties. It was essential to stick to what the researcher mentioned in the letters of invitation, to avoid mistrust and the

tarnishing of the relationship of both parties.

1.10. KEY CONCEPTS USED IN THE RESEARCH

The basic concepts of this research include management, in-service training, adult learners and agricultural institutions. These are defined below.

1.10.1. Management

Management is the process of dealing with or controlling things or people (Hornby 1997). Management includes the activities of planning and directing an organisation's resources, such as financial, natural, technological and human (Hornby 1997). Management of farming activities would then imply first and foremost the control of land resources on which the farming operations occur. This would include the care of the land and ensuring that it is suitable for agricultural production. The immediate natural resources to take care of in managing a farm are the soil, water, and weather. It is upon these natural resources that the productivity of farming primarily depends. To achieve the management of these resources, the farmer may need to engage in financial resources as well as the human resources. It is through education and training that a farmer can have sufficient knowledge of managing all these diverse resources.

The term "management" may also refer to those people who manage an organisation, also known as managers (Hornby 1997). Managers usually have management skills. These skills include planning, that would enable the manager to set up goals or targets and be able to make plans or strategies of how to achieve those goals. The actions of managers in achieving their goals may involve the allocation of material and human resources. These are complicated actions when it comes to utilising human resources, who are not always passive actors. The manager may have to direct, motivate and supervise the workforce to achieve the organisation's goals. In farming, the manager's task is to make and implement decisions involving the organisation and operation of a farm for maximum production and profit. Farm managers should, therefore, have some knowledge of agricultural economics for information on prices and markets. Farm

managers should also have some analytical skills to be able to identify challenges and opportunities and thereby be able to devise strategies for successful farming.

1.10.2. In-service Training

Training is the action of teaching a person a particular skill or type of behaviour (Hornby 1997). Barbazette (2008:2) mentions that “training exists in an organisation to develop the knowledge and skill that shape attitudes that will help meet a business need. It focuses on the work performed in an enterprise”. Training can also be viewed as the way in which an organisation uses a systematic process to modify the knowledge, skills and behaviour of employees so that it can achieve its objectives. According to Viyayabanu and Amudha (2012:275) “training is a tool to attain individual and organisational needs related to the job undertaken and it is also intended to improve the work culture of the group involved Training entails a programme that assists the leaner in acquiring specific skills that he or she can effectively apply to a particular job or task. It entails the transfer of specific skills to an employee so that he or she can perform a specific job or task”.

Employees may be offered training while on the job. This is called in-service training or service training. According to Eyler and Giles (1999), training is a form of experiential education, where learning occurs through a cycle of action and reflection as students work with others through a process of applying what they learned to community challenges. This happens at the same time and reflects upon their experience as they seek to achieve real objectives for the community and deeper understanding for themselves. In-service training is the best way of training the employees in farming in particular, because farming is practical. Most farmers are adults that are paid, and they need to be trained while they work. The researcher understands in-service training for this research as a tool or a vehicle to be used to develop all employees irrespective of their age and level of education for agriculture.

1.10.3. Adult Learners

Adult learning is facilitated in an environment that suits their need for development, skill and knowledge. Galbraith (2004:23) describes adult learners as “being self-directing, as deriving only positive benefits from the experience, as possessing great readiness to learn, as voluntarily entering an educational activity with a life-centred, task-centred or problem-centred orientation to learning and as being internally motivated”. Galbraith (2004:9) further says “adults are neither super learners nor idle clock–watchers. Their attitudes and efforts are contingency-based. Learning is facilitated in an environment that emphasises the uniquely personal and subjective nature of learning”. It is, therefore, imperative for the farmers to be trained in the environment that they are familiar with and that is practical.

Adult learning in farming is all about enabling adult learners who are farmers and employees to make adjustments to their personal and social lives. Knowles, Holton and Swanson (2012:10) posit that “learning is the act or process by which behavioural change, knowledge, skills and attitudes are acquired”. Learning involves change (Knowles *et al.* 2012:11). The adult learner in this research was be any employee in a farming industry from ages 18 (18) to sixty-five (65) years, who was willing to be developed and recognised on his or her duty by his or her employer on his or her knowledge and experience accumulated on duty.

1.10.4. Agricultural Institutions

Agriculture is the cultivation of land and breeding of animals and plants to provide food, fibre, medicine, plants and other products to sustain and enhance life (Hornby 1997). Agriculture is therefore the production of food on which the majority of the population survives, excluding those that plough and cultivate for their consumption (subsistence farming). Agriculture is viewed as a vital means through which poverty and unemployment can be addressed. An institution, on the other hand, is defined as an organisation that is founded for a religious, educational, professional, or social purpose (ibid). Accordingly, an agricultural institution is a place that was established by the government to help increase the number and variety of viable and sustainable economic, agricultural enterprises. The agricultural institutions are there to promote farming (that is the

cultivation of; animals, plants, fungi and other life forms for food and other products). The Department of Agriculture (2011) adopted the title “Institute” to refer to organisations or companies that carry out their mandate at the highest level. Following the adoption of this “title” by the Department of Agriculture, the Colleges of Agriculture are referred to as Agricultural Training Institutes (ATI) (Department of Agriculture 2011).

When the government, through agricultural departments, started educating and training deprived rural people to become skilled participants of the economy of the country, the farmers began to realise their importance. The government engages various service providers in training the farm employees. It is through these service providers that many farmers are trained to have entrepreneurial and management skills for their farming businesses. Technology has changed the farming industry completely. The methods and equipment are different from what they were before. As proof, agricultural science is now offered at universities and colleges. The owner or manager of a farm depends on the agricultural departments to train, develop and be of service to all the unskilled labourers that he or she has employed.

1.11. PLANNING OF THE RESEARCH

Chapter 1 provided the orientation to the research.

Chapter 2 is dedicated to the theoretical framework regarding different learning theories, in particular, the grounded theory.

Chapter 3 provides the literature review on what other investigators worldwide and in South Africa say about this research.

Chapter 4 focuses on the research methodology.

Chapter 5 focuses on data presentation, analysis and discussion of findings.

Chapter 6 presents and discusses the emerging theory, a summary of findings, recommendations and the conclusion.

1.12. SUMMARY

The introduction and the background of the research have been provided in this chapter. The research problem and the aims of the research have been explained in full. An overview of the research design and methodology including the research ethics, samples, and data collection, have been clearly outlined, and all the concepts have been defined. Every chapter of this research report has been named and explained.

In the next chapter (Chapter Two), the theories of learning that apply to the in-service training of adult learners are explained. Chapter two focuses on the conceptual and theoretical framework of the role of managing in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution. Furthermore, it discusses the history of agricultural institutions and the role they play in the in-service training of adult learners, as well as the impact of managing these institutions in the Gauteng Province in particular. It also assesses the current framework of agricultural in-service training.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the management of adult learners' in-service training in agricultural institutions. These institutions mainly train adult learners. Adult learning in

agricultural in-service institutions is currently prioritised in South Africa to develop adult skills. Masukela, Lubbe and Pelser (2013) posit that skills development through education and training have always been the powerful lever for improving both individual opportunity and institutional competitiveness. It is now mandatory for the management of agricultural institutions providing in-service training to skill their workers. Agriculture is a continuously changing field. Therefore, it is a practical plan and a well-acknowledged fact that many rural communities in developing countries depend reasonably on agriculture. During the 1990s, it became clear that adult learning must be an essential part of all strategies for development (Nafukho, Amutabi & Otunga 2005; National Assessment of Adult Literacy 2003). This implies that its management is equally important and thus should be prioritised in these institutions. It is essential for the management of agricultural institutions to have workforce development programmes that comply with the demands of developing workers and consider their needs as adult learners.

During this era of land distribution in South Africa, it is now imperative and compelling to train people who are meant to advance production, contribute to the economy and eradicate poverty. This is in line with the Sustainable Development Goal four and one, both of which emphasise the promotion of lifelong learning and eradication of poverty respectively, as stated in the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development, Rio+20, in 2012. The National Development Plan (NDP) 2030 proposed a model for a workable and pragmatic land reform based on the principles of a more rapid transfer of agricultural land to black beneficiaries without distorting land markets or business confidence in the agribusiness sector. The NDP equally echoes the importance of skills development and emphasises the need for lifelong learning (NDP 2010). What South Africa currently needs are agricultural workers who are skilled and can be able to contribute significantly to the economy and productive use of land that is currently mooted for distribution. Agricultural Training Institutions mainly offer training to adult learners. However, there is insufficient literature on how these institutions are and can be managed. This presents a challenge and could imply that learners receiving instructions in these institutions are not important. Thus there is a dire need to relook at the history of education

provisioning and instruction in the agricultural sector generally and agricultural institutions in particular.

According to Magher (2018) a conceptual framework determines a theory and methodology for a current research project that uses previous researches to determine the theory.https://classroom.synonym.com/meaning-conceptual-framework-research-6664512.html. A conceptual framework does not only summarise current research that is published, it is much more than a literature review. It takes into consideration all current theories, findings and contexts for one's research question. There are many theories that are used in different research studies. This study utilised the conceptual framework as opposed to the theoretical framework. The theoretical framework is the structure that can hold or support a theory of a research. Theoretical framework introduces and describes the theory that explains why the research problem under investigation exists http://libguides.usc.edu/writingguide/theoreticalframework.) There are different types of theories used by different theorists, researchers and academics. In the current research, the conceptual framework is defined and applied as an intervention. Conceptual framework comprises of concepts and ideas that are organized in such a way that makes communication smooth. It is an organised form of thinking for completing a project (http://www.answers.com/Q/). Conceptual framework can be effective in answering the research question that explores the role of management in managing the in-service training of adult learners in agricultural institutions.

As a consistent and comprehensive theoretical framework emerging from an inductive integration of previous literature, theories, and other pertinent information define conceptual framework (Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003). These authors continue to mention that it is usually the basis for reframing the research questions and formulating hypotheses, or making informal tentative predictions about the possible outcome of a study. According to Shields and Hassan (2006:315), a conceptual framework "acts like a map to provide coherence for an empirical inquiry, and is used in research to outline possible courses of action, or to present a preferred approach to an idea or thought".

2.2. THE HISTORY OF AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTIONS

Agricultural institutions in their nature have been set up to train workers and or prospective workers in agricultural nuances. Since the establishment of the democratic South African government in 1994, visionary policies and programmes, strategies and agricultural education, and training governance structures have been established (Didiza 2005). These are supported by sound legislation. In 2005, the National Agricultural Education and Training Strategy was launched with the aim to address the needs of the country's economy and improvement of agricultural production through quality agricultural education and training. The implementation of the AET strategy was supported by the establishment of a National Agricultural Education and Training Forum (NAETF). Considering that the AET strategy outlines the mechanisms for addressing identified disparities in education provision and access to opportunities, an analysis of agricultural education and training barriers is essential.

There is a lack of formal Agricultural Education and Training (AET) and a lack of knowledge and understanding of agriculture as an essential aspect of education in the agricultural sector (AET 2006). This poses a threat towards the sector ably contributing to the country's economy because of insufficient education programmes that could enable this to happen. Therefore, food supply may be endangered because there are inadequate means of skills transfer. At the launch of the College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences at the University of South Africa (UNISA) in August 2006, the Honourable Minister of Agriculture and Land Affairs, Ms L Xingwana (2006), stated that the National Agricultural Education and Training Forum (NAETF) would lead to a programme of action. While that is the position, agricultural training and management are still inadequate.

2.2.1. Agricultural Institutions pre-democratic dispensation

To contextualise the historical development of agricultural institutions in South Africa, it is prudent to refer to the historical development of farming in this country. Since land possession is the pillar of agricultural activities, it is necessary to allude to land possession

and dispossession that was carried out by the early colonialists since they arrived in South Africa about four hundred years ago. As a result of the various colonial strategies of dispossessing the indigenous people off their land, it culminated in the Native Lands Act of 1913. The Act prohibited the establishment of new farming operations, sharecropping and or cash rentals by Blacks as indigenous people, outside of the reserves (Deininger 1999). Indigenous farmers were consequently confined to only 13 per cent of all South African land (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EroMc8qGxdE). Because of the small size of land allocated to each indigenous farmer, they could only produce for subsistence on communally owned land. Fortunately, this is being reversed in the new dispensation.

Before the new political dispensation, the agricultural training institutions, therefore, served mainly the interests of the predominantly White commercial farmers who needed skilled labour for their commercialised agricultural production. Skills training in agriculture were to serve mainly these commercial farming enterprises. There are those agricultural institutions that were established by the Apartheid regime after 1948 under the policy of separate development mainly to serve subsistence agricultural areas of the then farmer of that regime, which was revised in 2009 though the amendment bill property and land act to comply with requirements of the new dispensation.

2.2.2. Agricultural Institutions in the new dispensation

Research by Alston, LIbecap and Muller (1997) indicates that the definition of property rights plays a relevant role in natural resources preservation. It pointed out that the lack of legal titles is one cause of violent conflicts and is associated with forest depletion in Brazil. The research suggested the need for a more efficient governmental mechanism to supply and protect property rights. In this context, it is the property rights for people to own land for agricultural purposes in South Africa.

Emanating from the ideals of the Freedom Charter which states that the land shall be shared among those who work it and that restrictions of land ownership on a racial basis shall be ended (Freedom Charter 1955), the new dispensation has paid attention to the question of land distribution and ownership. The Freedom Charter also alludes to the need of the state to help the farm labourers with implements, seeds, tractors and dams

to conserve the soil and assist the tillers. The question of freedom of movement to enable anyone to occupy land wherever they choose, was also guaranteed.

The ideals of the Freedom Charter were included in the drafting of the Constitution of South Africa in 1996. Clause 25 of the Constitution protects property rights, mainly the right to own land (RSA, 1996), which is currently under review. According to Keefer, Philip, Knack and Stephen (2002: 127) “these property rights are fundamental as not only do they empower farm workers (who now have the opportunity to become farmers) and reduce inequality”. Their transaction costs are less than larger plots of hired labour (Van den Brink, Rogier, Sonwabo Thomas & Binswanger 2007). Many of these family members were unemployed. Therefore, the previously unemployed people will now participate in the economy and better the country's economic growth (Torstensson 1994).

The new dispensation adopted land reform as a government policy. The land reform process focused on three areas: restitution, land tenure reform and land redistribution (Moseley, McCusker & Brent 2010). Land restitution was one of the promises made by the African National Congress when it came to power in South Africa in 1994. Under the Land Restitution Act of 1994, persons or communities who lost their property as a result of Apartheid laws or practices after 1913 were invited to submit claims for restitution (return of land) or compensation (usually financial). The intention was to enable those who mainly want land for commercial use to have land tenured. Land tenure reform is a system of recognising people's right to own land and therefore control of the land, hence the need to redistribute such land.

Land Redistribution is the most essential component of land reform in South Africa. According to redistribution policy, the land was bought from its owners (willing seller) by the government (willing buyer) and redistributed, in order to maintain public confidence in the land market (Lahiff 2008). Initially, land was distributed with compensation. With the slow progress of land transfer, there is now a call for land distribution without compensation (Republic of South Africa: Parliament 2018). This has vast insinuations on agricultural institutions and their management.

It is reported by the Financial and Fiscal Commission (2016) that the South African government has invested more than R60bn into land reform projects since 1994. Despite

this investment, the land improvement programme, as mentioned by Dawood (2016) has, however, not stimulated development in the targeted rural areas, and that land reform as a mechanism for agricultural development and job creation has failed.

2.2.3. The role played by agricultural institutions

Zylbersztajn (2009) states that the world of agriculture is changing, imposing the challenge to acclimatise the global mechanisms to deal with growth and development. The high economic growth, rapid urbanisation and changing consumption patterns are the visible signals of a much deeper global adjustment rooted in how societies are dealing with its institutions. Zylbersztajn (2009) further submits that economists, including agriculture economists largely neglected the role of institutions and organisations until recently because things started to change with the contribution of Coase (1991) and the new institutional economics to the analysis of modern organisations. He further regarded two aspects of institutions to be of particular importance for analysis. First is the significance of institutions to outline the incentive structure that affects the decisions of economic actors, triggering economic development, possibly through agricultural activity, among others. Second, is the impact of institutions in shaping the microstructure of the economy. In other words, economic actors respond to changes in the institutional environment, to reorganise the way that complex contracts of production are organised. (Coase1991; Williamson1996).

The changing profile of global food demand as indicated by Zylbersztajn (2009) has to adapt to match new standards of quality and socio-environmental balance that are globally organised. Produce at a cost compatible with the needs of the society, particularly relevant for low-income countries will also be adopted. What links local and global influences are the cost impacts of the increasing regulatory measures as well as the food quality and safety standards. Agriculture shows a trend to reduce the variability of technologies towards more rigid production systems. Therefore, not only the technological standards are affected but also the regional specialisation tends to change (ibid).

Acemoglu and Robinson (2008) argue that the main determinants of differences in prosperity across countries are differences in economic institutions. Moreover, that to solve the problem of development will entail reforming these institutions. Agricultural training institutions are, therefore, vital in providing the knowledge and technologies needed to cope with these changes.

2.2.4. The regulatory mandate for agricultural education

Agriculture in South Africa remains an important sector despite its relatively small contribution to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The sector plays an essential role regarding job creation, especially in rural areas. However, it is also a foremost earner of foreign exchange. Agriculture's prominent indirect role in the economy is a result of backward and forward linkages with other sectors. Purchases of intermediate goods and services form backward linkages with the manufacturing sector, while forward linkages are established through the supply of raw materials to industry.

AgriSA, is a federation of agricultural organisations, that was established in 1904 as the South African Agricultural Union consisting of nine provincial and 24 commodity organisations. It has been promoting the development, profitability, stability and sustainability of primary agriculture in South Africa by means of its involvement and input on national and international policy and the implementation thereof (Economic Review of South African Agriculture 2016).

Essentially AgriSA, through its affiliated membership, represents a diverse grouping of individual farmers regardless of gender, colour or creed. AgriSA's policy advocacy includes work on trade negotiations, industrial policy, taxation, financing, land reform, labour laws, training, farmer development, environmental affairs, water rights and water pricing, other input-related issues, farm safety, law and order, infrastructure, technology development and transfer, statistical information and local government AgriSA Policy (2014).

Furthermore, the organisation maintains an extensive communication network with its members and other affected communities, organisations and individuals. Approximately 70% of agricultural output is used as intermediate products (Engelbrecht 2012). Agriculture is, therefore, a crucial sector and a key driver of growth for the rest of the economy – a fact also acknowledged in policy-related documents such as the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030.

The NDP acknowledges that rural areas in South Africa are still characterised by great poverty and inequality, with many households trapped in a vicious cycle of poverty. Essentially, the NDP entails that agriculture, both emerging and commercial, should still be afforded the opportunity to contribute optimally to economic growth, job creation, foreign exchange earnings and development of the industrial sector within a safe and non-discriminatory environment. The NDP proposed model for a workable and pragmatic land reform is based on the following principles: Enable a more rapid transfer of agricultural land to Black beneficiaries without distorting land markets or business confidence in the agribusiness sector (NDP 2010). Ensure sustainable production on transferred land by making sure that human capabilities precede land transfer through incubators, learnerships, mentoring, apprenticeships and accelerated training in agricultural sciences. The NDP further recommended an improvement and extension of skills development in the agricultural sector including entrepreneurship training that this should include training a new cadre of extension officers to respond to the needs of smallholding farmers and contribute to their integration into the food value chain. Farmer-to-farmer skills transfer must be encouraged to help develop a new generation of farmers. The responsibility of Agricultural institutions is to facilitate such skills transfer training. Every effort must be made to deracialise the agricultural sector. The NDP, however, still has to be backed by legislation to execute its recommendations.

Agricultural institutions are designed to skill agricultural workers or prospective workers to be able to grasp intricacies of agriculture in its entirety. The government has made provision for the skilling of agricultural workers through the skills development fund. The

Services Sector Education and Training Authority (Services Seta) was established and registered in March 2000 in terms of the Skills Development Act of 1998 and is responsible for the disbursement of the training levies payable by all employers. The agricultural sector is in turn taken care of by the AgriSETA for the purpose which enables learners to get skilled in agricultural institutions. Agricultural institutions are designed to skill agricultural workers or prospective workers to be able to grasp intricacies of agriculture in its entirety.

2.2.5 Indigenous learning for adult learners in agricultural institutions– shadowing elders in training

Mushi (2009) defines African indigenous education as a process of passing among the tribal members and from one generation to another the inherited knowledge, skills, cultural traditions norms and values of the tribe. African indigenous education was a lifelong process of learning whereby a person progressed through predetermined stages of the life of graduation from the cradle to the grave (Cameroon & Dodd 1970). This implies that African indigenous education was continuous from childhood to old age. May and Aikman (2003) state that indigenous education specifically focuses on teaching indigenous knowledge, models, methods, and content within formal or non-formal educational systems. The growing recognition and use of indigenous education methods can be a response to the erosion and loss of indigenous knowledge through the processes of colonialism, globalisation, and modernity. Indigenous communities can reclaim and revalue their languages and traditions as mentioned by May and Aikman (2003), and in so doing, improve the educational success of indigenous students, thus ensuring their survival as a culture.

Increasingly, as Merriam and Caffarella (2007) stressed that there had been a global shift towards recognising and understanding indigenous models of education as a viable and legitimate form of education. There are many different educational systems throughout the world; some are more predominant and widely accepted. However, members of indigenous communities celebrate diversity in learning and see this global support for

teaching traditional forms of knowledge as a success. Merriam *et al.* (2007) continue to say that many postmodern scholars have viewed the original ways of knowing, learning, instructing, teaching, and training as important. It is for the benefit of the education of students and teachers, whether indigenous or non-indigenous. In a culturally sensitive manner, education draws upon, utilises, promotes, and enhances awareness of indigenous traditions, beyond the standard Western curriculum of reading, writing and arithmetic.

Roth (1998:11) points out that “learning is not only the result of individual sense-making efforts but involves interactions between all living and what he calls ‘artefactual’ components of a community of participants". He challenges particularly science educators to reconsider the gloss which they may have painted over the social dimension of knowledge construction. The notion of knowledge in its social context would, therefore, embrace both declarative. That is the specific cultural, traditional and community facts, as well as the procedural; the peculiar or general processes in knowledge construction. “In this sense, IKS could be linked to the scientific literacy of learners which is not hermetically sealed off from the outside” (Brighouse & Woods 1999:99). However, it involves an understanding of the social organisation and practices of science whereby knowledge claims are transmitted into public knowledge, and of the influence of science or the broader culture, and *vice versa* (Driver, Leach, Millar and Scott 1996)

According to van Wyk (2002) the broader implications of IKS as such, regarding its political, interpersonal, policy, institutional, linguistic and cognitive, methodology and ethical principles, hold tremendous value for science and technology educators in grasping and changing their long-held personal and systemic dysfunctional practices. This partnership shall empower all students to develop healthy self-esteem and to become responsible learners and decision makers (http://www.stauntonschools.org/article/40166?org=district). Regarding IKS the school, in this context, agricultural institutions, will always be the pivotal location (Cornbleth 1990:110) to facilitate greater communication between and among the diverse learners, educators and institutions within communities. Science and technology educators can thus "avoid the standard didacticism of mathematics and science teaching" (Hawkins

1990:121) by facilitating interactive, exciting and exploratory approaches that will include learners from all backgrounds. In acknowledging the role of IKS, educators will soon learn that learners are no longer margins and centres but all centres (Prakash & Esteva 1998:114-115).

Indigenous knowledge is particularly necessary to modern environmental management in today's world. Hall, SefaDeo and Rosenberg (2000) are of the opinion that the environmental and land management strategies traditionally used by indigenous peoples have continued relevance. Indigenous cultures usually live in a particular bioregion for many generations and have learned how to live there sustainably. In modern times, this ability often puts truly indigenous cultures in a unique position of understanding the interrelationships, needs, resources, and dangers of their bioregion. (Hall *et al.* (2000) continue to highlight that this is not true of indigenous cultures that have been eroded through colonialism or genocide or that have been displaced.

The promotion of indigenous methods of education and the inclusion of traditional knowledge also enables those in Western and post-colonial societies to re-evaluate the inherent hierarchy of knowledge systems. (Hall *et al.* (2000) further mention that Western educators historically denigrated indigenous Knowledge Systems; however, there is a current shift towards recognising the value of these traditions. Therefore, it is required from us that we acknowledge the addition of aspects of indigenous education to the existence of multiple forms of knowledge rather than one, standard, benchmark system (*ibid*).

It is by the findings of these different authors that the significance of the management of adult in-service training is examined.

2.3. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF MANAGING AN AGRICULTURAL ADULT IN-SERVICE TRAINING

This research is about evaluating the role of managers in managing in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution. Employer Guide to Adult Education for Work (2009), posits that the purpose of these institutions is to help develop the current situation of the semiskilled and unskilled status of workers and to skill them to be productive

agricultural farmers who may eventually become independent farmers. This means agricultural institutions must conduct skills analysis of their workers to identify needs for training. It, therefore, makes it compelling for managers in such contexts to ensure that their workers are developed to be productive in their work. Agriculture in its nature is about mass production of food and livestock for various purposes such as personal gain, eradication of poverty or participation in the economy (Employer Guide to Adult Education for Work 2009). This is a massive task regarding competencies. Thus, skills development of these workers must be prioritised to ensure that they are competent and, therefore, can be able to contribute towards mass production of agricultural supplies.

2.3.1. The management of adult in-service training in Agricultural institutions

Institutions that require advancement of their employees invest in managing their workers' development and advancement. Management of adult learning in agricultural in-service institutions is currently prioritised in South Africa (Agricultural education and training 2006). It is now mandatory for the management of agricultural institutions providing in-service training to skill their workers. The body in South Africa maintains that due to high unskilled workers, training of adult learners as part of workers' development should be prioritised (AET 2006). This calls for the management of these institutions to have workforce development programmes to comply with these requirements. During this era of land distribution in South Africa, it is now imperative and compelling to train people who are meant to advance production, contribute to the economy and eradicate poverty. This is in line with the Sustainable Development Goal one. What South Africa currently needs, is agricultural workers who are skilled and can be able to contribute significantly to the economy and productive use of land that is currently mooted for distribution.

2.3.2. Managing in-service training in agricultural institutions

Binkley, Erstad, Herman, Raizen, Ripley and Miller-Ricci (2012) are of the opinion that it is essential to pay attention to harness the skills necessary for new ways of working collaboratively. The ways of working skills comprised of communication skills and collaboration skills in the context of globalisation. The managers in the agricultural

institutions will gain confidence, and they will have the resources that will enable them to connect their employees at the more demanding level of agriculture. To address this concern, we urge the transformation of the current Adult Education System in South Africa to an Adult Education for Work system that provides the education and training. Low-skilled adults need to become prepared for post-secondary education or training that will lead to family-sustaining employment and career advancement. Setlhodi (2018) suggests that learning programmes for these adult learners have to create support mechanisms, particularly guidance, in the form of mentorship, to enable these adults to succeed.

2.3.2.1 The Purpose of Managing an Agricultural Adult In-service Training

This research is about evaluating the impact of managing in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution. The purpose of these institutions is to help develop the current situation of semiskilled and unskilled status of workers and to skill them to be productive agricultural farmers who may eventually become independent farmers (Davis & Jayaratne, 2015). It, therefore, makes it compelling for managers in such contexts to ensure that their workers are developed to be productive in their work. Agriculture in its nature is about mass production of food and livestock for various purposes such as personal gain, eradication of poverty or participation in the economy. Thus, it becomes a significant principle for institutions to skill their workers. This study argues that the agricultural development of workers as adult learners relies on seven essential principles:

* The partnership between the service providers and the management of agricultural institutions

* Skills development and preparation of adult learners in these institutions should be a priority for workers' advancement

* A well-structured training programme that is focused on workers' career pathing is necessary as a structure that provides opportunities for workers to ultimately become independent farmers and contributors of agricultural supplies for the economy

*Establishing the role of management of agricultural in-service training institutions for adult learners who are workers in those institutions

* Instituting measures that can be taken to evaluate the impact of managing the training of adult learners as workers

* Investigating abilities of adult learners after in-service training to assess their competence

* Determining the impact of the in-service training of adult learners at an agricultural institution.

Managers of agricultural institutions as centres of learning for adult workers ought to perhaps consider such principles for their institutions to prosper. Managing of adult learning in these service training institutions should be structured in such a way that an optimum number of workers benefit. Managing of institutions in research implies the running of training projects that are meant to skill adult learners in the agricultural sector.

2.3.2.2. What Does Management of Adult In-service Training Currently Provide

According to the employment guide for education, seamless career pathways would be identified and offered that will make it far easier for adults to learn, especially those with limited basic Agricultural or English language skills (The National Centre on Education and the Economy (NCEE) 2009). The management of Agricultural institutions that require advancement of their employees invests in adult in-service training for the development and advancement of their workers. There is a need to reform our nation's education and workforce systems to enable low-skilled adults through the management of adult in-service training. Employers are not the only partners in this system. Adult Education for Work programmes that are part of a career pathways' system requires a community-wide effort if they are to provide the full range of services and support to all adults, particularly low-skilled adults who need to succeed (Moore, Akeredolu, Edwards, Annor-Frempong & Moriba 2016).

2.3.2.3. The key quality elements of managing adult in-service training projects

Key elements of learning in an agricultural institution involve collaboration between various stakeholders. This implies that the management of these institutions has to build stakeholder relationships that can be able to achieve the objectives of the training programmes. NECC (2009) argues that the significance of adult in-service training is that it serves as a pre-cursor for skills development and preparation of adult learners in these institutions. Therefore, the management has to prioritise employees' training for their development programme.

The role of management, as a result, should be to channel efforts on designing programmes that suit the training needs of their employees as established from the training needs' analysis of their institutions. Continuous evaluation of training programmes and material by managers is essential to ensure that programmes are relevant and able to address skills gaps of employees and the evaluation of the impact of their training programmes. This could be in the form of investigating the abilities of adult learners after in-service training to assess their competence and determine the impact of in-service training. The preceding therefore imply that employees' development should be prioritised (https://weemancom.files.wordpress.com/2011/06/discuss-the-key-elements-of-total-quality-management.pdf).

2.4. THE NATURE OF ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education is a different from traditional education of younger people. According to Merriam and Brochett (2007) Adult education is a practice in which adults engage in systematic and sustained self-educating activities in order to gain new forms of knowledge, skills, attitudes, or values. It can mean any form of learning adults engage in beyond traditional schooling, encompassing basic literacy to personal fulfillment as a lifelong learner.

The Canadian Encyclopedia, (Retrieved 28/04/2019) states that adult education reflects, in particular, a specific philosophy about learning and teaching based on the assumption

that adults can and want to learn, that they are able and willing to take responsibility for that learning, and that the learning itself should respond to their needs.

According to Fernwick, Nesbit & Spencer (2006) Adult learning happens in many ways and in many contexts just as all adults' lives differ. Adult learning can be in any of the three contexts, i.e.:

- Formal – Structured learning that typically takes place in an education or training institution, usually with a set curriculum and carries credentials;
- Non-formal – Learning that is organized by educational institutions but non credential. Non-formal learning opportunities may be provided in the workplace and through the activities of civil society organizations and groups;
- Informal education – Learning that goes on all the time, resulting from daily life activities related to work, family, community or leisure (e.g. community baking class.

2.5. MANAGING ADULT LEARNING

Adult education tends to be conceptualised and defined as literacy, basic education, and livelihood-related skills training (Aitchison & Alidou 2009). These authors continue to mention that adult basic education, is aimed at being conceived and designed for adults to provide a conceptual foundation towards lifelong learning and development. Additionally, it comprises of Knowledge, skills and attitudes required for social, economic and political participation and transformation applicable to a range of contexts. According to Duncan (2010), we need to prepare our students to be competitive for jobs with their peers in other countries.

This type of learning may be conducted in the mother tongue or, more frequently, in a dominant language (Aitchison & Alidou 2009). While that is the position, adult learning and training in the agricultural sector is gaining popularity in South Africa. The current trend is to become more formal and certificated and equivalent to formal schooling.

However, it is also hampered by other factors such as language barriers, reading and writing because adults in the farming industry are either literate, semi-literate or illiterate.

Adult learning should, therefore, be managed in such a manner that it achieves its purpose of skilling learners and achieving the essential goals of sustainable development programmes. The dynamic forces are colliding, spurring growing consensus about the need to reform our nation's education and workforce systems to better enable low-skilled adults, including those without high school credentials, to pursue further education and ultimately family-sustaining employment (The National Centre on Education and the Economy (NCEE) 2009). As stated by NCEE (2009) adult education for work should be the cornerstone of a broader career pathways' education and training system designed to meet the full range of skills needs of the nation's workforce—providing more effective and efficient services for adults. In a comprehensive career pathways system, managing of adult learning in in-service training implies the running of projects that are meant for skilling adult learners in the agricultural sector. It is, therefore, imperative to examine the role of management in adult in-service training in this research. Among the factors associated with adult learning is the concept of "Ubuntu".

2.6 UBUNTU – THE PARADIGM FOR MANAGING ADULT LEARNING IN AGRICULTURAL TRAINING CENTRES

Ubuntu is an isiZulu word denoting the value Ubuntu, which means a person is a person because of others. It is about being humane (Setlhodi 2018a). Leaders are expected to be humane in their leadership roles by showing the values of respect and compassion for their followers. Bandura (2005) suggests that there are three central tenets of *Ubuntu:* consensus building, dialogue, and spirituality, and that leaders and managers should be guided by these tenets in all that they do. For instance, the consensus tenet of *Ubuntu* requires authentic respect for individual rights and cultural values and an honest appreciation of differences among various African cultures and other cultures from within and without Africa (Nafukho, Wawire & Lam 2011). Broodryk (2010) postulates that Ubuntu depicts the intrinsic values that possibly resemble African cultures and are

embraced within communities. This implies that leaders have to be aware of such values, in order to embrace people from diverse cultures under their leadership. In the case of the managers and leaders of adult education organisations in Africa, there is the need to create an organisational climate in which people are made to realise the fundamental principle of *ubuntu* – 'I am because we are', and 'None of us is greater than all of us' (Nafukho *et al.,* 2011). It is, therefore, essential that we examine the relevance and importance of Ubuntu in the management of adult in-service training in the context of this research.

There has been an increasing interest in the role culture plays in determining human relations, and in addressing societal problems (Harris & Jones 2017: 432). Every society, since the beginning of time, has developed its mechanisms and institutions for addressing problems in a way that preserves the integrity and fabric of the society, culture and values (Nafukho *et al.,* 2011). It has been noted, '… the rate at which individuals and organisations learn may become the only sustainable competitive advantage because of culture and values (Stata 1989: 64). Setlhodi (2018b) agrees that learning and the leverage of knowledge are the significant determinants of success for organisations in the twenty-first century and specific core values underpin these. This implies that leaders and managers have to consider these in their role and employ Ubuntu and related values such as responsibility and accountability to achieve required learning outcomes. Learning outcomes are the key to adapting to a complex, rapidly changing and uncertain climate (Nafukho *et al.* 2011). Nafukho *et al.* (ibid) further state that a leader can build upon the spirit of togetherness that *Ubuntu* invokes to encourage learning to achieve their, and their organisations' goals.

2.6. SUMMARY

Agricultural Institutions in the South African pre-democratic dispensation served mainly to provide skilling of workforce to serve commercialised agriculture. Only a few training institutions were dedicated to the subsistence agricultural areas. It is only after the new dispensation that serious thought was given to the training of farm workers for agricultural development throughout the country. The purpose of these institutions is to help develop

the current situation of the semiskilled and unskilled status of workers and to skill them to be productive agricultural farmers who may eventually become independent farmers. It is, therefore, of importance to have an efficient system of management of training, especially adult in-service training at the agricultural institutions. This research specifically examined the management of adult in-service training at the agricultural institutions. The following chapter reviews the literature related to this research.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter three discusses the conceptualisation of the title “the role of managing the in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution”, by referring to the views of different writers. The reviewed information is from books, journals and articles of peer-reviewed researchers. The literature review of this study is not only to contextualise the present study but also to establish possible gaps that may be filled. The literature review provides the necessary knowledge that will help to generate sets of questions for the questionnaire and interviews.

3.2 SERVICE LEARNING

Eyler and Giles (1999) view service learning as occurring through a cycle of action and reflection as students learn from others while applying what they learned to community problems. The objectives of service learning are to acquire knowledge for self as well as for the community. Hence the need for the learner to continually reflect upon their experience as they seek to achieve real objectives for the community and more profound understanding for themselves. Frankel (2000: 132) agrees that service learning is the type of learning where both community needs and personal education growth are accomplished. Bransford, Brown and Cocking (2016), on the other hand, regard service learning as the theoretical application of knowledge to practical situations. According to Connors and Selfer (2005) and Moon (1999), service learning is synonymous with community service learning, academic service learning, community-based learning and experiential learning.

There are, therefore, two components of service learning. There is the individual learning component and the community course engagement components. Connors and Selfer (2005) and Moon (1999) state that the ultimate goal of service learning is to engage the learner in various activities that can benefit communities, while the learner gains

knowledge and experience. Furco (1996) states that service learning is comparable to community service and volunteerism, but that it differs from these activities in its objectives. Whereas the objectives of community service and volunteerism are to benefit the communities, the objective of service learning is to give learners an opportunity to gain hands on experience to further their educational goals, which include a deeper understanding of the course content. Furco (ibid) argues that while the emphasis in community service or volunteerism is on the services provided, service learning emphasises both individual learning and the community service. Frankel (2000: 132) avers that “service learning is not a programme of charitable endeavours, where one party is the giver and the other the taker”. In-Service learning there is, therefore, both the academic component and the community component and is designed such that the service and learning goals are mutually reinforcing. Eyler and Giles (1999) proposed Figure 3.1 below to illustrate the critical components of service learning.

Fig 3.1 The Key Components of Service Learning by Eyler and Giles (1999)

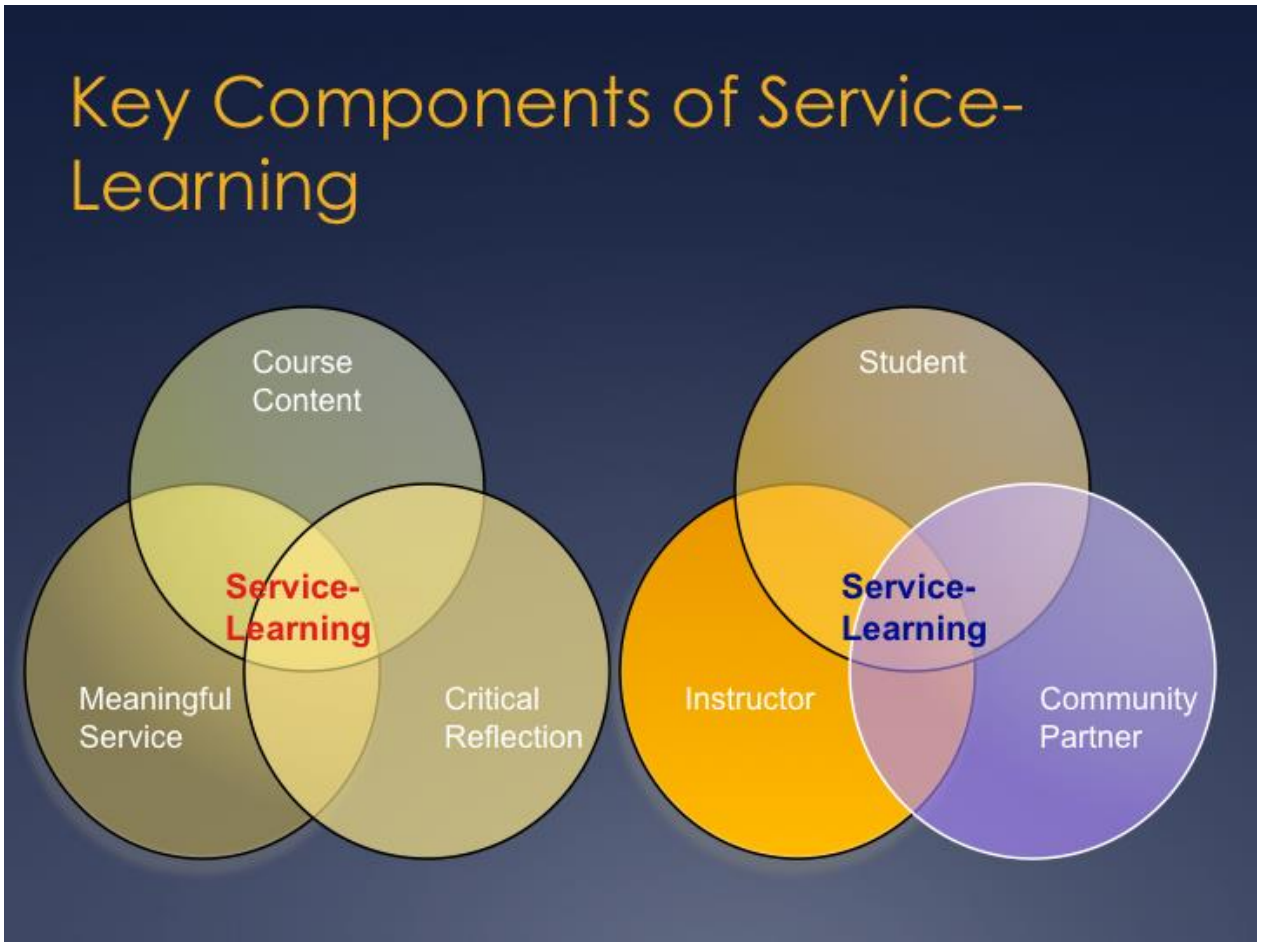


Fig. 3.1 is a model by Eyler and Giles (1999) that illustrates their conception of service learning. The model on the right clearly shows the student and community as the two-component beneficiaries of service learning which is managed by the instructor. Eyler and Giles (ibid) argue that the service learning model aligns closely with the principles and theories of John Dewey (1933). Bransford, Brown and Cocking, (eds) (2000 p.16) regard service learning as a form of experiential learning which facilitates a broad approach to learning. They regard service learning to produce deep learners who can apply learned knowledge (Bransford *et al.*, 2000: 16). This profound learner idea is also held by Swartz et al. (1998), who are of the opinion that the community-based nature of service learning exposes the learner to experiences that promote deep learning. Swartz

et al. (ibid) state that students are more motivated to learn when they see the usefulness of what they are learning and believe their knowledge can contribute something to their local communities. Briggs (1999), Entwistle (1981), Prosser and Trigwell (1999) as well as Ramsden (2003) all hold a similar opinion. They also hold the view that when students have opportunities to use classroom knowledge actively, they develop a better understanding of when and how knowledge can be applied in different contexts.

3.2.1 The Concept of Training

Training is defined as “the process of learning the skills needed for the performance of a particular job or activity” (https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary).
It is also defined as a planned programme of imparting information and instructions to a learner with the objective of improving the learner’s performance (www.businessdictionary.com/). The International Journal of Asian Social Science (2013: 266 – 281) parallels the above definitions. The journal further states that by improving the learner’s performance, training is an investment on people for the benefit of society as a whole.

The International Journal of Asian Social Science (2013: 266 – 281) lists five different types service training, namely: “(1) induction or orientation training, (2) foundation training, (3) on the job training, (4) refresher or maintenance training, and (5) career development training. All of these types of training are needed for the proper development of extension staff throughout their service life”.

3.2.2 Pre-service Training

There are generally two types of training: pre-service training and in-service training. Pre-service training is training that is provided to an individual before that individual is employed. Shrivastava (1983) regards pre-service training as the more academic type of training that is offered by formal institutions following definite curricula and syllabuses. Usually, the result of formal education is the awarding of a formal degree or diploma. The training department, define the goals and objectives of formal training, instructional

designer and instructor (Shrivastava 1983). Formal learning is also referred to as structured learning that should typically end with a formal learning evaluation. There are instances where learners are not formally evaluated at the end of the training, an omission that surprises Gottfredson and Mosher (2011: 3-4).

3.2.3 In-service Training

Barbazette (2008: 2) states that there is training generally in an organisation to develop knowledge and employee skills and to shape attitudes that will help meet business needs. This type of training is known as in-service or on the job training. The objective of an in-service programme is staff development, wherein the organisation aims to achieve the development of knowledge and skills of employees (Shrivastava 1983).

Dermol and Cater (2013: 324–348) believe that it is essential for employees to be able to adapt quickly to frequent changes in their workplace and that for this to happen, it would require a constant improvement of their existing knowledge, the development of new skills and adaptation of their habits. Garvin et al., (2008) and Richey (2000) concurs with the employees' needs for adaptation to positive changes in their jobs.

Organisations have since regarded the training and retraining of their employees as an essential activity for both employers and employees alike (Barbazette (2008: 2). The desire on the part of the organisation to remain in step with economic and technological change, and to stay competitive in the marketplace is what motivates organisations to train their employees.

On the job training may be organised on an *ad hoc* basis or it may be carried out regularly as scheduled training. It may be provided by a senior officer or some subject matter specialists (http://businesscasestudies.co.uk/aldi/business-expansion-through-training-and-development/on the job-training.html). This training is generally technology- or problem-oriented and may include formal presentations, informal discussions, and opportunities to try out new skills and knowledge in the field. The superior officer, administrator, or subject matter specialist of each extension department plays a role in providing on the job training to the staff while conducting normal day-to-day activities.

Bersin (2008:1) states that “corporate training makes up one of the largest discretionary expenditures in organisations. Organisations spend as much as 3 to 4 per cent of payroll on this important area yet few are able to measure its effectiveness, efficiency and impact adequately”.

3.3 TRAINING OF ADULT LEARNERS

3.3.1 Contextualising Adult Learners

An adult is a person who has grown to full size and strength, generally aged above 18 years. Viewed from a psychological point, Knowles (1983: 56) classifies an adult as a person who has reached a point at which he/she perceives himself/herself to be entirely in control of his/her life. Knowles (1983: 56) further states that adulthood is a point at which the person feels the need to be viewed by others as being capable of controlling his/her life. Pappas (2013) lists eight characteristics of adults namely, maturity, self-confidence, autonomy, solid decision making, practicality, multi-tasking, purposefulness, self-directedness, experienced and less open-minded and receptive to change. These characteristics of adults differentiate their capability and rate of learning from that of younger persons.

Knowles (1983: 56), in his theory of adult learning, makes the following five assumptions about adult learners:

1. Self-concept:

When a person moves from being a child to being an adult, he/she becomes more conscious of being independent in thought and action. Brookfield (1986) identifies two immediate problems with this assumption;

- First, there are some elements of self-directedness in children’s learning. Brookfield (1986: 93) states that children are not always dependent learners and, quoting from Tennant (1988) he states that for children, learning is a natural activity which occurs spontaneously (Tennant 1988: 21).

- Brookfield (1986: 93) also believes that self-concept is a culturally bound concept which may not necessarily apply to all cultural groups.

2. Experience:

Knowles (1980: 43) holds the view that a person's maturity, accumulates when his/her experience becomes resourceful for learning. The author further states that adults learn more effectively through discussion or problem-solving. Brookfield (1986: 93) queries this assumption by pointing out that discussions and problem-solving may not always be possible. Brookfield (ibid) further argues against this assumption by stating that accumulation of experience is not depended on age alone and that some children accumulate more experience than expected of them.

3. Readiness to Learn:

Adults have social roles to perform which makes adults more ready to learn because of the need to perform these social roles. Tennant (1988: 21-22), however, finds it difficult to see how this assumption has any implication for the process of learning. Tennant (ibid), maintains that children also perform social roles.

Knowles (1983: 56) states that the relevance of study or education becomes clear as it is needed to carry out a particular task. Discussing the implications of the assumption on Adult education programmes, Knowles (1980: 44) states that "Adult education programmes should be organised around 'life application' categories and sequenced according to learner's readiness to learn" (Knowles 1980: 44), a statement regarded by Tennant (1988: 21-22), as problematic. Brookfield (1986: 93) regards Knowles' statement of "sequencing according to learner's readiness to learn" as reducing the learning process into objectives and stages. The second problem mentioned by Brookfield (1986: 93) is Knowles' classification of social roles into worker, mother, friend, and so on. According to Brookfield (ibid), this classification assumes the legitimacy of existing social relationships.

4. Orientation to learning:

Knowles' (1983: 56) assumption here is that "as a person matures his time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly his orientation towards learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to one of problem centeredness". Knowles (ibid) further states that it follows from this assumption that if young children were not conditioned to be subject-centred, then they would be problem-centered in their approach to learning. Tennant (1988: 22) argues that this assumption does not relate to age or maturity but relates instead to the effectiveness of teaching. Tennant (ibid) suggests that a reverse argument can be made for adults being better able to tolerate the postponed application of knowledge.

Brookfield (1986: 93) argues that the focus on competence and 'problem centeredness' in Assumptions 3 and 4 undervalues a large amount of learning undertaken by adults for its innate fascination. According to many adults (ibid) they undertake to learn with no specific goal in mind. "Learning to them is unrelated to life tasks and instead represents a means by which adults can define themselves" (Brookfield 1986: 99).

***5. Motivation to learn*:**

Knowles (1984a: 12) assumes that as a person matures, he/she internalises the motivation to learn. Tennant (1988: 23) argues that this assumption is at variance with the other assumptions that hold the view that adults' readiness to learn is 'the results of the need to perform external social roles'.

In summary, it could be stated that Knowles' assumptions tend to focus on age and stage of development. Hanson (1996: 102) argues that "this has been at the expense of questions of purpose, or of the relationship between individual and society".

3.3.2 Learning Needs of Adults

Knowles (1984a) is of the opinion that, based on his stated assumptions, educators teaching adult learners need to know the concepts of the adult learning theory and be able to incorporate them into their teaching style. That they need to keep in mind that the adult learners need to know the importance of the offered learning course to their learning

and life situation. Knowles (1984a) further states that adult educators need to bear in mind that the adult learner brings into the continuing educational arena a rich array of experiences that will affect the learning styles and assimilation of knowledge. Adult learners need to be able to apply the knowledge into their life situations especially at work because they are specifically trained to be productive (https://www.convergencetraining.com/blog/putting-adult-learning-principles-to-work). As mentioned earlier, farm employees are mostly uneducated. In other words, they are illiterate, semi-literate and some are educated. Knowles (1984a) states that farm employees have been conditioned to be passive learners. Educators have accepted that farm workers are employed for labour- intensive work, and they would not expect the facilitator to seek their input. Traditionally, farm workers learned from family and community members. Educators need to become facilitators of adult education, helping the adult learner to set and achieve goals and guide them in choosing the subjects and courses needed to fulfil these goals (Knowles 1984a).

3.3.3 Approaches to Adult Learning and Teaching

Yilmaz-Tüzün and Topcu (2010) in their analysis of approaches to the learning process, state that the behaviourists, the cognitivists, and the humanists emphasise different aspects of the teaching-learning process in their approaches. They maintain that while the behaviourists emphasise the impact of external conditions (environment) on behaviour, the cognitivists are more concerned with how the mind works (ibid). The humanists, on the other hand, emphasise the affective aspects (e.g., emotions, attitudes) of human behaviour that influence learning (International Rice Research Institute (IRRI) 2019).

Knowles (1984b) believes that in order to be effective, training must accommodate all the theories of learning, and thereby simultaneously bringing about change in the action, belief, and knowledge components of a trainee. Knowles (1984b) affirms that andragogy (a theory of adult learning) is usually used rather than pedagogy (a theory of child learning) in extension training.

3.3.4 Andragogy

The term andragogy was initially formulated by a German teacher, Alexander Kapp, in 1833 (Nottingham Andragogy Group 1983: v). Kapp used it to describe elements of Plato's education theory. Andragogy (*andr*– meaning "man") could be contrasted with pedagogy (paid- meaning "child" and agogos meaning "leading") (Davenport 1993: 114). Kapp's use of andragogy had some currency, but it was disputed and fell into disuse. It reappeared in 1921 in a report by Rosenstock in which he argued that 'adult education required special teachers, methods and philosophy, and he used the term andragogy to refer collectively to these special requirements' (Nottingham Andragogy Group 1983: v). Eduard Lindeman was the first writer in English to pick up on Rosenstock's use of the term, though he only used it on two occasions. Like Stewart, his biographer, comments, "the new term seems to have impressed itself upon no one, not even its originators". That may have been the case in North America, but in France, Yugoslavia and Holland the term was used extensively "to refer to the discipline which studies the adult education process or the science of adult education" (ibid).

Knowles (1968) subsequently adopted and proposed Andragogy as a theory of adult education. Andragogy has since become a prominent theory of adult education. Knowles (1968) examined the basis of pedagogy (theory of adolescent learning) and suggested that adults learn differently from adolescents. Adult learning is stimulated by the situation under which it occurs. From this principle has arisen an adult learning theory that accepts the close relationship between learning and the prevailing situation. Merriam and Caffarella (1999) named this adult learning theory "situated learning" or "situated cognition". According to Hansman (2001: 45) the governing principle of situated cognition is that learning is inherently social. This means that the activity learned, tools used, interaction among learners, and the context in which the learning takes place all contribute towards the successful integration of new knowledge (http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2016.1262612 accessed 22 April 2018).

3.3.5 Pedagogy and Andragogy

To many people in the field of Adult education, Andragogy is inextricably linked to Malcolm Knowles. Knowles (1984b) conceptualisation of andragogy is based on five crucial assumptions about the characteristics of adult learners (discussed under section 3.3.1 above) that are different from the assumptions about child learners on which traditional pedagogy is premised.

Jarvis (1985: 51) outlines a comparison of the assumptions of pedagogy and andragogy following Knowles as follows:

	Pedagogy	**Andragogy**
The learner	*Dependent.* Teacher directs what, when, how a subject is learned and tests that it has been learned	Moves towards independence. Self-directing teacher encourages and nurtures this movement
The learner's experience	*Of* little worth. Hence teaching methods are didactic	A rich resource for learning. Hence teaching methods include discussion, problem-solving.
Readiness to learn	*People learn what society expects them to.* So that the curriculum is standardised.	*People learn what they need to know* so that learning programmes are organised around life application.

Orientation to learning	Acquisition of subject-matter. A curriculum organised by subjects	Learning experiences should be based on experiences, since people are performance centred in their learning

Jarvis (1985: 51)

Jarvis (1985) states that there is a need for caution about claims that there is anything distinctive about andragogy because human beings are dynamic and they change continuously. Human thinking is forever working and can change at any time even during training. According to Knowles (1984b: 12), there are five principles that are applied to adult learning namely:

1. Adults need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their instruction.

2. Experience (including mistakes) provides the basis for learning activities.

3. Adults are most interested in learning subjects that have immediate relevance to their job or personal life.

4. Adult learning is problem-centred rather than content-oriented.

5. Motivation to learn: As a person matures the motivation to learn is internal".

Knowles (1984b) standpoint on what differentiates the adult from the child learner is that "adult learners are not easily swayed because they are: self-directed, have life experiences, are goal-oriented, want training to be relevant and task-oriented, they learn when they are motivated to learn, like to be and feel respected. Adults want to be in control of their actions and their destiny" (Knowles 1984b: 12).

Kidd (1978: 17) holds the view that "there is virtually no difference between adult learning and child learning". Kidd (ibid) believes in the unity of human beings and that human

beings must be seen as a whole in their lifelong development. Consequently, learning principles apply equally to all stages in life. Kidd (ibid) states that the only reason why we specify adult education is obviously that adult education has been neglected (ibid).

To accommodate criticisms of his elaborations on pedagogy and andragogy, Knowles (1984b) subsequently altered his position on the distinction between pedagogy and andragogy. The child-adult dichotomy became less marked. He claimed that pedagogy was a content model and andragogy a process model. Jarvis (1987b), however, argues that while there have been these shifts, the tenor of his work still seems to suggest that andragogy is related to adult learning and pedagogy to child learning. Davenport (1993) and the Nottingham Andragogy Group (1983), on the other hand, believe it is possible to breathe life into the notion of andragogy.

3.4 AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTIONS

As stated in Chapter One, Agriculture is mainly about the cultivation of land and breeding of animals and plants to provide food, fibre, medicinal plants and other products to sustain and enhance life (Hornby 1997). Agriculture has for many generations been part of the life and society of South Africans. Most of the rural population are engaged in some form of agriculture, whether it is on a subsistence or commercial scale. Our country, as well as the neighbouring African states, has increasingly focused its attention on the productivity of its farming lands. Different governments consequently gave agriculture a high priority and it has been formalised as an academic discipline. Like most disciplines, formal agricultural education and training have evolved, and particular agricultural institutions have been established to handle the task of education and training. These agricultural institutions are there to promote the cultivation of plants, fungi and other life forms for food and other products (Hornby 1997). In South Africa, agricultural training institutions are referred to as Agricultural Training Institutes (ATI) (Department of Agriculture 2011).

Agricultural Training Institutions throughout the world offer education and training in a wide range of courses that are related to the rearing of livestock and the cultivation of

crops for food and other purposes. Internationally, the Communicating for Agriculture Education Programmes (CAEP) offers young adults an opportunity to experience the world through the agricultural exchange. Their holistic vision was to give participants an opportunity to gain knowledge to help further their careers (https://caep.org/). The CAEP believed that by providing an opportunity for rural families to be exposed to other cultures, this would result in lifelong friendships and business benefits (https://caep.org/). Agri SA is a federal organisation in South African that has been promoting the interests of its members since 1904. Its declared vision is unity about agriculture, and it has been committed to the development, profitability, stability and sustainability of primary agriculture in South Africa. Among its projects is that of supporting emerging farmers (https://www.agrisa.co.za/). A non-profit South African agricultural training institute named "Living Hope" views agricultural training from a holistic Christian standpoint. The vision of Living Hope is to bring hope and break the despair of poverty and disease by reaching people for Christ. They do this by undertaking community development through educational, social, income generation, and health-related programmes (http://www.livinghope.co.za/). These are only a few examples of organisations that have been promoting agricultural production over the years.

Since Agriculture has an extensive range of activities, many institutions are selective in compiling their curricula. For instance, the Sugar Training Centre specialises in offering courses related to the sugar industry (www.sasa.org.za/). The South African Agri Academy (SAAA) concentrates on providing capacity building to smallholder farmers. The institution trains the smallholder farmers to operate as clusters to benefit from economies of scale (http://www.agriacademy.co.za/about). Buhle Training Academy offers courses mainly in vegetable, poultry, livestock, production, and mixed farming (https://www.buhle.org.za/). The Agricultural Education and Training (AET) providers and industry, however, posit that low research base and poor access to AET by emerging and new entrants into the agricultural sector makes it harder for people to get good agricultural training (Directorate Education and Training 2005).

The umbrella body for all Agriculture Education and Training in South Africa is the Agricultural Sector Education Training Authority (AgriSETA). Regarding the government's new SETA licences that were implemented in March 2011, AgriSETA is a diverse and fairly complex organisation that handles not only agriculture but all food, beverage and forestry activities (www.agriseta.co.za/). According to the government's plan of action, AgriSETA is required to develop a plan that will encourage the development of skills within the agricultural sector such that learners will benefit from these training programmes. Government's objective is to increase the number of young people who can learn new skills and make a living in the agricultural sector (www.agriseta.co.za/). AgriSETA is also responsible for accrediting sector-specific training providers and for monitoring the standard of training presented. The scope of AgriSETA covers the agricultural sector from input services to the farm activities on the farm. AgriSETA facilitates the implementation of learning through skills programmes, Adult Education and Training and Tertiary Studies or in-service training by allocating grants and bursaries (www.agriseta.co.za/).

Teaching agriculture requires instruction, advising and supervision across a variety of experiences (Baker, Robinson & Kolb 2012), which forces teachers to perform numerous job responsibilities (Delnero & Montgomery 2001; Robinson 2010). Specifically, numerous activities both in and outside of the classroom, such as instructional preparation and management, grading student work, administrative duties, in-service participation, management of the FFA programme, Supervised Agricultural Experience (SAE) observations, and preparation for competitions, are conducted by agricultural education teachers (Torres, Ulmer & Aschenbrener 2008).

According to Ezeani and Oladele (2013: 266) "training means investing in people to enable them to perform better and to empower them to make the best use of their natural abilities for overall effectiveness and efficiency of an organisation". The organisation, in this case, is agriculture, and this shows how important training is for efficiency in agricultural production. Dermol and Cater (2013: 324) mention that training enables employees to learn and to develop for better performance of their agricultural activities. According to Dermol and Cater (2013), employees need to adapt quickly to frequent changes in their work environment, and that this requires constant improvement of

knowledge. Taking into account that agriculture is the basis of livelihood for most rural people, “the changes in the work environment requires the agricultural workers to continually improve their skills in order to achieve positive changes in their jobs” (Richey 2000: 295). Garvin, Edmondson and Gino (2008) also expressed this notion. “The changes in agricultural production technology require the workers to develop new skills for the adaptation of their habits” (Shrivastava 1983:20).

Because Agriculture is continuously changing with technological innovations and expanding international trade, there is a need for agricultural education and training to adapt to this change (Roberts & Dyer 2003: 153). This change is even more critical because of the rapid nature of the change brought about by rapid changes in communication technology, innovations, and ever-expanding international trade. Frankel (2000) notes that international trade has become increasingly significant.

Change is more rapid and inevitable than ever before due to globalisation and advancement in technology (Sweat 2010). Globalisation is a changing force that affects governments, businesses, organisations and individuals (Lundy, Place, Irani, & Telg 2005). A report by the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC) states that “globalisation of the financial services, manufacturing, and the agricultural sector are having a profound influence on all sectors of the American society” (NASULGC 2002: 3). According to Smith, Jayaratne, Moore, Kistler and Smith (2010), we are all affected by the current trends in globalisation. Duncan (2010) states that as a result of globalisation in this information age, companies can outsource work to the most competitive individuals across the globe. Due to this reason, we need to prepare our students to be competitive for jobs with their peers in other countries (Duncan 2010).

Osborne (2007: 2) reports that “the first national research agenda to be developed and formally embraced by the broader discipline of agricultural education is communication”. Osborne (ibid) further explains that this research covered the five major dimensions of the discipline, namely: Agricultural Communications, Agricultural Leadership, Agricultural Education in Domestic and International Settings: Extension and Outreach, Agricultural Education in University, Post-Secondary, and in Schools Settings.

Agriculture and its development are as such greatly influenced by and inexorably connected to other traditions and values. Formal education in agriculture is increasingly becoming necessary for farming, to compete with the outside world and other businesses. It is essential that we all know and acknowledge that achieving food security is the dominant global challenge that agriculturists face in the 21st century. Findings support the notion that collaborative student learning should be part of agricultural curricula. Learning to collaborate with others is an essential skill for students to be effective partners and thriving in a rapidly globalising economy (Binkley *et al.*, 2012). Data supports the concept that new agricultural production technology and advancements in the agricultural industry should be included in the course curriculum. Feeding the growing world population is not sustainable without technological advancement in agriculture.

Entrepreneurship is a way of helping and contributing to the sustainable feeding of the inhabitants of the country after training. It should be noted that rural entrepreneurship is commonly practised in many countries such as India. Businesses such as gardening, orchards, beekeeping, fish ponds, are widely practised. It is through the capital, consulting and mentorship that individuals with dreams are building businesses that drive economic growth (https://promo.bankofamerica.com/powerto/entrepreneurship?cm_mmc=GBAM-Integrated- -MSN-PS- -Entrepreneurs). The trainees in this study were all keen to be in business as commercial farmers.

3.5 MANAGEMENT

3.5.1 Definition of Management

Management (or managing) is defined as “the administration of an organisation, whether it is a business, a not-for-profit organisation, or government body” (http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/management.html). Bush (1997: 2) states that “management is a process that is concerned with helping the members of an organisation to attain individual as well as organisational objectives within the changing environment of the organisation. Management comprises directing and controlling a group of one or more people or entities for coordinating and harmonising that group towards achieving a goal”. Management includes the activities of setting the strategy of

an organisation and coordinating the efforts of its employees (or of volunteers) to accomplish its objectives through the application of available resources, such as financial, natural, technological, and human resources (http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/management.html). Frank (2006) states that management involves identifying the mission, objectives, procedures, rules and manipulations of the human capital of an enterprise to contribute to the success of the enterprise and that this is achieved through effective communication within an enterprise. Follett (1927) defines management as "the art of getting things done through people". She further describes management as a philosophy (ibid).

3.5.2 Functions of Management

Management primarily consists of four functions namely, planning, organising, leading, and controlling (www.managementstudyhq.com). Fayol (1917) mentions six functions of management namely: forecasting, planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. The number of management functions varies according to the type of organisation and the level of management. Schermerhorn (2013: 14) states that “in profitable organisations, management's primary function is the satisfaction of a range of stakeholders”. This typically involves making a profit (for the shareholders), creating valued products at a reasonable cost (for customers), and providing exceptional employment opportunities for employees. In non-profit management, the importance of keeping the faith of donors is added. Schermerhorn (ibid) indicates that “it is the manager who determines whether our social institutions serve us well or whether they squander our talents and resources”. Fig 3.2 below illustrates an example of management with five functions.

Fig 3.2 Example of Management Functions

www.managementstudyhq.com

3.5.3 Project Management

3.5.4.1 The Conceptualisation of Project Management

This research deals with the management of a project, namely adult in-service training. A project is defined as an activity to meet the creation of a unique product or service(https://www.managementstudyguide.com/what-is-project.htm). Nokes (2007) states that a project is a temporary endeavour designed to produce a unique product, service or result within a defined period. Nokes (ibid) further states that a project is undertaken to meet unique goals and objectives. It is typically to bring about beneficial change or added value and that time, funding or staffing factors usually constrain the duration of a projects. Paul *et al.,* (2005) state that the temporary nature of projects stands in contrast with business operations, which are repetitive, permanent, or semi-permanent

functional activities to produce products or services. Cattani *et al.* (2011) mention the fact that the management of such distinct production requires the development of distinct technical skills and management strategies. Project management may, therefore, be defined as the practice of initiating, planning, executing, controlling, and closing the work of a team to achieve specific goals and meet specific success criteria at the specified time.

3.5.4.2 The Objectives of Project Management

The object of project management is to produce a complete project which complies with the client's objectives (PMI 2010: 27-35). In many cases, the object of project management is also to shape or reform the client's brief to feasibly address the client's objectives. Once the client's objectives are established they should impact on all decisions made by other people involved in the project. According to PMI (ibid), there will be a detrimental effect on decision making if the project management objectives are not well defined.

A study by Mesly (2017) suggested that the success of any project depends on how well the four key aspects (which the author refers to as the *four P's) are* aligned with the contextual dynamics affecting the project, (ibid), namely:

- *Plan*: The planning and forecasting activities.
- *Process*, the overall approach to all activities and project governance.
- *People*, and the dynamics of how they collaborate and communicate.
- *Power*s, Projects are which describes all lines of authority, decision makers, organograms, policies for implementation and more.

Regardless of the methodology employed, careful consideration must be given to the overall project objectives, timeline, and cost, as well as the roles and responsibilities of all participants and stakeholders www.managementstudyhq.com

3.5.4.3 Approaches to Project Implementation

The PMI mentions several approaches to organising and completing project activities (PMI 2010: 27-35). For instance, a project may be done in phases or broken down into smaller parts which are then carried out in iterative processes. Alternatively, it may be carried out in incremental stages. There are also several extensions to project planning (ibid).

Traditionally, project management includes several elements. The PMI (2010: 27-35) lists the basic project management processes or stages of development generally used in project management as:

- Initiation
- Planning
- Production or execution
- Monitoring and controlling
- Closing

“In project environments with a significant exploratory element, such as research and development, these stages may be supplemented with decision points (go/no-go decisions) at which the project's continuation is debated and decided. An example is the Phase–gate model (PMI 2010: 27-35). In 2003, the office of Information and Technology issued Figure 3.3 below as a guide to project management by what they term “process groups” along the above-listed processes.

The execution or implementation phase ensures that the project management plan's deliverables are executed accordingly. This phase involves proper allocation, coordination and management of human resources and any other resources such as

material and budgets. The output of this phase is the project deliverables.

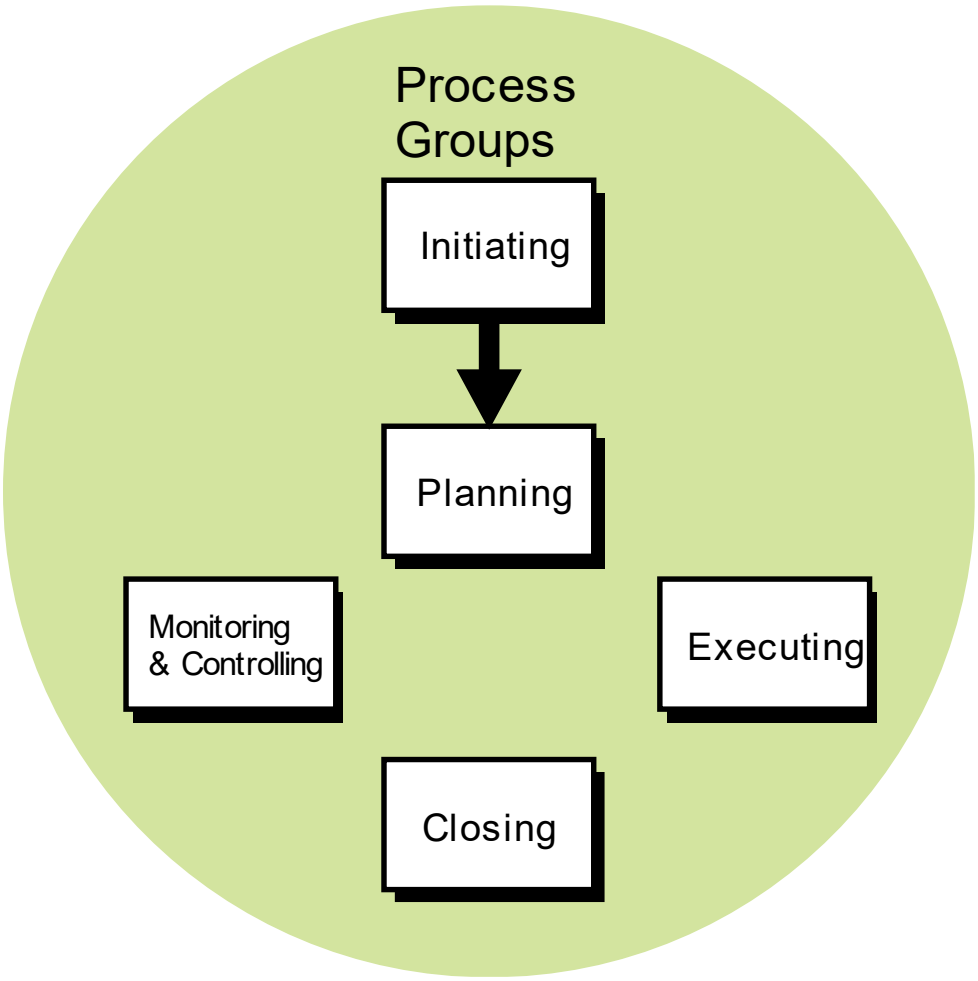


Figure 3.3 The project development stages (PMI 2010: 27-35).

Documenting everything within a project is key to success. To maintain the budget, scope, effectiveness and pace, a project must have physical documents about each specific task. Correct documentation ensures that the project progress can be monitored. Documentation also provides information regarding what has already been completed for that project. Documentation throughout a project provides a record of reference for anyone. In most cases, documentation is the most successful way to monitor and control the specific phases of a project. With the correct documentation, the success of a project can be tracked and observed as the project proceeds. If performed correctly documentation can be the backbone of the project's success (PMI 2010: 27-35).

3.5.4.4. Project Monitoring and Controlling of adult learners in in-service training within the agricultural institution

Monitoring and controlling consists of those processes performed to observe project execution so that potential problems can be identified and corrected in time. The critical benefit of monitoring and controlling is that project performance is observed and measured regularly to identify variances from the project management plan (James 2000).

According to James (2000) monitoring and controlling includes:

- Measuring the ongoing project activities ('where we are');
- Monitoring the project variables (cost, effort, and scope) against the project management plan and the project performance baseline (*where we should be*);
- Identifying corrective actions to address issues and risks adequately (*How can we get on track again*);
- Influencing the factors that could circumvent integrated change control, so only approved changes are implemented.

In multi-phase projects, the monitoring and controlling process also provides feedback between project phases. This is to implement corrective or preventive actions to bring the project into compliance with the project management plan (James 2000).

3.5.4.5. Challenges to Project Management

“The primary challenge of project management is to achieve all the project goals within the given constraints” (Joseph 2003: 354). The primary constraints are scope, time, quality and budget. The secondary challenge is to optimise the allocation of necessary inputs and apply them to meet pre-defined objectives. According to the Project Management Institute (PMI), this information is usually described in the project documentation created at the beginning of the project development process (PMI 2010: 27-35).

3.5.4 Managers

The term "management" may also refer to people who carry out the functions of management of an organisation, that is the manager (Hornby 1997). The noun manager comes from the verb “to manage” which means “to handle” or “to control” (www.managementstudyhq.com). A manager can, therefore, be defined as a person responsible for the control and administration of an organisation or a group of employees. Schermerhorn (2013: 14) describes managers as people in organisations who directly supervise, support, and assist others to perform and accomplish their tasks. There are many different types of managers depending on the type and size of an organisation. Schermerhorn (ibid) further asserts that managers are found in all organisations with a variety of job titles such as team leaders, department head, project manager, president and administrator. Larger organisations generally have three levels of managers, which are typically organised in a hierarchical, pyramid structure or organogram, namely:

- Senior managers, such as members of a Board of Directors and a Chief Executive Officer (CEO) or a President of an organisation. They set the strategic goals of the organisation and make decisions on how the overall organisation will operate. Senior managers are generally executive-level professionals and provide direction to middle management who directly or indirectly report to them.
- Middle managers, examples of which would include branch managers, regional managers, department managers and section managers, provide direction to front-line managers. Middle managers communicate the strategic goals of senior management to front-line managers.
- Lower managers, such as supervisors and front-line team leaders, oversee the work of regular employees (or volunteers, in some voluntary organisations) and provide direction on their work.

In smaller organisations, an individual manager may have a much broader scope. A single manager may perform several roles or even all the roles commonly observed in a large organisation. A person who holds a management position inside an organisation is required to think strategically and conceptually in order to achieve organisational goals.

For this purpose, managers should usually have management skills, such as planning skills, that would enable the manager to set up goals or targets and be able to make plans or strategies of how to achieve those goals. In farming, the manager's task is to make and implement decisions involving the organisation and operation of a farm for maximum production and profit. Apart from the analytical skills that are expected from managers in general, farm managers should also have some knowledge of agricultural economics for information on prices and markets in order to be able to devise strategies for successful farming.

3.6 EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF TRAINING

Raab *et al.,* (1987: 5) define training evaluation as "a systematic process of collecting information for and about a training activity which can then be used for guiding decision making and for assessing the relevance and effectiveness of various training components." Evaluation is a process to determine the relevance, effectiveness, and impact of activities considering their objectives. In evaluating an extensive training programme, one needs to consider that most training activities exist in a broader context of projects, programmes and plans.

Schön (2002) holds the view that competence does not necessarily result from the application of theoretical knowledge. The author's view is that competence is the knowledge that is inherent in action. In other words, the achievement of competence is focused on learning through doing rather than learning for understanding. Schön (ibid) further states that learning is a process of cultivating competence as opposed to learning as an intellectual process that involves cognition. An efficient supervisor or manager must have this kind of knowledge.

Performance needs to be managed by supervisors, line managers and managers. Aguinis (2009:2) state that "performance management is a continuous process of identifying, measuring, and developing the performance of individuals and teams and aligning performance with the strategic goals of the organisation". Kirkpatrick (1976) suggests four criteria to evaluate training programmes: (1) reaction, (2) learning, (3) behaviour, and (4)

results. Each criterion is used to measure the different aspects of a training programme. Kirkpatrick (ibid) explains *Reaction* as a measure of how the trainees liked the programme regarding content, methods, duration, trainers, facilities, and management. *Learning* measures the trainees' skills and knowledge which they were able to absorb at the time of training. *Behaviour* is concerned with the extent to which the trainees were able to apply their knowledge to real field situations. *Results* are concerned with the tangible impact of the training programme on individuals, their job environment, or the organisation as a whole. Raab *et al*. (1987), however, classified evaluation into four major types: (1) evaluation for planning, (2) process evaluation, (3) terminal evaluation, and (4) impact evaluation. The authors state that *Terminal evaluation* is conducted to examine the effectiveness of a completed training programme. The objectives of the terminal evaluation are to determine the degree to which the desired benefits and goals have been achieved. *Impact evaluation* assesses changes on the job behaviour as a result of training efforts. It provides feedback from the trainees and supervisors about the outcomes of training. It measures how appropriate the training was in changing the behaviour of participants in real-life situations. *Summative evaluation is* done at the end of the programme and makes an overall assessment of its effectiveness in relation to achieving the objectives and goals (ibid).

3.7 SUMMARY

The chapter dealt with the review of the research's literature. The focus was on the relationship between adult learners, in-service training, management, on the job performance and agricultural institutions. The role of managers in managing the in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution was dealt with in detail. The impact of evaluation by the manager to understand that he or she is the project manager was clarified. Chapter four is focused on the study's research methodology.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented a review of literature related to this research. This chapter presents the research methodology that was used to address the research questions. According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2011:2) research methodology is the general research strategy that considers and explains the logic behind research methods and techniques. The methods described in the research methodology define the means or styles of data collection and the eventual analysis strategy. The questions were open-ended for both the individual and focus groups. Care was taken in the design and structure of the questions to eliminate ambiguities arising from poorly formulated and structured questions. Observations were conducted formally and informally, before the individual and focus groups interviews, during interviews and in a formal setting during training and when visiting the institutions. A perusal of documents from AgriSETA, the reports from these institution's activities were also perused in line with the main research question.

What role do managers play on in-service training of adult learners?

The response below was informed by the following questions:

- How do farm managers identify the in-service training needs of adult learners?
- What are the strategies employed to manage the in-service training of the adult learners?
- What are the experiences of the managers of the in-service training of the adult learners?
- What are the experiences of adult learners regarding in-service training?

The general aim of the study was to explore the roles of the management of the in-service training of adult learners.

The specific objectives of the study were:

- to explain and describe the way farm managers identify the in-service training needs of adult learners
- to identify the strategies employed to manage the in-service training of the adult learners
- to establish the experiences of managers of the in-service training of the adult learners
- to explore the experiences of adult learners regarding in-service training.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT

The research investigates the role that agricultural in-service training management play, and how it affects adult learners' performance at work. The research approach employed was qualitative using grounded theory. The research design is a systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting evidence (data) "in order to increase the understanding of phenomena about which we are concerned or interested" (Leedy & Ormrod 2010: 2). Durrheim (2010: 34) defines research design as "a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the study". Whereas, Fouché, Delport and DeVos (2011: 142) posit "research design is referred to as an integrated statement of and justification for the technical decision involved in planning a research project". The methods of research as outlined by Snyder (2014) are that research depends mostly on the nature of the problem to be investigated, as well as on the capacity of the researcher regarding the research skills, availability of time and financial resources.

Grounded theory, which is part of the qualitative research methodology, was chosen because it was suitable for the study. Qualitative research aims to provide an in-depth understanding of people's experiences as it is happening in the agricultural industries. It is also giving the perspectives and histories in the context of their circumstances or

settings. Cresswell (2014: 48) clarifies that “a qualitative design uses a transformative approach with open-ended questions”.

Qualitative research is an umbrella term for a variety of approaches to research that tend to focus on the qualities of things more than their quantity (Bazeley 2013: 3). Spencer, Ritchi, Lewis and Dillon (2003: 3) state that “qualitative research is characterised by a concern with exploring phenomena from the perspective of those being studied; with the use of unstructured methods that are sensitive to the social context of the study”. These authors maintain that developing explanations at a level of meaning or micro-social processes rather than context-free laws; and answering ‘what is’, ‘how’, and ‘why’ question is essential. Qualitative research is also about capturing of information that is detailed, rich and complex; and involves mainly an inductive rather than deductive analytic process (Cresswell 2014). Therefore, grounded theory is developed using a qualitative research method.

Grounded Theory (GT) is a research method concerned with the generation of the theory that is “grounded” in data that has been systematically collected and analysed as mentioned by Breckenridge and Jones (2009) in http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/eb-2016-102306. It is used to uncover such things as social relationships and behaviours of groups, known as social processes. It was developed in California, the USA by Glaser and Strauss during their stud, “Awareness of Dying” (Noble & Mitchell 2016). They continue to mention that GT is a general methodology for developing theory that is grounded in data which is systematically gathered and analysed, hence the following subtopics were used in exploring both qualitative and grounded theory.

4.2.1. Sampling

The sampled areas for the study were identified and are discussed in detail in step two of this research: the two agricultural institutions, are both situated in Gauteng (referred to here as Agricultural Training Institutions (ATI) A and B.

4.2.2 Interviews

Interviews were used to collect data from the participants. The basic types of interviews are described by Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2011: 165-167); Kelly (2010: 303); Myers (2010: 123) and Creswell (2007: 130) as “individual one-on-one and focus group interviews”. This included in-depth open-ended questions for interviewing the managers and the focus groups comprising of adult learners. See step 5 below.

4.2.3 Data collection process

Multiple stages of data collection were used in this study through the use of the grounded theory procedure. Creswell (2009: 178-181) says that collecting data includes interviews, document analysis, journals, art, poetry, music, other sources, questionnaires and observations. The researcher made two visits to ATI A and three to ATI B for data collection as it is the practice when using GT. Urquhart (2013) states that grounded theory design allows for an approach, which develops a model that is based on the experiences of respondents into an area, which has limited research to date. Burden (2006) posits that grounded theory evolves during the research process and is a product of the continuous interplay between analysis and data collection. Since the first data collection visit, there was a constant and continual comparison of data with emerging categories and theoretical sampling of different groups to maximise the similarities and the differences of information. The objective was to attempt to derive a general, abstract theory of a process, action or interaction grounded in the views of participants (Strauss & Corbin 1990; 1998). The theoretical sampling, therefore, informed the emerged theory, abstract categories constructed, concepts that emerged, the social processes that were discovered and the

analyses of documents during the collection and analysis stages, as is practice with GT (Urquhart 2013). The activity theory emerged, because of this process and as envisaged to reveal the role of managers in the in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution.

Analysis during this process involved what is commonly termed *coding*, taking raw data and raising it to a conceptual level. Then following up with more interviews in the two institutions as stated above.

4.2.4. Data analysis

The researcher was aware that once the various documents were added or linked to the Atlas.ti software, the real work began. Most commonly, early project stages involve coding different data sources. Coding is the basic activity one engages in when using Atlas.ti and is the basis of everything else one does. In practical terms, the Atlas ti Quick Guide (2016) refers to coding as the process of assigning categories, concepts, or "codes" to segments of information that are of interest to one's research objectives. The detailed steps on data analysis and its development using the Atlas ti are dealt with later in this chapter. Firstly, the process undertaken to conduct the research is discussed.

4.4 RESEARCH EXECUTION

The steps taken to execute research in this study were ten, outlined as follows:

Step 1

Data collection Permission

O'Leary (2005: 100) clarifies that "the collection of data needs to be rigorous". It is the systematic and rigorous nature of the researcher's approach that will help define data as more than anecdotal evidence and give credibility to the eventual findings.

The university granted permission to collect data using the agricultural institutions through the Ethics Committee for a clearance certificate within the College of Education as attached (Annexure A). The agricultural umbrella institution (Annexure D1) for a meeting and a request to visit the agricultural training institutions. Letters were sent to the identified agricultural institutions (Annexure D2). Permission was, therefore, granted by the agricultural institutions to collect data. Letters were then delivered to all possible participants identified to acquire consent (Annexure E).

Step 2

Sample selection

Strydom (2011), explains that a sample comprises elements or a subset of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study. The area of interest was identified at the two agricultural training institutions in Gauteng. The umbrella body of agriculture in South Africa which is AgriSeta, was part of the research as it controls training in the farming industry. AgriSeta permitted me to visit the agricultural training institutions and helped me to identify the relevant ones that suited my research (referred to as Agricultural Training Institutions) (ATI) A and B. The two agricultural training institutions have farms, vegetable gardens, poultry broilers, piglets, pigs, cattle in the kraals for the practical and training facilities. Two managers (from ATI A and B respectively), who are farmers leading the management of activities in their farms, were individually interviewed at their institutions.

The focus groups of participants varied in numbers each time during interviewing. Initially, the population on the sites were as follows: Agricultural Institution A had 26 trainees; females were 11 and 15 males. Focus group 1 with 10 participants, focus group 2 had 9 participants and observations happened throughout. The Agricultural Institution B had 31 trainees. Seventeen males and 14 females. Focus group 1 had 8 participants, focus group 2 with 9, and the third focus group had seven participants and observations also occurred throughout visits and interviews. The ages differed in each ATI. The age group was between 25 and 55 in ATI A and 25 and 60 for ATI B.

The participants were identified as they were in training during the researcher's visits. The participants were informed about the researcher's visit, and then they were asked to participate in the focus groups voluntarily.

Step 3

Dispatching of Letters to sampled participants

Possible participants were identified as stated above. Then letters (Appendix E) were delivered to them at their respective chosen training institutions. Since the participants are adult farmers who are either illiterate, semi-illiterate, or literate and many of whom do not have access to the internet to receive emails, I decided to arrange an introductory meeting before data collection, to deliver the letters. The reason for requesting the meeting was to disclose the purpose of the research to the participants in order to avoid deception (Sarantakos 2013: 89). Explanations were meted regarding the research and participants were explained to where needed when dispatching the letters to enable understanding and allay concerns. This was because they are of different levels of education and speak different languages.

Step 4

Observations during interview visits

The researcher was interested in reading the body language of the participants when greeting them. They were generally welcoming and showed interest in what was to be asked from them. Their body language was positive.

During the interviews, the participants expressed various attitudes towards in-service training, which attracted the researcher's attention. The manager introduced the researcher to the class and explained what the purpose of the visit was. They stood up during the greetings. The welcoming remarks were exchanged between the manager, the researcher and the participants. Overall, they seemed to be comfortable in the in-service training, which is a positive attitude. Very few appeared to be threatened in their training course because they looked at the researcher in a manner that showed the need for

clarity. There was no resentment observed by the researcher. The observation grit (Appendix G) informed the entire observation proceedings. They were also unanimous about the usefulness of the training in agriculture and the need for it as the objective of the research, about participants' experiences. They were mostly looking forward towards making a better living and believed that training would enable them to achieve just that. This overwhelming interest in the training course was a positive attribute that should encourage them as well as those that manage the training course. It was not surprising to note similar sentiments from the trainers who seemed to be keen to do all they could to help the trainees through their course.

Step 5

Individual interviews

Face to face interviews were conducted with the manager and the supervisor of the institution. The researcher conducted personal interviews. According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2005: 292) interviewing is the predominant mode of data collection in social science research, where an overview in the form of responses is provided. An interview is defined as "an interaction between the interviewer and the respondent/s" (Oltmann 2016: 8). Kvale (1996: 2) adds an interesting dimension to interviewing by pointing out that an interview is an "inter view", an "inter change" of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest.

The interactive interview was used because the researcher wanted to engage with participants when responding and enable them to express their views openly. An interactive interview denotes combining the strengths of an individual and group formats (Mitropolitski 2015). Delport, Fouche and Schurink (2011) outline that interactive focus group interview leads to comprehending attitudes, behaviours and contexts from many points of views. Participants were required to elaborate without limitation on specific issues in the questions about the managers and in-service training and follow up questions were asked to allow them to clarify further and explain their responses. In the open-ended questions, the participants could give any response they wished to give to

the questions asked and interacted freely. Open-ended questions also enabled participants to “construct answers using their own words” (O’Leary 2004: 159). Interviews were tape recorded as explained in step 6 below.

Step 6

Focus group interviews

Focus group discussions provide a social context for research and thus an opportunity to explore how people think and talk about a topic; “how their ideas are shaped, generated or moderated through conversations with others” (Ritchie & Lewis 2004: 37). Focus group interview is less structured compared to the three categories of interviews which are face to face, the structured and the semi-structured (Welman *et al.* (2011: 165-167; Kelly 2010: 303; Myers 2010: 123; Creswell 2007:130).

“The researcher collects data and learns about the ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviours of participants” as stated by Nieuwenhuis (2011c: 87). Nieuwenhuis (ibid) further clarifies interviews as a two-way conversation. Two focus groups participated at Agricultural Institution A and three focus groups at the Agricultural Institution B (inclusive of follow up interviews in line with GT). Schurink (2004c: 2) defines “group” as a number of individuals with the same background, interests, values and norms, who interact with one another in such a way that each person influences and is influenced by the other persons. Schurink (2004c) further explains that “Focus” means that the discussion in the group is limited to the specific theme under investigation. In this study, it was narrowed to the adult learners who are employed as farmers. Kelly (2010: 304) states “that a focus group is typically a group of people who share similar types of experiences”. The trainees, in this case, share similar experiences. Myers (2010: 125) postulates that “the purpose of focus group interviews is to seek collective views on a defined topic of interest from a group of people who are known to have had relevant experiences”.

The focus group has been employed by marketing and is becoming important also in other areas; such as education, health, management, decision making, and information

systems, among others. Depending on the research objective, the f*ocus group* can be used in isolation or in conjunction with other methods. In this study, it is used with other methods of data collection as stated above. The results or information obtained from the focus group application is particularly effective in supplying information about how people think, feel, or act regarding a specific topic. The focus group discussion and the individual interviews were tape - recorded; the audio data were given to the transcriber at a company that specialises in the transcription of interviews. The researcher asked the transcriber to transcribe the audio verbatim. The company then emailed back the transcriptions to the researcher, and the researcher from the transcribing company collected the hard copies. The researcher read the transcribed documents, and where clarity was needed, the researcher listened to the audio comparing with what was written.

The transcriptions of the focus group discussions and the individual interviews were then uploaded onto Atlas ti to develop codes, quotations and memos in a process to identify themes from the transcribed text data (Appendix H) analysed by the researcher using the open, axial and selective coding to determine the current codes needed. As new concepts, categories and core categories emerged, when analysing transcripts. The researcher had to update all the codes and add the new ones, after following up with second and third (for ATI B) interviews in line with GT. The researcher understands what Star in Bryant and Charmaz (ed.) (2013: 605) explains that codes in grounded theory allow us to know more about the field we study, yet carry the abstraction of the new because they are such transitional objects. In this instance, enabling to probe through further follow-up interviews. Star continues to clarify that a code sets up a relationship with one's data, and with one's respondents. Whereas Holton in Bryant and Charmaz (ed.) (2013: 605) mentions that "data and theory is a conceptual code which explains why the researcher is allowed to update and add the new codes after analysing the transcripts and further conducting more interviews".

Step 7

Writing memos

The researcher continuously wrote memos throughout the research process. Charmaz (2006) states that it is a methodological practice of memo writing that roots the researcher in the analyses of the data while simultaneously increasing the level of abstraction of his/her analytical ideas and arguably interacting with participants. “Memo writing is essential to grounded theory methodological practices and principles” (Bryant & Charmaz 2013: 245). The authors continue to say memo writing is the methodological link, the distillation process, through which the researcher transforms data into theory Bryant & Charmaz (2013: 245). It is a way of ensuring that nothing is left out as the researcher was dealing with farmers who are semi-literate, illiterate or could struggle with the language if their mother tongue was not used. Richardson (1998: 349) posits that “memos are not intended to describe the social worlds of the researcher’s data. Instead, they conceptualise the data in the narrative form”. The author stresses that “remaining firmly grounded in the data, researchers use memos to create social reality by discursively organising and interpreting the social worlds of their respondents” (Richardson (1998: 350). Memo writing is a crucial method in grounded theory. It prompts researchers to analyse their data to develop their codes into categories early in the research process, as it was the case in this study. The researcher wrote the memo as the discussions went on because memo writing is the methodological link as Lempert states in Bryant and Charmaz (2013) through which the researcher will analytically interpret data. This exercise was done because some respondents expressed themselves in their languages such as Sepedi, Zulu, Tsonga and Venda.

Step 8

Documents collected for analysis

A variety of documents were collected for data collection; these included the students’ registers, module documents, a record of registered in-service training institutions and records of successful agricultural institutions. The researcher resorted to document analysis, which is the study of existing documents to strengthen further data collected.

The researcher needed to probe deeper into the agricultural institutions that were chosen for the research. Policy documents were acquired from AgriSETA. The AgriSETA facilitates the implementation and accreditation of learning through learnerships, skills programmes, adult education and training, and tertiary studies or in-service training by allocating grants and bursaries. To ensure the quality provision of education and training, AgriSETA is also responsible for accrediting sector-specific training providers and for monitoring the standard of training presented. Documents that are public documents such as annual reports, minutes of meetings, registers, training manuals and personal documents such as diaries for the managers for the two institutions were utlised. The researcher asked for the documents from the ATI's to get information on the numbers of the trainees and the progress in training. According to Ritchie and Lewis (2004: 35), "documents such as photographs and personal letters are crucial when conducting research". The two institution's policies on organisational training were also examined.

Step 9

Data generation

Grounded theory is not predictive about outcomes. The data was interpreted qualitatively using the characteristics of analytical induction and constant comparison of grounded theory and, hence, are not quantifiable (Glaser & Strauss 1967). A cyclical process of interview, transcription, and initial examination was employed in order to explore the relationships between emerging themes and their respective concepts, eventually subsuming codes into more abstract categories and ultimately into theory (and, hence, the concepts of coding, grouping, theoretical sampling, constant comparison, and theoretical saturation) (Charmaz 2014). Grounded theory is a highly formalised approach that accounts for the significant information in the data as it emerges in the respective relationships (Strauss & Corbin 1990). Constant comparison juxtaposes codes and categories for similar themes and eventually subsuming the data into more abstract categories and then into theory (Backman & Kyngas 1999; Glaser 1978: 2002). The core category, according to grounded theory, emerges in a similar comparative, non-linear, and analytical process (Glaser 2002; Stern 1980). The findings stem from a component

of a previous study that identified the contribution of the conceptual categories from the semi-structured interviews towards the emerging grounded theory (Cherubini 2006). In so doing, the activity theory was adopted for this study.

Step 10

Follow up interviews to saturation

Classic grounded theory is a general methodology that seeks to develop, through a process of induction, a theory that is 'grounded' in the data from which it has been derived (Glaser 2002a). The researcher made follow up interviews with the agricultural institutions being interviewed by telephone and second and third visits as explained in the steps above. There was some clarity, and further exploration of concepts required from the transcripts that needed to be clarified, then physical follow up interviews were done by setting appointments and visiting the institutions and requesting to talk to the interviewees. Some questions had to be repeated by going back to the chosen institutions for clarity and further addition of emerging concepts. Two themes were created from the same codes, and they confused the analysis. The question that reads as; "what do you think is your role as a trainee"? and "What do you expect to benefit from this training"? These were also clarified through re-interviewing sessions and follow up sessions. This was to reach saturation.

It is imperative to understand, however, that 'saturation' within generic qualitative data analysis and 'saturation' within classic grounded theory are inherently different (Charmaz 2014). The notion of saturation in grounded theory is that data collection stops when saturation occurs. Saturation is defined as 'data adequacy' that involves the "collection of data until no new information is obtained" (Morse 1995: 147). Whereas, Charmaz (2006) states that "saturation is when new data no longer triggers new theoretical insights, and new properties of core theoretical categories are no longer revealed" (Morse 1995: 113). However, saturation does not merely mean the repetition of the same events or stories. The frequency of reporting in the data is not of significant importance. The importance of the whole exercise is the number of interviews followed by saturation of the data, which

occurs when each new act of data collection does not add anything new (Dyson & Brown 2006). The researcher visited different focus groups at different times, and nothing new came up. While the qualitative researcher seeks descriptive saturation, the grounded theorist is concerned with saturation at a conceptual level. Hence the follow-up interviews. Sampling is thus theoretically oriented; it is directed towards the generation and development of a conceptual theory as opposed to creating a descriptive account (Dyson & Brown 2006). It is continually directed by the emerging theory, following up leads as they arise in the data and progressively focusing data collection on refining and integrating the theory while analysing (http://www.qualitative-research.net/fqs/fqsenghtm).

4.5 ANALYSES CONDUCTED

The collected data was appropriately coded using the Atlas ti 8.0 which is a specialised software package. The Atlas. ti 8.0 software was used for data analyses. It is well suited to grounded theory studies and its application because it is a theory that allows one to frequent the participants to get their answers freely. The researcher continuously collected and analysed data, to show quality in the analysis to establish the role of management in adult in-service training at agricultural institutions.

Atlas ti handles data, visualises one's entire project as an intelligent "container" that keeps track of all data (Friese 2016). This container is one's Atlas ti project. The project keeps track of the paths to one's source data and stores the codes, code groups, network views, that one develops during one's work. One's source data files are copied and stored in a repository. The standard option is for Atlas.ti to manage the documents in its internal database. "If you work with larger audio or video files, they can be linked "externally" to your project to preserve disc space" (Friese 2016: 6). All files assigned to the project (except those externally linked) are copied; a duplicate is made for Atlas ti's use. Original files remain intact and untouched in their original location. The source data can consist of text documents (such as interviews, articles, reports) (Friese 2016). An input of the data was presented, coded, analysed and interpreted from the themes that were formed.

Coding is the process by which categories are identified. Friese (2016) posits that in the early stages of analysis, coding is mostly descriptive. Coding is the primary activity one engages in when using Atlas.ti and is the basis of everything else one does. In practical terms, the Atlas ti Quick Guide (2016) refers to coding as the process of assigning categories, concepts, or "codes" to segments of information that are of interest to one's research objectives. The researcher chose to use axial coding: at this stage because when using grounded theory, the relationships between the categories and connections are identified. The themes are formed from the axial coding. Charmaz (2006) emphasises that coding is more than just a paraphrasing. It is more than just noting concepts in the margins of the field notes or making a list of codes as in a computer programme. It involves interacting with data (analysis) using techniques such as asking questions about the data, making comparisons between data, and so on, and in doing so, deriving concepts to stand for those data, then developing those concepts regarding their properties and dimensions (Atlas ti Quick Guide 2016). A researcher can think of coding as "mining" the data, digging beneath the surface to discover the hidden treasures contained within data.

Data analysis commences during the data collection when using GT. In this phase, the researcher identified the research phenomenon. The process continues while coding the data. During the analysis, categories are identified and developed regarding their properties and dimensions through a process involving the generation of basic categories to describe features of the data and constant comparisons between cases, instances and categories. This was the case during the use of Atlantis ti. Similar events and incidents were grouped into categories (Glaser 1978; Chenitz & Swanson 1986; Strauss & Corbin 1990).

The data analysis can also be seen as the researcher's process of thinking, of having ideas and moving towards saturation. Glaser (1978) classifies the three-phased process as follows: The first phase is called 'input'. In that phase, the data move as part of the researcher's thinking. In the second phase, the data are in the researcher's mind. The researcher has a lot of different ideas concerning the theory, but nothing seems clear. This is called a 'drugless trip'. The last phase, called 'saturation', is the most important for

theory development. In this phase, the researcher writes down the results of the analysis and makes conclusions.

4.6 TIME SCALE

The dictionary definition of timescale is the time allowed for or taken by a process or sequence of events (Collins Dictionary 1991). To write a good research proposal, it is essential to have a timescale, also referred to as timeline or time-frame because research projects need to allow enough time for the research to be conducted ethically. A research time-frame template, also called a Gantt Chart, is a useful graphical tool which shows activities or tasks performed against time. It is also known as a visual presentation of a project, and it is useful to plan and organise the work on a research project (https://www.zapmeta.co.za/?qpurposeofganttchartinprojectmanagement&dzn&asidzagc504&wherewebzapmetaza&awczmza&abt&template&pp&bkwn&dec&nwc&rkbb&rkln9) .

The researcher used the Gantt Chart to help in the planning, employees being serviced at their place of employment, or going out to where the training was taking place, depending on what the employer wanted them to be developed on. The human and financial resources, as well as the extent of the area to be researched were taken into consideration. As planned, the research process was supposed to follow the chart (Figure 1) below:

Figure 4. 1. Planned Research Project Tasks and Phases

Expected Duration	**January 2017 – November 2018**

Project Tasks	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4	Phase 5
Proposal Writing and Approval					
Literature Review					
Preparation of Research Sites					
Preparation of Questions					
Interviews					
Data Preparation Presentation and Analyses					
Writing Up of Chapters					
Final Writing and Submission					

The chart was developed and adapted from Gantt's timescale.

4.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

The research problem and objectives have been established. According to Creswell, (2011, p.211) "reliability means that scores received from participants are consistent and

stable over time, the research area as well as population". In addition, Snelgar, (2010, p.99) states that reliability must be evaluated against the issues of applicability and relevance. Whereas, Welman *et al.* (2011, p.142) describe validity as" the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is happening in the situation". The research examined the causal relationship between two variables, namely, 'project management' and 'adult in-service training'. The nature of the research, as stated, is explanatory. Data collection was done using interviews limited to one manager and focus groups from the chosen institutions. With these measures of internal validity, care was taken to ensure the validity of the results by minimising or eliminating any threats to internal and external validity, therefore, for this study triangulation was done which also assisted in the findings.

4.7.1Triangulation

Theoretical triangulation refers to a constant grounding process at the level of data collection and analysis (Bryant & Charmaz 2013). These authors further clarify theoretical triangulation as theoretical arguments based on the back and forth movement. Stringer (2008: 49) mentions that "triangulation involves the use of multiple and different sources, methods, and perspectives to corroborate, elaborate, or illuminate the research problem and its outcomes". The researcher used different sources such as observations, individual and focus groups interviews and documents perusal to gather information from the Agricultural Training Institutions.

The qualitative method was used as it is a way of gathering information towards grounded theory. Burton and Bartlett (2009: 26) interpret triangulation as a "navigational term. Which means to fix one's position from two known bearings". Researchers to increase the validity of their research by carrying out this process, and it means checking one's findings by using several points of reference. In effect, the researcher approaches the objectivity of the study from as many different angles and perspectives as possible in order to gain a greater understanding. Rubinstein (2009:7) says triangulation "uses more than one approach as it strengthens a study and can provide a sharper focus".

4.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is taken to be beliefs and therefore Fouka and Mantzorou (2011: 4) mention that "ethics are regarded as the branch of philosophy, which deals with dynamics of decision-making concerning what is right, and wrong. Thus, the ethical requirements for this study were met.

Ethical approval *was obtained* from the Ethics Committee for a clearance certificate. First of all, an application was submitted to the University of South Africa's College of Education Ethical Clearance Committee for ethical clearance. The reference number: 2018/03/14/04178033/27/MC was obtained (see Appendix A for granted Ethics Certificate). After the granting of this clearance certificate, permission was sought from the agricultural institutions' authorities to conduct the study (Annexure E). They were also informed about the nature, purpose and importance of the study. Permission was granted, and the prospective participants were fully briefed about the purpose of the study, what they will benefit from it, as well as their rights to choose whether to participate in the interviews or not.

The participants were then asked to fill in a consent form (Appendix F) before taking part in the study as it an essential of ethical conduct that was to be obtained from all selected participants.

All these were done in accordance with the pronouncement by Snelgar (2015: 165) on the observance of research ethics, namely, "(1) protection of participants from harm;(2) voluntary and informed participation;(3) right to privacy and (4) researcher integrity and honesty". Similar views are held by Chilisa and Preece (2005: 23); Gray (2009), Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011) on the need for the voluntary nature of participation and for the right of the participants to withdraw from the research at any given point if they so wish. Creswell (2007: 72) also mentions that "sensitivity to the needs of individual studies is especially important, and the researcher needs to acknowledge his or her impact on the people and the places being studied".

4.9 SUMMARY

A detailed description of the research plan and the research methodology that was used to obtain data for the study were outlined and focused on. The understanding of the “how” of the study was conducted and clarified. The research design adopted, that is qualitative research and the phenomenological view, were identified and discussed at length. How data collection was done was discussed in detail. Finally, research ethics that were upheld in the study were also discussed. The next chapter presents the research findings.

CHAPTER 5
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

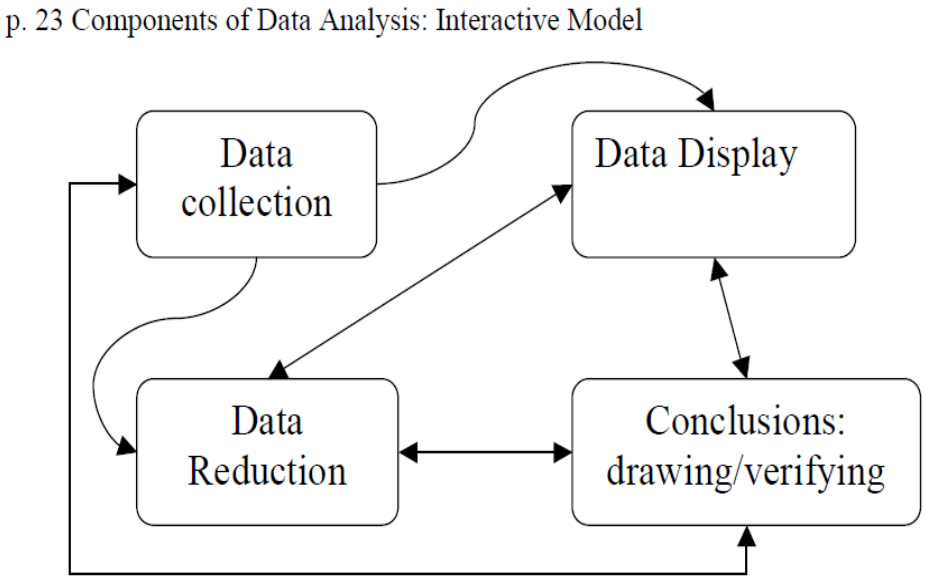
The previous chapter outlined the research methodology that was utilised to gather data for this research. This chapter focuses on the data presentation and analysis of findings of the research, which is discussed in the context of theoretical, and literature review undertaken in chapters two and three. The research sought to answer the following main question: What is the role of managers in in-service training of adult learners? The grounded theory methodology adopted in this research is extensively explained in Chapter 4. In presenting the findings, this chapter is focused on the grounded theory approach as outlined by Taylor and Bogdan (1984) in Marshall and Rossman (2006: 163). The researcher chose to use the grounded theory approach because the grounded theory is an abductive, data-driven, theory-building approach that can serve as a conceptual link between inductive and deductive research approaches (Pratt 2008; Shah & Corley 2006).

The data analysis can also be seen as the researcher's process. According to Glaser (1978), the process has three phases. The first phase is called 'input' that explains how the data move as part of the researcher's thinking. In the second phase, the data are in the researcher's mind. He/she has a lot of different ideas concerning the theory, but nothing seems clear. This is called a 'drugless trip'. The last phase, called 'saturation', (Charmaz 2014; Walsh, Holton, Bailyn, Fernandez, Levina & Glaser 2015) which is the most important for theory development. In this phase, the researcher writes down the results of the analysis and makes his/her conclusions.

This approach involves the presentation of data gathered through in-depth interviews where the perspectives of the participants are presented and where their worldview structures the report. In this respect, the views of the participants are presented verbatim. Emphasis was placed on transcendental phenomenology in which everything is perceived freshly as if for the first time (Moustakas1994 in Creswel 2007: 58) and followed by a

discussion. The researcher took heed of the point that is clarified by Marshall and Rossman (2006: 23,24) that “real research is often confusing, messy, intensely frustrating and fundamentally non-linear.” To avoid all the confusion, since the qualitative method is used for a grounded theory for this study, the researcher adopted the interactive model created by Miles and Huberman (1994) (https://www.nsf.gov/pubs/1997/nsf97153/chap_4.htm), see figure 5.1 below.

Figure 5.1. Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model



Adopting this model was for the researcher to simplify all the steps followed towards data presentation and analysis of findings. An Associate Professor of the School of Educational Leadership, Denis McLaughlin of the Australian Catholic University (ACU), emphasises the Miles and Huberman model as a guiding path towards analysis (https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Denis_Mclaughlin2). The data collection is an exploratory phase that is followed by data display. Data reduction is termed data preparation in this study. The individual in-depth interviews and focus groups and finally the analysis of the research are all fully explained in Chapter 4 of this study.

5.2 DATA PREPARATION

Data preparation is the act of preparing (or pre-processing) raw data or disparate data sources into refined information assets that can be used effectively for various business purposes (https://www.datapreparator.com/what_is_data_preparation.html) such as analysis. Data preparatory was developed by Stewart (2014) whose view is to clean or select the information before analysing, as the unnecessary information is taken out and only the relevant information is kept. In this study, the purpose of data preparation was to select the relevant information from the interviews that formed the codes to be analysed since the interviews were conducted more than once. Data *were collected* using semi-structured interviews and open-ended questions. The audio data collected from the interviews were sent to a professional transcriber for transcription (see Chapter 4). The transcribed data were received in the form of text in Word documents.

The cleaning was then done by reading from the hard copy and listening from the voice recorder for some clarity and ensuring that all was put on paper as recorded. The collected handwritten notes were also integrated. That particular data were converted into a PDF format and uploaded in the Atlas ti system as fully explained in Chapter 4 of the research methodology, under section 4.5. The prepared data were processed through the Atlas ti, and different codes were created in relation to the questions that were posed. Similar codes were merged to avoid repetition. From the codes, six themes emerged and were identified as patterns that were evaluated to gather knowledge that was analysed. Before proceeding step by step on how the themes emerged, it is of importance to describe the participants who provided the data. The participants in this research were recruited from two agricultural training institutions.

5.2.1 Description of the participants

The interviewed participants were composed of the managers and trainees only. The trainers were not part of the interviews because they are the object (In-service training) of the study and they were sometimes outsourced, but in most cases, they were insourced.

The table below (Table 5.1) is the description of the participants from the two Agricultural Training Institutions that were used. It clarifies the gender and the age group of the participants.

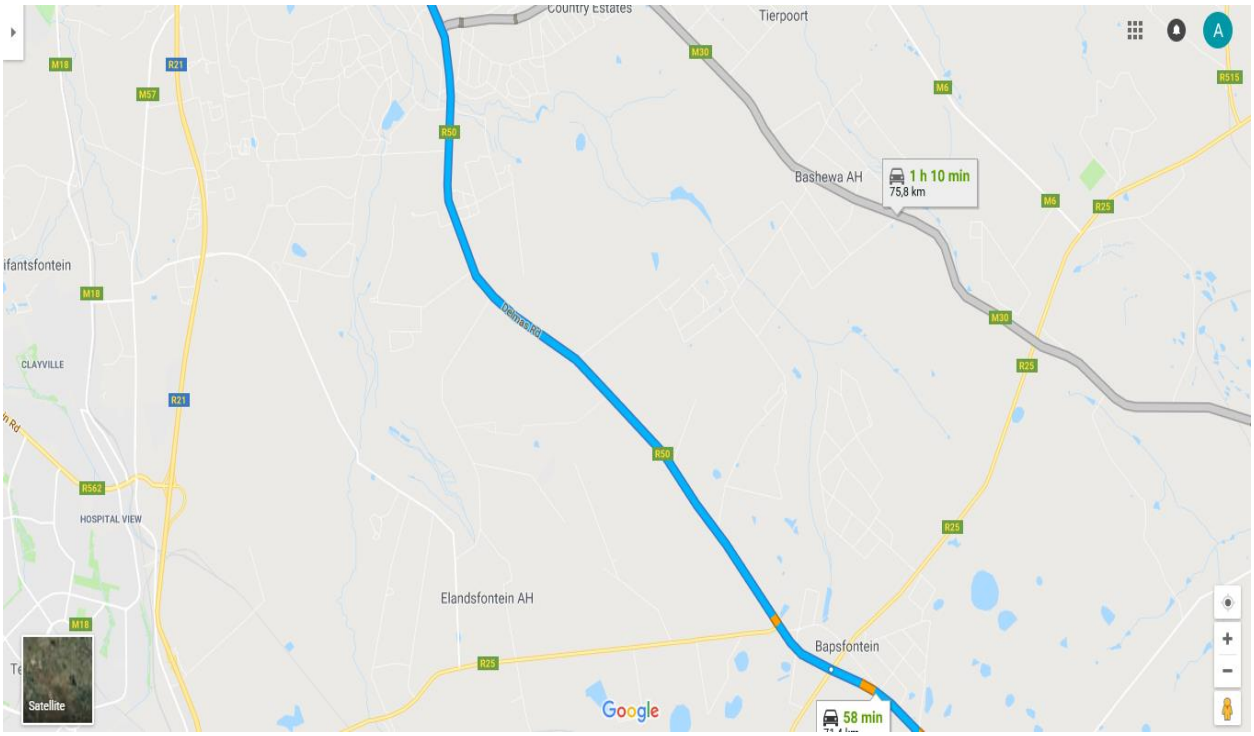
Table 5.1. Description of participants

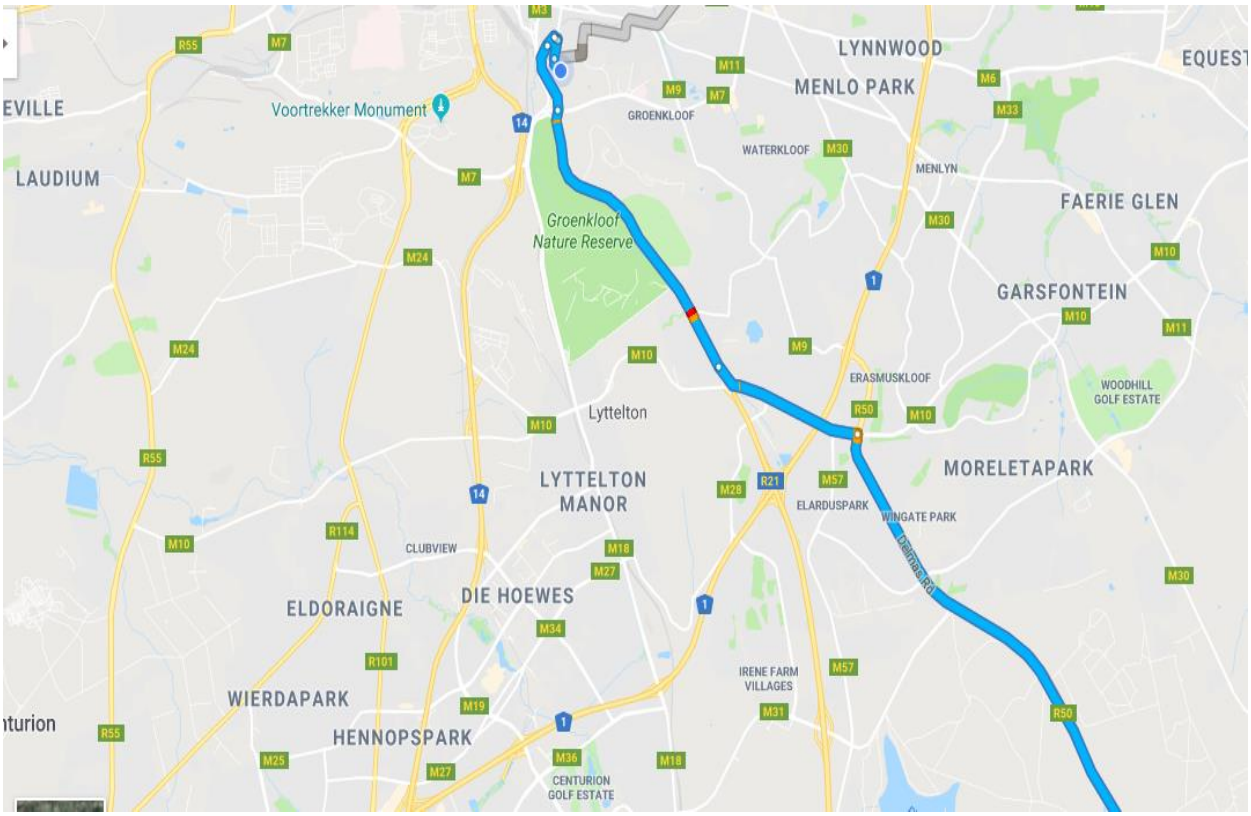
Site	Managers	Trainees	Male	Female	Age group	Total
Agricultural Institution A	**1**	**26**	**15**	**11**	**25-55**	**26**
Agricultural Institution B	**1**	**31**	**17**	**14**	**25- 60**	**31**

5.2.2 Geographical areas of the research

The maps (Fig. 5.3 and Fig. 5.4) below clarify the geographical location of the two chosen agricultural training institutions where the research participants were interviewed. Both Agricultural Training Institutions are not in the city because farming needs land for both animals and crop production. The maps illustrate the reasonable distances travelled by the researcher to access the participants at the institutions. The participants were not from those areas, but they chose to go there to be trained as farmers.

Figure 5.2. Agricultural Institution A





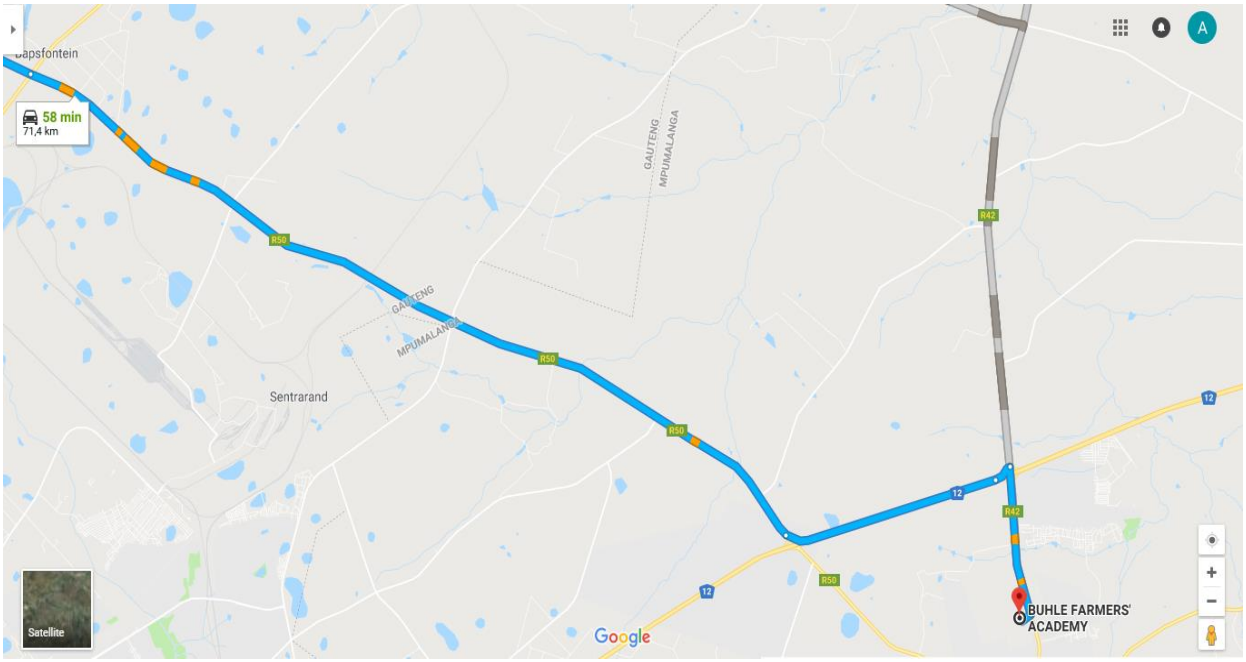
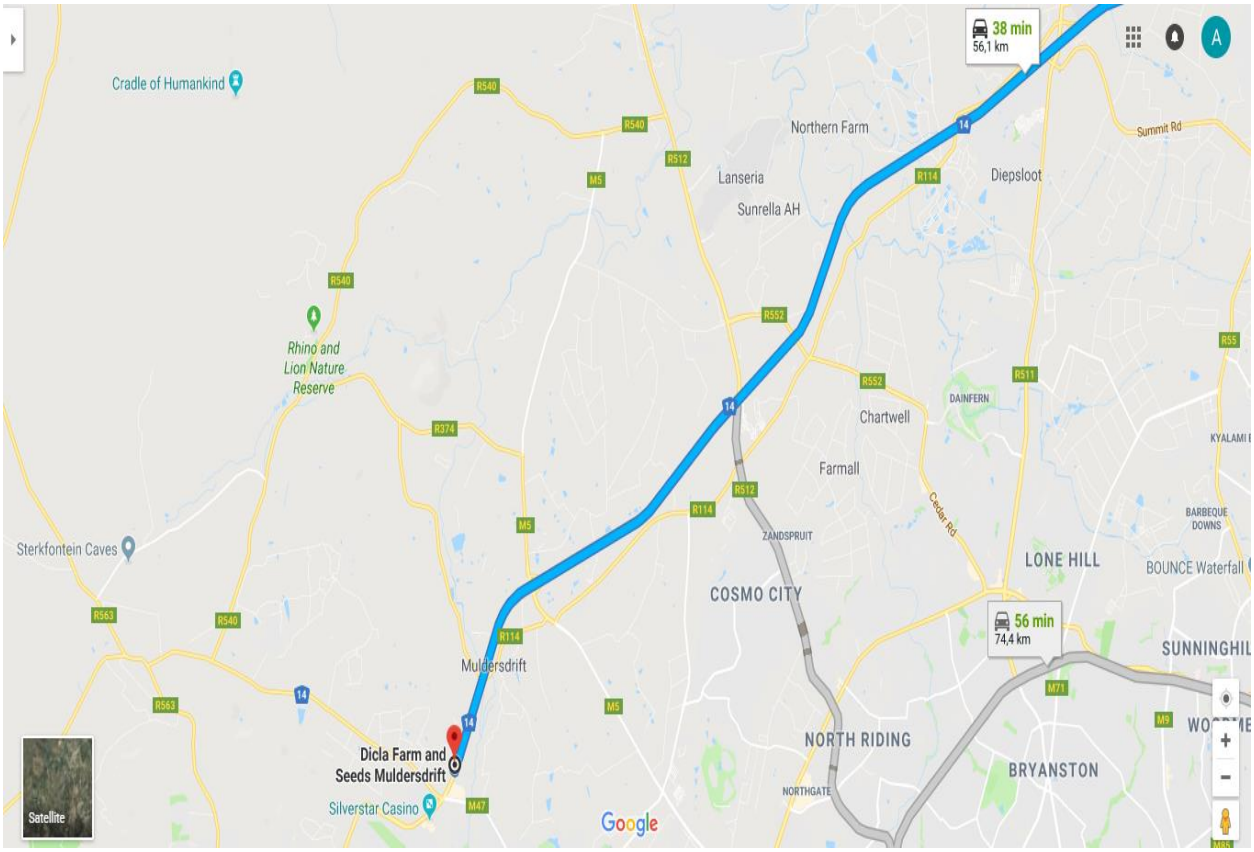


Figure 5.3. Agricultural Institution B



Marshall and Rossman (2011: 101) highlight concerns that are associated with access to the research setting. They further uncover other supporting rationale used for the selection of the sites such as positive aspects that are relatively easy access to participants, reduced time for expenditure for certain aspects of data collection as grounded theory is built on collecting data several times, as it will be easier to frequent the places by the researcher with ease. Therefore, a feasible location for research and the potential to build relationships is essential, hence the researcher used the specified locations. Marshall and Rossman (ibid) posit that a realistic site is where the researcher is likely to be able to build trusting relationships with the participants in the study. It is where the study can be conducted and reported ethically, and entry is possible. It is also a site that is realistic for the researcher when there is a high probability that a mix of the process, people, programmes, interactions and structures of interest is present. Lastly, the data quality and credibility are reasonably assured because the researcher visited the places and interacted with different groups that were there for the same purpose.

5.3 DATA PRESENTATION

Data presentation is elucidated in the introductory part of this chapter. There is some evidence to suggest that data can be presented in various forms depending on the type of data collected (Stern in Bryant & Charmaz 2013). Since this data were collected qualitatively, it will be presented thematically (using the emerged themes) with the use of tables and some figures.

Data can be information, records or even facts collected by everything that the researcher has taken as to make it alive. Stern in Bryant and Charmaz (2013) posit that data is everything that can be seen, heard, smelled and felt about the target, as well as what is already known from studies and life experiences. He further states that the researcher acts as an interpreter of the scene that he or she has observed. The data collected for this research was transformed by using the Atlas ti system to create the codes that build the themes that followed in this study. The summary of codes and themes is now

presented from the researcher's neutral observation and separate from the research participants.

5.3.1 Summary of codes

In the early stages of analysis, coding is largely descriptive (Bryant & Charmaz 2007). These authors continue to add that coding is the process by which categories are identified hence the forming of the themes. Star in Bryant and Charmaz (2013) says a code sets up a relationship with one's data and with one's respondents and therefore codes in grounded theory are such transitional objects. They allow us to know more about the field we research, yet carry the abstraction of the new. The codes below captured the patterns and clustered them under evocative headings. A grounded theorist creates qualitative codes by defining what he or she sees in the data (Bryant & Charmaz 2013). The set of codes below were derived from the individual and focus group interviews that were conducted from the chosen agricultural training institutions using the Atlas ti system.

Table 5.2. Summary of the Codes

Code	Comment	Grounded
assess the need, a		1
assessing the needs of the trainees		6
Building relaationships		12
Concerns of farmers/employers addressed		1
Cultural issuesare a barrier		2
Disabled people accomodated		4
Dissabilities do theory only		1
Evaluating is necessary		14
Follow up and monitoring		18
Growing the economy of the country		16
Implementing knowledge		20
Importance of theory		3
Involvement of other stake holders		1
Language barier		17
Managemet of farming taught		3
Managers role		7
Manager's role		32
Mentoring		13
Negative Manager's role		3
No evaluation		14
Overcoming of barriers taught		5
participation in the in-service training		27
Practical experience		37
Reasons for training	in-service training is	81
resources supplied		9
Resposibility of manager towards in-service training		2
Support from Manager		14
To be treated like adults		2
Trainining ifor farming is importantt		6
Views on in-service training		30

Table 5.3. The link of the emerged themes with the codes

Codes	Themes
Communication Guidance Network Mentoring Support Sharing knowledge Job creation Practical and hands on Empowerment To keep things professional Point of reference they should not judge Building relationships Building economy	Role of the farmers
Capacity building Bridge the gap between theory and practical To become business owners Getting support Bridge the gap between theory and practical Improve economical and commercial skills Support and motivation, they do support Improve financial skills Develop managerial skills	Training needs
Language barrier	Barriers to training

Attendance (irregular) Body language by the trainees Cultural differences	
Disability Different backgrounds Language Culture Age groups	Inclusivity
Inconsistent management styles Learned lots of theory instead of practical component Lack of self-esteem Lack of empowerment and support from managers Lack of computer skills Lack of clarity on the theory taught Limited knowledge of performance evaluation	Challenges experienced by adult learners

Table 5.4. The link between themes and study objectives

Themes	**Objectives**
Role of the farm managers	Explain and describe the way farm managers identify the in-service training needs of the adult learners
Training needs	Identify the strategies that are used to manage the in-service training of the adult learners

Barriers to training	Investigate the experiences of farm managers in managing the in-service training of the adult learners
Reasons for training Inclusivity Challenges experienced by adult learners	Explore the experiences of adult learners in in-service training

5.3.2 How the themes emerged

5.3.2.1 Theme 1. Role of the farm managers

This theme emerged from the responses of the participants from the following question: what role do farm managers play in your training? It emerged from the participants' response that farm managers should give them information, the knowledge that they can use when they have completed training. The participants further expect the farmers to give them support while mentoring them even beyond training. They think the role of the farm manager is to help them to be better farmers and be more profitable commercial farmers as they said…"from my side I think it is to be a better farmer, to be a more profitable farmer, to get some more information from the people who knows, who really went through it already". In turn, they will be able to share knowledge with other farmers and improve what they know in the changing industry of farming..." The other one is to also implement what has been taught, not only to learn and then when you go back you are still doing the same thing that you were doing before". Is to implement, to improve on whatever is that you were doing currently

5.3.2.2 Theme 2. Training needs

The participants brought forth their needs as trainees from answering the question; what do you think is your role as a trainee? They expressed their need of becoming better farmers to build a capacity building which they firmly believe will be a way of bridging the gap between the poor and the rich... "to become a better farmer. There is something in

our heads to be a better farmer" They want to become business owners by improving their economic and commercial skills. "Yes, by getting the hidden information" They need to improve their financial skills and to develop their managerial skills and knowledge by being supported and motivated by the farmers, supervisors and trainers so that the knowledge of closing the gap between theory and practice is realised.

5.3.2.3 Theme 3. Barriers to training

The farmers, managers, supervisors and the trainees expressed the same barriers to training when they were asked if the managers can assess the other learners' needs for training? A majority of adult learners in the farming industry are illiterate, some are either semi-literate, and a few are literate. This is because they come from different backgrounds. They speak different languages, and the farmers, managers, supervisors and trainers speak mostly English as it is the approved language of training. Afrikaans is also spoken by some trainers, farmers and managers but cannot be used as it is not an official training language and it cannot be understood by many people. "On the training part, okay. On the training part with language, I think it is very difficult for facilitators to facilitate people with language barriers. So you take longer" Therefore, language becomes a barrier for all because the cultural differences play a significant role and these training barriers end up causing the trainees to be inconsistent in attending their classes. The trainer is also delayed in the sense that he or she needs to speak slowly and try to interpret or get one of the adult learners to interpret. Different cultures interpret the body language in different ways, which can be a barrier that might be confusing, particularly if a language is not understood.

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5.3.2.4 Theme 4. Inclusivity

To what extent is your institution accommodative of people with disabilities?

This is the question that gave the participants as farmers, supervisors and trainers the chance to express their way of including disabled people and the difficulty of

accommodating them as farming needs strength and its training is 70% practical, depending on how and where the adult learner is disabled. “I think we make it equal, I don’t really care about cultural differences in class because it is something that we teach professionally and the cultural differences, I don’t think it makes a difference in the training environment that we are in now”.

Different backgrounds came out strongly as language can be a barrier. Different people of different backgrounds and languages form part of the training. Adult learners in farming are of different ages and are all included and trained the same but baring their cultures, level of education and interests in mind.

5.3.2.5 Theme 5. Challenges experienced by adult learners

Adult learners experience challenges that emerged when they were asked the following question; what is your opinion about participating in this in-service training? The inconsistency of management styles barred them from knowing what the responsibilities of a farm manager are and how to handle issues with other trainees. The participants cannot handle theory that is not carried out. “Each and every training that we have, we would like to have practical, because practical is necessary” Lack of empowerment and support from the managers kill their self-esteem. They could not agree that they should be evaluated or assessed as to how they perform because they had little knowledge on performance evaluation. Since they were of different ages and different levels of education, they could not agree on the necessity of using computers because they lacked computer skills. There was no clarity on why they should be evaluated and how computer skills could help them as farmers.

5.4 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Data analysis commenced during the data collection. In this phase, the researcher identified the research phenomenon. The process continued while coding the data. During the analysis, categories were identified and developed regarding their properties

and dimensions through a process involving the generation of basic categories to describe features of the data and constant comparisons between cases, instances and categories. Similar events and incidents were grouped into categories (Glaser 1978; Chenitz & Swanson 1986; Strauss & Corbin 1990). Six themes emerged from the coded data but, only five themes were found to be most related to the aims as set out in Chapter 1 (section 1.5) of this study. Therefore, the remaining one which is 'the reasons for training' was merged with 'training needs' as they were similar as tabled on Figure 5.7 above.

THEME 1. ROLE OF THE FARM MANAGERS

The role of managers is a theme that explains and describes the way farm managers identify the in-service training needs of the adult learners as the objective of the study. As mentioned in the literature review, one of the roles of the manager is to help the members of an organisation to attain individual as well as organisational objectives (Frank 2006). In the context of this research, the farm manager is regarded as the manager. Schermerhorn (2013:14) describes managers as "people in organisations who directly support, supervise, and help activate the work efforts and performance accomplishments of others". As stated in Chapter 3, the tasks of managers are referred to as management or managing.

They include the general administration of an organisation, whether it is a business enterprise or a not-for-profit organisation, or government body. Schermerhorn (2013:14) further asserts that "managers are found in all organisations with a variety of job titles like team leaders, department head, supervisor, project manager, president, administrator and more". Schermerhorn (ibid) also indicates that "it is the manager who determines whether our social institutions serve us well whether they squander our talents and resources". Management includes the activities of setting the strategy of an organisation and coordinating the efforts of its employees (or volunteers) to accomplish its objectives through the application of available resources such as financial, natural, technological and human (Frank 2006) (www.managementstudyhq.com).

In response to the question about their role as trainee farmers, the different focus group of participants were unanimous about the need to acquire more information, knowledge and skills of agriculture. The participants said:

"*from my side, I think it is to be a better farmer, to be a more profitable farmer, to get some more information from the people who know, who went through it already".*

The participants, during their focus group interviews, were aware that there was much more to learn about agriculture and farming and were looking forward to benefiting from their in-service training. The thought expressed by the trainee farmers is in line with the National Development Plan (NDP), which mentions the importance of skills development with an emphasis on the need for lifelong learning (NDP 2010). The NDP acknowledges that agriculture is a crucial sector and a key driver of growth for the rest of the economy. According to the NDP, what South Africa currently needs are agricultural workers who are skilled and can be able to contribute significantly to the economy and the productive use of land that is currently mooted for distribution. Agricultural Training Institutions mainly offer training to adult learners.

There was general agreement among the trainee farmers about the need to be available for training at all times to maximise their training benefits. They acknowledged that it is through training and research that they could improve their farming knowledge. This is so primarily because many were looking forward to running their farming businesses after receiving training. This positive attitude towards agriculture can be associated with Government efforts at promoting agricultural education and training early in 2005 by establishing the National Agricultural Education and Training Strategy (AETS) that identified disparities in education provision and access to opportunities. The AETS also proposed the establishment of agricultural training institutions in which the trainees find themselves. NCEE (2009) argues that the significance of adult in-service training is that it serves as a pre-cursor for skills development and preparation of adult learners in these institutions. Therefore, the management has to prioritise employees training for their development programme. The role of management, as a result, should be to channel efforts on designing programmes that suit the training needs of their employees as established from the training needs' analysis of their institutions.

Many expressed a strong belief in practical training or hands on experience. They appreciated the role of theoretical knowledge but laid more emphasis on practical experience, as Knowles (1984b: 12) emphasises “learning through practice”. Whereas (Kersley 2010) adds the point that adult learning is problem-centred rather than content-oriented. Hence, many expressed the need to always be present and participate in training sessions as well as to be focused on training, to learn to do the work correctly. “The adults want to be in control of their actions and their destiny” (Knowles 1984b: 12). This belief is supported by Schon (2002) who states that, competence is not developed by applying prior theory or knowledge to action according to procedures but instead serves as a knowing that is inherent in action. According to Schon (ibid), this calls for an epistemology of practice that focuses on learning through doing rather than learning for understanding.

The trainees were aware of the need to share the knowledge they had with other participants. They also acknowledged that farming knowledge was not confined to cultural or ethnic groupings. Hence, they embraced the ideas of building relationships, through networking. They also held strong beliefs about communication, guidance, mentorship and support.

The idea of sharing knowledge is confirmed by Binkley *et al.*, (2012) who state that many findings support the notion that collaborative student learning should be part of agricultural curricula. Learning to collaborate with others is an essential skill for students to be effective partners and thriving in a rapidly globalising economy (ibid). It is essential that we all know and acknowledge that achieving food security is the major global challenge that agriculturists face in the 21st century. The training manager at Agricultural Institution A, who stated that the facilitators force the trainees to interact with each other in groups, also expressed the need for collaboration and sharing of knowledge. The training manager stated that they feel farming is a group activity and that participants

need to function as groups in order to succeed in what they do. This is re-iterated by Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2011) who hold the view that a leader can build upon the spirit of togetherness. Nafukho et al. (ibid) believes that *ubuntu* invokes to encourage the organisation's members to work together to achieve their relationships and the organisation's goals.

The participants were well aware of their role in contributing, in general, to the uplifting of the economy of South Africa, through the improvement of agricultural production and job creation.

THEME 2. TRAINING NEEDS

According to Zhang (2013: 266-281), training means "investing in people to enable them to perform better and to empower them, to make the best use of their natural abilities for overall effectiveness and efficiency of an organisation". This idea on training is corroborated by Dermol and Cater (2013) who state that employees must be able to adapt quickly to frequent changes in their work environment, which requires constant improvement of knowledge, development of new skills and adaptation of their habits.

Most of the in-service training participants have a working knowledge of farming. However, may need to be formally trained, so that they do the procedures correctly and with effective confidence. This will ensure sound planning of their farming production and business enterprises. Many acknowledged that the in-service training was a revelation because they learned details about some farming items which they usually took for granted. They acknowledged the value of the newly acquired skills in the improvement of their farming operations.

There was a unanimous response from trainees about the need to become better farmers. There was general agreement on the need to be more productive farmers whether as farm employees or as farmers in their own right. This is what motivated them to enrol as trainees. "However, the effectiveness with which training is transferred primarily depends on the motivation to transfer".(https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/2322093718803210). They hope to

be more informed about farming to gain confidence on the job. They believe more in practical training than in theory. Hence they believe more in doing the job than in being taught theories of how to do the job.

The practical nature of the in-service training course helped many to bridge the gap between theory and practice, which has improved their understanding of the tasks they were doing. In particular, the trainees learned not only how to carry out farming operations but also how to convert farming into to business enterprises. This was confirmed by the training manager who stated that the trainees enjoyed practical sessions and that they learned more by doing farm tasks than by reading about them, hence the need to develop their skills.

Skills development is thus the fundamental reason for training. The skills are not confined to production activities, but also to organisational skills such as interpersonal relationships, networking and time management (https://doi.org/10.1177/2322093718803210). To acquire these skills, the participants need to be trained by experienced trainers in the needed skills. They acquire these skills not only from formal training but also from the support they receive from their training and other managers. The trainees were aware of the need to acquire management skills, especially financial management if they were to become farmers in their own right. Hence, they expressed the need for support in their farming operations. Primarily because of innovations and automation that are new trends, even in farming. Binkley *et al.* (2012) posit that data support the concept that new agricultural production technology and advancements in the agricultural industry should be included in the course curriculum. Feeding the growing world population is impossible without technological advancement in agriculture.

Most trainees are recruited for in-service training because of the need in their workplaces. However, there are some who volunteer for in-service training because of entrepreneurial attractions offered by the DTI and other sponsors. They need to be updated because

everything is changing, year by year, there is always new technology for which a farmer should be trained so that he or she can use the information for the betterment of their profession.

The need to be updated is critical for the farmers when considering that the change is more rapid and inevitable due to globalisation and technological advancement (Sweat 2010). According to Smith et al. *(*2010), the current trends in globalisation affect everyone, whether in government, business or private individuals. It is due to this reason that there is a need to prepare students to be competitive for jobs with their peers in other countries (Duncan 2010). Farming also requires the trainees to be equipped with protective clothing, such as gumboots and other personal equipment. According to the training coordinator at Agricultural Institution Training A, the institution on a weekly basis carries out assessments as the trainees are enrolled. It is from these assessments that the institution can verify that there is a real hunger for agricultural learning among the trainees. The manager confirms the responses of the trainees on their need to gain practical experience and become better farmers. Trainees of different levels of farming expertise express this unanimous enthusiasm. Some of them have never farmed before, some are farmers running their farming businesses, and some are emerging farmers. All of these have a common need for learning more about farming (Sweat 2010).

Baker et al. (2012) state that teaching agriculture requires instruction, advising, and supervision across a variety of experiences which forces teachers to perform numerous job responsibilities, specifically, numerous activities both in and outside of the classroom, such as instructional preparation and management, grading student work and administrative duties. On the other hand, organisations spend as much as 3 to 4 per cent of payroll on this important area, yet few can adequately measure its effectiveness, efficiency and impact (Bersin 2008). Similar concerns were expressed by Gottfredson and Mosher (2011:3 - 4) who state that “learning leaders have struggled long and hard to link measurable business results to learners who attend some formal instruction in class or online”.

Most trainees are recruited for in-service training because they are working as farmers already. However, there are some who volunteer for in-service training because of entrepreneurial attractions offered by the DTI and other sponsors. Surprisingly, most of the participants did not look forward to being evaluated or certificated. Nor did they regard evaluation as necessary, as quoted: "*I do not want to be evaluated"*. Their primary objective was to acquire practical farming skills in order to improve their farming capacity. During the group interviews, there was unanimity about the need for evaluation as a means of ensuring that one has achieved what they were researching.

THEME 3: BARRIERS TO TRAINING

Although differences of language may often present communication difficulties and understanding, the trainees expressed confidence that they understood things that were communicated and demonstrated to them practically. The manager expressed concern about the language as a barrier and said*:*

"the language barrier is quite a problem with farmers, especially emerging farmers, we try to help them as far as possible in their mother tongue but if we cannot, we make it, sorry, I can't remember the word".

Therefore, they regard language as a barrier to learning and in executing practical farming activities. This is understandable when considering that the employment guide for education has the provision of much effort to make it far easier for adults especially those with limited basic agricultural or English language skills (The National Centre on Education and the Economy (NCEE) 2009).

According to the training manager at Agricultural Training Institution A, language is quite a problem, especially with emerging farmers, because AgriSeta's, as the umbrella body, requirements are that they should research in English. Training requires that the trainees should have numeracy and literacy capabilities. The training manuals and the assessments are both in English. The training manager stated that it is challenging for facilitators to facilitate people with language barriers because it takes longer to complete tasks as the instructions have to be repeated and translated for the trainees to

understand. Hence, they devote about 70% of the time to practical training and less time for theory. It is only through the assistance of the trainers who assist those who can speak a little English by translation that the trainees cope. Interviews and document perusal have also confirmed the significance of language or cultural barriers to learning at in-service training institutions.

Cultural differences can be of hindrance between the trainees and the managers, as the manager of the other training institution expressed concerns with culture saying,

"Cultural differences, it is very difficult to talk about because I am Afrikaans, Afrikaans people do stuff differently than African people".

Whereas, the trainees, on the contrary, seem to be unanimous about the importance of practical training in farming that supersedes cultural barriers. Therefore, the trainees acknowledged learning from farmers of different cultural backgrounds including those of neighbouring African countries with no cultural barrier. The training manager of Agricultural Training Institution B, who stated that cultural differences are not a hindrance in the training environment, also held this view.

What is more critical in reducing obstacles to in-service training of the adult learners is the general positive attitude of the trainees towards in-service training. Most trainees expressed enthusiasm and commitment to learning agriculture skills that they regarded as important to their livelihood. They expressed a great interest in the acquisition of the farming skills and were determined to put all efforts into achieving their goals. Management of the training institutions acknowledges that the whole in-service training idea is for adult learning and that the agriculture sector is characterised by a large number of illiterate people who are unable to read and write. So AgriSeta started with adult education and training programmes that take them through the paces regarding skills development, given to mature people who already have basic skills of performing agricultural practices.

Some of the barriers to learning are self-inflicted through bad behaviour. According to the campus manager and trainer, some learners tend not to attend classes because of going out to drink alcohol. He showed his frustration when he said that:

"then we have also discourage their fighting, discourage excessive consumption of alcohol, we actually do not allow it in the campus, but we are saying over to adults here".

It stands to reason that they missed out on learning through this bad habit.

THEME 4: INCLUSIVITY

Although disability and age groups did not seem to be of major concern in the responses from the trainees, they seemed to be considered with care by management. Interviews with the campus manager, Agricultural Training Institution B, confirmed that they admit disabled trainees. Arrangements are made to accommodate them and motivate them to participate, and that special arrangements are made to enable them to participate in practical training. There is, therefore, general inclusivity as far as disability, language and culture are concerned.

According to the training manager of Agricultural Training Institution A, disabled persons may sometimes not feel good about themselves because they are sometimes excluded from participation in rigorous practical. Ntombela (2013) is of the opinion that, regarding developing an inclusive system of education, accessibility of the physical environment to children and people with disabilities is the most critical, followed by accommodation. Although this exclusion is often not a problem for the management, the disabled trainees become emotionally affected.

According to AgriSETA as the stakeholder, the in-service training courses were primarily designed for adult learners, most of whom are mature but illiterate, semi-literate and

literate. AgriSETA is aware that the youth are not very keen to enrol in in-service training. However, the responses about youth participation are not conclusive because the in-service trainees are all classified as adult learners, and there was no attempt to distinguish between adult and youth.

The manager of Agricultural Training Institution B mentioned that it is not possible at this stage to include disabled people who want to farm because there is a lot of practical requirements.

"*Disabilities, at this stage, I have to be quite honest, it is quite not possible to enrol totally disabled learners if you want to farm because it is a lot of practical requirements but for the theory part we have the facility to accommodate the disabled people and but we haven't had that many".*

However, for the theory part, they have a facility to accommodate the disabled though they have not had that many but they fulfil the theme of inclusivity in the study.

THEME 5: CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED BY ADULT LEARNERS

In-service training seems to have created job opportunities for many trainees. For many, the incentive of enrolling for in-service training is to find a means of living. However, training involves learning, and learning requires capabilities and educational background. Many of them have language difficulties and lack of other learning or communication skills. It is, therefore, a big challenge for them to be in in-service training. Hence, Phillips (2003: 354) adds to the fact that "the primary challenge of adult learners in management is to achieve all the project goals within the given constraints". This information is usually described in project documentation, created at the beginning of the development of the training process. The secondary, and more ambitious, challenge is to be able to optimise the allocation of necessary inputs and apply them to meet pre-defined objectives. "The object of project management is to produce a complete project which complies with the client's objectives" (PMI 2010: 27-35).

The other challenges may be family responsibilities while in training. So, they need support, especially financial support while in training. While they are in in-service training, they, therefore, depend much on the support of their trainers, mentors and managers. The fact that many may be chronologically advanced, means they have very little active time left to utilise the skills they have acquired to start or to improve their businesses. Many will be looking forward to employment after training.

From the management side, Agricultural Training Institution B, stated that the challenges of the adult learners include learned behaviour patterns. He mentioned terrible habits such as smoking. He cited situations where smoking learners tend to smoke in areas shared by the non-smoking learners, which may have negative health results. Some of the learned bad behaviours include consumption of alcohol, which often lead to quarrels and fighting. In these cases, the institution is compelled to intervene by restricting smoking to certain areas and by prohibiting alcohol consumption and quarrelling for the sake of peaceful co-existence.

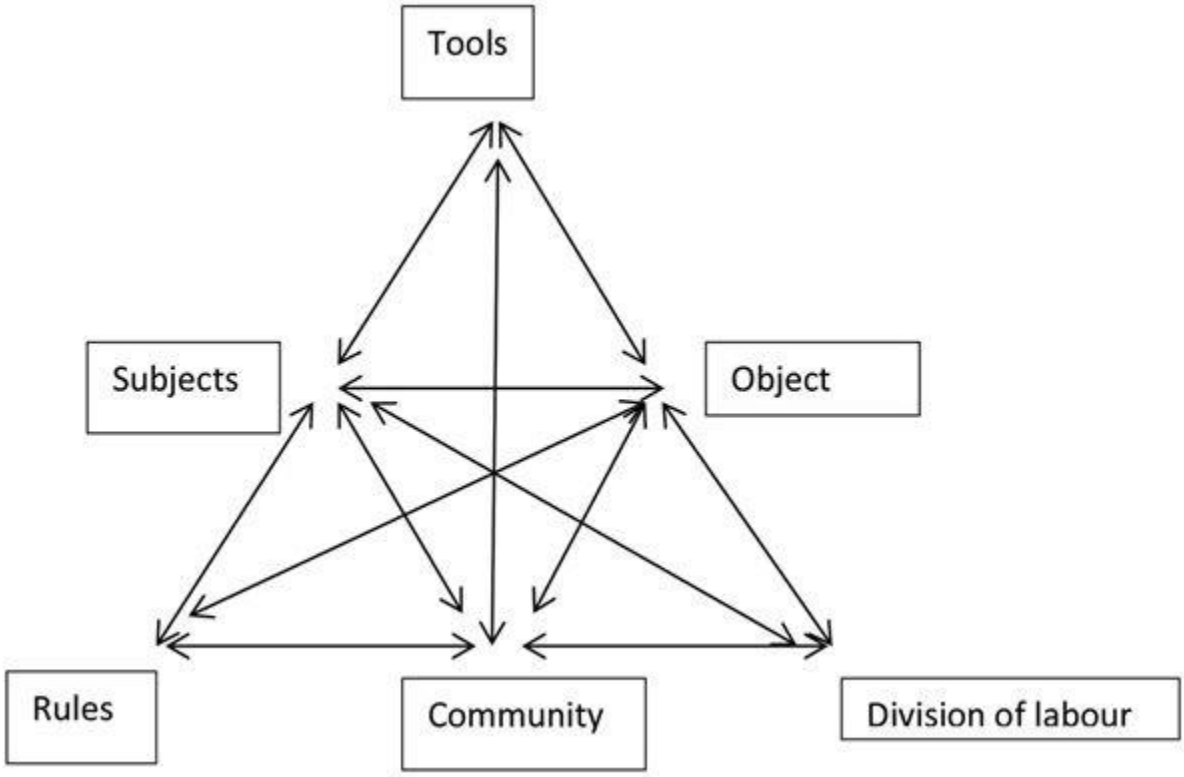
5.6 Emerged theory

The theory emerging from data gathered when applying grounded theory is activity theory, given the emergence of activity theory this section discusses activity theory firstly as emerged and secondly constructs in activity theory as emerged.

5.6.1 Activity theory as emerged

The following two figures highlight the relationship between activity theory elements and identified constructs.

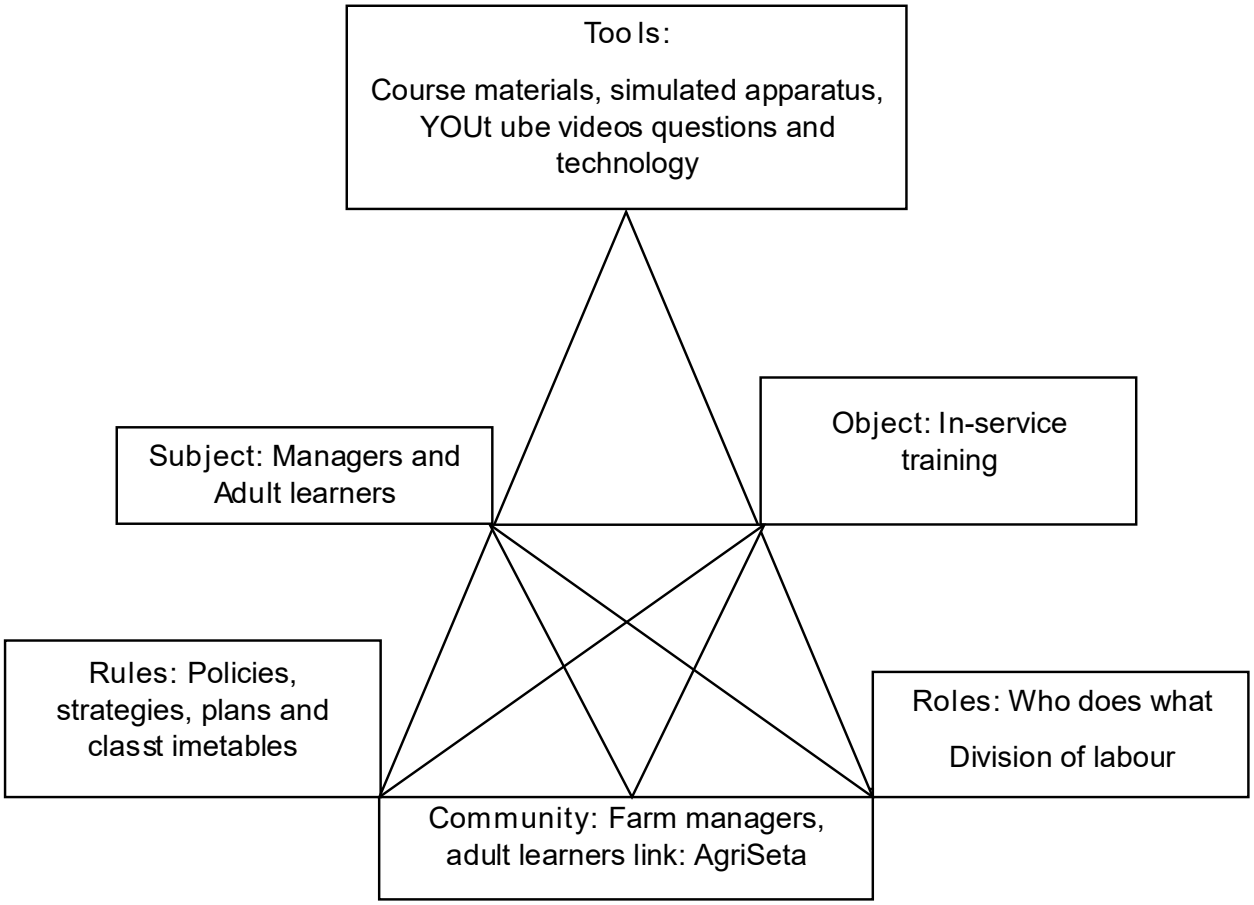
Figure:5.5.



5.6.2: Activity system (reproduced from Engström 1987)

The second Figure 2 gives clarity on how the results of the study bring about the relationship between its elements that they can be identified and better understood, especially regarding identifying constraints.

Figure 5.6.



5.6.3 Constructs in activity theory as emerged

Subject: Managers, Adult learners

Tools: Course materials, simulated apparatus, YOUtube videos, questions and technology

Object: In-service training

Rules: Policies, strategies, plans and class timetables

Community: Farm managers, adult learners, link: AgriSETA

Roles: Who does what, Division of labour

Outcome: Managing in-service training

5.7 SUMMARY

The chapter presented the data and analysis of findings. The created themes were discussed, analysed, presented and outlined, showing how they were created using the Atlas ti system. The description of participants and the participants' demographics were reported. The presentation of data gathered through in-depth interviews and the perspectives of the participants and their worldview structures were reported. In this respect, the views of the participants, the trainees and the managers, were presented verbatim and in italics. The emerging theory from the findings of the study was discussed. The next chapter presents the summary, recommendations and conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 discusses the summary of findings, emerging theory, recommendations and conclusion of the study. Recommendations are also made for future in-service training of employees and future research. The conclusion reached about the study and why the activity theory is recommended based on the analyses (using Atlas ti), is presented. The highlights of some identified areas that are not adequately covered in this study due to its scope and limitations, are pointed out.

In probing, more in-depth into this chapter, the immediate question that comes to mind is: has the aim of this intriguing journey been achieved or not?

The study found that the training of adult learners in agricultural institutions needs to be managed differently from that of other types of training. Based on this finding, the empirical results using the Atlas ti and the resulting codes show that the participants deserve a special way of being trained and managed such as a mentorship programme.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

Below is a summary of the main findings of the research on which this thesis is based. That is, the response to the main research question: What role do farm managers play in in-service training of adult learners?

6.2.1 The Need for In-service Training of Adult Learners in Agriculture

The importance of the research topic lies in the overall need for the improvement of agricultural productivity in South Africa (The Agriculture Education and Training (AET 2006). The significance of agriculture in the economy of the country was discussed,and

it has been shown that Agriculture is dependent on some factors that affect its productivity such as natural factors such as soils, water and the weather. Famers require knowledge and skills to utilise these natural factors for agricultural productivity. Of concern in South Africa, is the lack of knowledge and capacity for efficient utilisation of these natural resources for agricultural production among the subsistence farmers (AET 2006). This is now complicated by the phenomenon of climate change, which is affecting farmers throughout the world. Some innovations have been developed in agricultural production worldwide that need to be adopted by the farmers in South Africa. Advancement in knowledge and skills are needed to cope with these challenges. It is, therefore, very essential that farming in South Africa be adapted to the natural and technological changes affecting agricultural production through the education and training of the farmers. Hence, the importance of adult in-service training at agricultural institutions (Acemoglu & Robinson 2008)

It has been shown how the colonial historical development in South Africa resulted in a distorted agricultural land distribution, which has resulted in a dichotomy of agricultural production, namely, commercial and subsistence. The current situation is that there are vast areas of land lying fallow in both the commercialised and subsistence types of agriculture. For agricultural land in South Africa to be fully utilised for production, there is a need for the skilling of as many people as possible in agriculture (Directorate Education and Training. 2005). Hence the need for adult in-service training at agricultural institutions.

6.2.2 Efforts to Train Learners in Agriculture in South Africa

The discussions in Chapter two of this research illustrate the various attempts by the different organisations and the government in South Africa to provide training to agricultural workers. It was pointed out that before the new political dispensation, agricultural training institutions served mainly the interests of the predominantly White commercial farmers who needed skilled labour for their commercialised agricultural production. The importance of Agricultural training institutions in providing the knowledge and technologies needed to cope with farming was also illustrated in Chapter two by

writers such as Nafukho, Amutabi & Otunga (2005) and Masukela, Lubbe & Pelser (2013). The demand for agricultural training, therefore, compelled the government to establish agricultural institutions to serve even the subsistence agricultural areas.

During the new political dispensation after 1994, the government vigorously introduced agricultural training through the establishment of various training institutions (NDP 2010, Department of Agriculture 2011).
This was in order to close the agricultural skills gap, and to enable the country to utilise its land resources for food supply and economic growth. First is the relevance of institutions to shape the incentive structure that affects the decisions of economic actors, triggering economic development. Second, is the impact of institutions in shaping the economy. Agricultural institutions are designed to skill agricultural workers or prospective workers to be able to grasp the intricacies of agriculture in its entirety and bring them to speed with new technological developments within the industry.

Besides establishing Agricultural training institutions, the government also made provision for the skilling of agricultural workers through the skills development fund managed by the Services Sector Education and Training Authority (Services Seta). Funding for the agricultural sector was taken care of by the AgriSETA to enable learners to get skilled in agricultural institutions. A series of legislation was also established to ensure the proper management of the funds as well as the agricultural institutions as discussed in Chapter 2.

Recognising the importance of agriculture as a critical driver of growth for the rest of the economy, and realising that rural areas in South Africa are still characterised by high poverty and inequality, with many households trapped in a vicious cycle of poverty, is vital. It was also to ensure sustainable production on transferred land. The NDP recommended an improvement and extension of skills development in the agricultural sector including entrepreneurship training (National Department of Agriculture. 2011)

6.2.3 Training Indigenous Adult Learners in Agriculture

The adult learner in this research was described as any employee in a farming industry from ages eighteen (18) to sixty-five (65), who is willing to be developed and be recognised on his or her duty by his or her employer for his or her knowledge and experience accumulated on duty.

Adult learning in farming is all about enabling adult learners who are farmers and employees to make adjustments to their personal and social lives. Adult learners are deemed self-directing (Knowles, 1968, Merriam & Caffarella 1999 and Hansman 2001) and they derive only positive benefits from the learning experience as postulated by the theory of andragogy, discussed in Chapter 3. They are ready to learn, and they voluntarily enter an educational activity with a task-centred or problem-centred orientation to learning, and as such, they are internally motivated.

Many of the potential candidates for training in agriculture happen to be indigenous adults. Chapter two discussed the characteristics of the indigenous adult learners and the problems associated with their training. It was deliberated that indigenous education was a process of learning that progressed throughout lifetime from childhood to adult hood (Van Wyk, 2002, Mushi 2009 and Cameroon & Dodd 1970). It has thus become clear that a learner's social and cultural life cannot be subsumed into a master narrative. The implications of this for the training of indigenous adult learners is that special care should be taken on their education and training. Many points of interest have been raised on the Indigenous Knowledge Systems (IKS) by various authors cited in Chapter two. The result of which is that indigenous knowledge is particularly necessary to modern environmental management in today's world (Cornbleth 1990, Prakash & Esteva 1998 and Van Wyk, J.A. 2002). The discussions also pointed out in Chapter two that the inclusion of aspects of indigenous education requires acknowledgement of the existence of multiple forms of knowledge rather than one, standard, benchmark system.

6.2.4. The Management of Adult In-service Training in Agricultural Institutions

The concept management has been exhaustively discussed in Chapters One, Three and Five. It has been found that management signifies the leadership and administration of an organisation, and that management includes the activities of setting the strategy of an organisation and coordinating the efforts of its employees to accomplish its objectives (Schermerhorn, 2013 and Fayol, 1917). It is noted that management consists of people (the managers leading these activities) who directly support, supervise, and help activate the work efforts and performance of members of the organisations for the accomplishment of its objectives (Fayol 1917).

The purpose and objectives of adult in-service training in agricultural institutions are to help develop semiskilled and unskilled workers and to skill them to be productive agricultural farmers who may eventually become independent farmers. There is thus a great responsibility on managers of the in-service project at agricultural institutions, to ensure that the appropriate training needs are identified and that the trainees are efficiently developed to be productive in their farm work. Seamless career pathways need to be identified and offered that will make it far easier for adults, especially those with limited basic agricultural skills or English language proficiency.

The AET (2006) proposed the prioritisation of management of adult learning in agricultural in-service institutions, and it is now mandatory for the management of agricultural institutions providing in-service training to skill their workers. The role of management should be to channel efforts on designing programmes that suit the training needs of their employees as established from the training needs analysis of their institutions.

There is also a need for managers to conduct a continuous evaluation of training programmes and material to ensure that programmes are relevant and able to address the skills gaps of employees (Raab *et al*. 1987, Schön 2002 and Aguinis 2009)

It is also noted that agriculture is continuously changing with technological innovations and expanding international trade. That due to this continuous change, agricultural education and training also needs to adapt to change if it is to remain a vital part of

economic development. It is essential that the skills development of the in-service trainees be prioritised to ensure that trainees are competent and, therefore, can be able to contribute towards the economic development of the country. The principle of Ubuntu should be employed and the values of responsibility and accountability ought to be upheld so that it effectively filters to adult learners. Bandura, 2005, Nafukho *et al.,* 2011, and Setlhodi, 2018a).

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

South Africa needs to develop laws and policy frameworks that would allow the necessary changes in agricultural production to be implemented. Fortunately, there are already legislations regarding the transformation of agricultural land use in the form of land reforms. Agricultural training institutions have also been established with AgriSETA as the umbrella body. The recommendations hereunder are based on the need for efficiency of management of adult in-service training in the agricultural institutions.

6.3.1 For these in-service training institutions to improve capacity building, given the fact that many of the adult in-service trainees are illiterate, it is recommended that the emphasis be put more on practical training than theory. This implies the employment of additional assistants in the training programmes over and above the lead trainer, in order to reach out to all participants and give individual attention to them. These assistants should give continual guidance and counselling to the adult in-service trainees and help them overcome any problems they encounter during the training. These additional assistants or mentors should be able to speak the language of the trainees in order to bridge the language gap in training or during the mentoring process. Where there is a lack of clarity in any individual or group of trainees, the assistants should be able to provide it. Such an arrangement should also facilitate the gap between theory and practical training, mainly because the trainees are already sufficiently motivated to learn.

6.3.2. To quell the differences of opinion between those participants who expressed the need for evaluation of training and those trainees who felt this was not needed, it is here recommended that there is a need for the evaluation of training. Most of the participants who did not approve evaluation were those who did not need a certification of merit for employment since they were already secured in jobs or were involved in farming at a minimum scale. Another group who disapproved evaluation were those who feared failure because of language difficulties. On the other hand, the sponsors of these trainees were very eager to know the results of the training. Other stakeholders such as AgriSETA would also be keen to know whether there is any progress in the training programmes as such. This need for evaluation is not so much focused on the individual trainee but rather on the entire programme for the sake of planning and progress (Raab *et al*. 1987, Schön 2002 and Aguinis 2009). It is therefore recommended that the evaluation is done, but in a manner that will not threaten those who fear being evaluated. It should accommodate those with language difficulties by being mainly practical with some explanatory assistance from the assistants. This implies careful planning of the evaluation programmes by the management of the agricultural institutions.

6.3.3 Continuous evaluation of the trainees is also necessary to evaluate the course offering at the institutions ((Raab *et al*. 1987, Schön 2002 and Aguinis 2009) Trainee performance often reflects on supervisor performance or other factors such as curricula, training tools, time frames, the language of instruction, among others. Continuous evaluation of trainees, therefore, would help indicate where there are needs for improvement in the in-service training at the institution. It can also help to compare the institutions' performance and progress with those of other similar institutions and thus enable the structuring of appropriate mentorship programmes (Setlhodi, 2018b). This way the institution's managers can identify the strengths and weaknesses of their institutions, and be able to introduce improvements where needed and feature appropriate training, support and guidance needs. Continuous evaluation implies that more time and cost of the planning of execution of the evaluation programmes would be needed, and it would require more effort for the implementation of training and support programmes

6.3.4 It is recommended that there be continual meetings and networking among the different adult in-service institutions of agriculture for the exchange of knowledge and skills. Frequent conferences with national and international participants should be organised where the managers, as well as trainees, can have communication with their counterparts as well as experts in certain branches of knowledge particularly with institutions that have similar settings, learner capacity and challenges. This involves organisational tasks for the management of the agricultural institutions that may have financial implications. Networking will enable the institutions to keep abreast of recent technologies and skills in the field of agriculture, with beneficial results. The trainees should be exposed to these various rural business enterprises, not only for their personal development but also for the economic development of South Africa.

6.3.5 It is recommended that more support be given to adult trainees at the agricultural in-service training institutions. This is not only confined to learning support, but also to financial support during and after training. The challenges of adult learners who have family responsibilities could be addressed by them having some sponsorships or loans while on training. This would address some of the factors leading to low self-esteem among adult learners. Those who will be looking for employment after training could be placed in some internships jobs. This would motivate more adult in-service trainees at agricultural institutions, resulting in more agricultural activities and improvement in the economy of South Africa. This implies more financial organisation on the part of the management of the institutions, in partnership with the other stakeholders.

6.3.6 The establishment of a system of mentorship is recommended for adult in-service trainees that should be linked to the internship jobs. Mentoring of the adult trainees is necessary for their empowerment. Efficient and experienced mentors should be carefully selected to provide guidance and support to the trainees for their professional career development. Specific formats and goals should be identified and prescribed upon which the mentors will rely on while sharing knowledge with their mentees. Mentors should be selected by their knowledge and skills in an interpersonal relationship. Their tasks should be to provide the adult trainees with the necessary information about their career paths as well as provide guidance, motivation, emotional support and role modelling. They

should be compassionate in their tasks and feel invested in the success of their mentees. This would provide the adult trainees with inspiration and guidance to work towards career goals or develop self-reliance that is needed for success in their careers. The involvement of mentors has financial implications in that their work will have to be rewarded in some way. However, this can be achieved with minimal costs through partnerships with other stakeholders.

6.3.7 The Government of South Africa has already indicated a commitment to addressing the agricultural sector through legislation and the establishment of training institutions. It is recommended that partnerships of all stakeholders involved in agricultural training programmes including government, AgriSETA, all the service providers, and the management of agricultural institutions be established and prioritised, for effective implementation of the agricultural training programmes. This implies that the management of these institutions have to build stakeholder relationships that can be able to achieve the objectives of the training programmes.

6.3.8 It is here recommended that a dedicated plan to skill the adult in-service trainees at agricultural institutions be put in place and implemented for the betterment of South Africa's economy through improved agricultural production. A well-structured training programme needs to be compiled that is necessary to provide opportunities for workers to ultimately become independent farmers and contributors of agricultural supplies for the economy. Managing of adult learning in these service training institutions should be structured in such a way that an optimum number of workers benefit.

Given the above, the trainees were eager to become business owners or independent farmers. It is, thus, recommended that the training curricula include training in project management and entrepreneurial skills. These skills should be demonstrated practically, and the trainees should be given ample opportunity for hands on experience. This would empower the trainees with skills of managing not only their farming activities but also their

finances and embark in agricultural entrepreneurial adventures. This implies the acquisition of economic and commercial skills by the trainees that would make them efficient planners in their own right to overcome the farming and business problems encountered in their operation.

6.4 CONCLUSION

The study examined the role of management of the in-service training of adult learners in agricultural institutions using the grounded theory. The adopted theory was activity theory. However, what emerged from the research data is the theoretical skills development versus practical skills development which indicates that there was a lack of consensus on the management of in-service training of adult learners. In terms of the recommendations above, the study proposed some remedial measures to improve the management of adult in-service training in the agricultural institutions. The improvement of adult in-service training is essential for the efficiency of agricultural production and the economy of South Africa.

Finally, this study expects to add to knowledge by contributing to a better understanding of the role of managers in the in-serving training of adult learners in agricultural institutions. The study may provide the scope for improvement of adult learner performance at work. Adding value to the leadership and management for productivity and advancement of the adults in in-service training projects, enabling adult learners to benefit from their training, learning and self-management of own learning.

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Appendix A.
Ethics certificate

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UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2018/03/14

Ref: 2018/03/14/04178033/27/MC
Name: Ms AA Sepheka
Student: 04178033

Dear Ms Sepheka

Decision: Ethics Approval from 2018/03/14 to 2023/03/14

Researcher(s): Name: Ms AA Sepheka
E-mail address: 4178033@myunisa.ac.za
Telephone: 082 803 1276

Supervisor(s): Name: Prof LDM Lebeloane
E-mail address: lelelldm@unisa.ac.za
Telephone: +27 12 429 4433

Co Supervisor: Name: Dr II Setlhodi
E-mail address: setlhii@unisa.ac.za
Telephone: +27 12 4812878

Title of research:

The impact of managing the in-service training of adult learners in agricultural institutions in Gauteng province

Qualification: PhD in Educational Leadership and Management

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2018/03/14 to 2023/03/14.

*The **low risk** application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2018/03/14 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and

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Appendix B.
Focus group interview guide

- What are you supposed to be doing here?
- How do you feel like in being selected for in-service training?
- What are your experiences in taking part in in-service training?
- What support do the training managers give to the in-service training?
- What do you feel about the attitude of managers towards in-service training?
- How do you feel about being evaluated after training?
- What do you intend to do with the knowledge you gained after training?
- What performance improvements do you expect after training?
- What are your views about the in-service training?
- How would you advise your colleagues about in-service-training?
- What resources, such as books, etc. are given to you for training?
- What can you suggest to management to improve your work and in-service training?

Thank you for your time and contributions

Researcher's signature 

Name of researcher: Amony Amanda Sepheka

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Appendix C.
Interview questions individuals: Farm managers

- How is it feasible for managers to assess adult learner needs, as well as meet the service provider needs?
- How do you deal with adult learning barriers such as language, disability and culture?
- How can the adult learners be supported to actively plough back the information that they learned through in-service training?
- In what ways can the facilitation of the in-service training enable your employees to interact and share their knowledge with their fellow adult learners?
- How can management create opportunities for themselves and their employees to develop using in-service training initiatives that will let them thrive?
- What benefits does your institution get from in-service training in the agricultural sector?
- What are the perceptions of adult learners concerning their training?

Thank you for your time and contribution.

Appendix D.
Request for permission to conduct research for Agriseta. Dicla and Buhle training institutions

Date: 20 June 2018

Name: Mr Fanny Phetla

Department: AgriSETA

Contact details: Tel: 012 301 5625

Dear Mr. Fanny Phetla

I, Amony Amanda Sepheka am doing research under supervision of L.D.M. Lebeloane and I.I. Setlhodi, a Professor and Doctor respectively in the Department of Leadership and Management towards a PhD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled: The impact of managing the in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution

The aim of the study is*:* to establish the role of management in assessing the impact of training undertaken by adult learners.

Your department has been selected because it is an umbrella body and a Seta for agricultural institutions the study will entail research through individual interviews for management and focus group interviews for the employees who happen to be the trainees.

The benefit of this study is: to improve the management of adult learners from an agricultural in-service training.

Potential risks are*:* No risks are envisaged. However, anything unforeseen should happen, relevant and appropriate steps will be taken to protect participants.

There will be no reimbursement or any incentives for participation in the research.

Feedback procedure will entail: setting a meeting individually with managers and supervisors to share the outcome of this study.

Yours sincerely

Amony Amanda Sepheka

PhD Student and researcher

Signature of researcher

Date 2018

Name: Jacolette Vermeulen
Department: Training
Contact details: Tel: 084 880 8706/ 071 692 2229. training@dicla.com

Dear Ms. Jacolette Vermeulen

I, Amony Amanda Sepheka am doing research under supervision of L.D.M. Lebeloane and I.I. Setlhodi, a Professor and Doctor respectively in the Department of Leadership and Management towards a PhD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled: The impact of managing the in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution

The aim of the study is*:* to establish the role of management in assessing the impact of training undertaken by adult learners.

Your company/ department have been selected because it is an agricultural training institution.

The study will entail research through individual interviews for management and focus group interviews for the employees who happen to be the trainees.

The benefit of this study is: to improve the management of adult learners from an agricultural in-service training.

Potential risks are*:* No risks are envisaged. However, anything unforeseen should happen, relevant and appropriate steps will be taken to protect participants.

There will be no reimbursement or any incentives for participation in the research.
Feedback procedure will entail: setting a meeting individually with managers and supervisors and the focus group to share the outcome of this study.

Yours sincerely

_____

Amony Amanda Sepheka

PhD Student and researcher

Signature of researcher

Title of your research The role of management in the in-service Training of adult learners in Agricultural institutions.

Date 2018

Name: Mr Nyiko
Department: Training
Contact details: Tel: 012 492 1383

Dear Mr. Nyiko

I, Amony Amanda Sepheka am doing research under supervision of L.D.M. Lebeloane and I.I. Setlhodi, a Professor and Doctor respectively in the Department of Leadership and Management towards a PhD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled: The impact of managing the in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution

The aim of the study is*:* to establish the role of management in assessing the impact of training undertaken by adult learners.

Your company/ department have been selected because it is an agricultural training institution.

The study will entail research through individual interviews for management and focus group interviews for the employees who happen to be the trainees.

The benefit of this study is: to improve the management of adult learners from an agricultural in-service training.

Potential risks are*:* No risks are envisaged. However, anything unforeseen should happen, relevant and appropriate steps will be taken to protect participants.

There will be no reimbursement or any incentives for participation in the research.
Feedback procedure will entail: setting a meeting individually with managers and supervisors and the focus group to share the outcome of this study.

Yours sincerely

Amony Amanda Sepheka

PhD Student and researcher

Signature of researcher

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Appendix E
Invitation letter to participants

I, Amony Amanda Sepheka am conducting as part of my research as a PhD student entitled the role of management in the in-service Training of adult learners in Agricultural institutions, at the University of South Africa. Permission for the study has been given by Department of Leadership and Management and Adult Education & Youth Development respectively and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. I have purposefully identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise related to my research topic.

I would like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you should agree to take part. The impact of managing the in-service training of adult learners in an agricultural institution in Gauteng province to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to improve your performance.

In this interview I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic. This information can be used to improve the training that you receive to be more effective in your work, be developed and contribute to the economy of our country. Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an interview of approximately 45 – 60 minutes in length to take place in a mutually agreed upon location at a time convenient to you. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences.

With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to confirm the accuracy of our conversation and to add or to clarify any points. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. Data collected during this study will be retained on a password protected computer for 5 years in my locked office.

The benefits of this study are that transport money will be provided to cover costs for transport of those in need as it will be determined. You will be reimbursed accordingly if you spent money for food before

arriving for the interviews and after the interview refreshments will be served. There will be no any incentives for your participation in the research. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study.

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Amony Amanda Sepheka on 082 803 1276 or email Amony.sepheka@gmail.com. The findings are accessible for 5 years.

If you have any questions regarding this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participation, please contact me at 082 803 1276 or by e-mail at Amony.sepheka@gmail.com. I look forward to speaking to you and thank you in advance for your assistance in this project. If you accept my invitation to participate, I will request you to sign the consent form.

Yours sincerely

_____ _____ _____

Researcher's name (print) Researcher's signature: Date:

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Appendix F.
Letter of consent from participants

I, _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable).

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the recording of my answering of questions and discussions in a focus group or as an individual.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname (please print) _____

_____ _____

Participant Signature Date

Researcher's Name & Surname (please print): Amony Amanda Sepheka

_____ _____

Researcher's signature Date

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Appendix G.
Letter of consent from participants.

I, _____ (participant name: Manager), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that participation of my institution is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable).

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the recording of my answering of questions and discussions in a focus group or as an individual.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname (please print) _____

_____ _____

Participant Signature Date

Researcher's Name & Surname (please print): Amony Amanda Sepheka

_____ _____

Researcher's signature Date

I, ……. (participant name: focus groups), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood this study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask and prepared to participate in this study understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw anytime without penalty (if applicable)

I am aware that the findings of this study will be proceeds into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the recording of the audio recorder.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname (please print) ……..

Participant Signature:……. Date:……

Researcher's Name & Surname: Amony Amanda Sepheka

Researcher's signature:…….. Date:.....

20 December 2018

DECLARATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDIT

I declare that I have edited and proofread the Doctor of Philosophy of Education thesis entitled**: THE ROLE OF MANAGEMENT IN THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF ADULT LEARNERS IN AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTIONS by Ms Amony Amanda Sepheka.**

My involvement was restricted to language editing: contextual spelling, grammar, punctuation, unclear antecedent, wordiness, vocabulary enhancement, sentence structure and style, proofreading, sentence completeness, sentence rewriting, consistency, referencing style, editing of headings and captions. I did not do structural re-writing of the content. Kindly note that the manuscript was formatted as per agreement with the client.

No responsibility is taken for any occurrences of plagiarism, which may not be obvious to the editor. The client is responsible for ensuring that all sources are listed in the reference list/bibliography. The editor is not accountable for any changes made to this document by the author or any other party subsequent to my edit. The client is responsible for the quality and accuracy of the final submission/publication.

Sincerely,

PZENGELE

Professional EDITORS Guild

Pholile Zengele
Associate Member

Membership number: ZEN001
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